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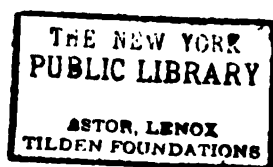


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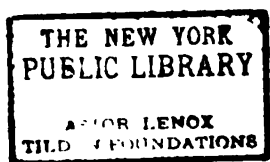
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Tanner, Vallance, Kearny & Co. 34



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FROM

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DURING THAT PERIOD.

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CONTENTS

OF

THE SECOND VOLUME.

BOOK IV.—CONTINUED.

CHAPTER III.

BRITISH HISTORY: Meeting of Parliament—Debates on the late Negotiation with France—Financial Statements—Lord Henry Petty's Plan of Finance—Bill for the better Regulation of Courts of Justice in Scotland—Mr. Whitbread's Plan for reforming the Poor Laws and amending the Condition of the Poor—Total Abolition of the Slave-trade—Catholic Bill—Change of Ministry consequent thereon—New Administration—General Election Page 9

CHAPTER IV.

EXPEDITIONS: To the Dardanelles—To Egypt—Against Monte Video—Against Buenos Ayres—Capture of the Dutch Settlement of Curacao—Expedition to Copenhagen—War declared by Russia against England—New System of Commercial Interdiction—Disputes with the United States of America—French Decrees—British Orders in Council 25

CHAPTER V.

FOREIGN HISTORY: State of France—The Code of Conscription—The Emperor's Address to the Assemblies—Territorial Changes in Holland—State of Portugal—Threats of French Invasion held out to the Court of Lisbon—Removal of the British Settlers—Emigration of the Court to the Brazils—Entrance of the French Army into Lisbon—Situation of Spain—Conspiracy against the King by his Son—Secret Treaty for the Partition of the Kingdom of Portugal—Introduction of a French Force into Spain—Abdication of Charles IV.—The Royal Family of Spain allured to Bayonne to meet the Emperor Napoleon—Intrigues at that Place—Abdication of Charles and Ferdinand in favour of Bonaparte—Insurrection at Madrid—Prostration of Spain at the feet of the Invaders 35

CHAPTER VI.

CAMPAIGN IN THE PENINSULA OF SPAIN AND PORTUGAL: Formation of the Juntas, and general Burst of Patriotism throughout the Provinces of Spain—Declaration of War against France, and Restoration of Peace with England—Successes afforded to the Spanish Patriots by Great Britain—Surrender of the French Fleet at Cadix—Defeat and Capitulation of the French Army under General Dupont—Gallant Defence of Saragossa—Battle of Rio Seco—Operations in Berac—Repulse of the French Army at Valencia—Joseph Bonaparte proclaimed King of Spain by Napoleon—Sketch of the New Spanish Constitution—Entrance of Joseph Bonaparte into Madrid—His precipitate Retreat from that Capital—Installation of the Supreme Junta—Failure of the Spanish Armies in their Efforts to drive the French beyond the Pyrenees—Liberation of the Spanish Troops in the Baltic under the Marquis de la Romana—Conference at Erfurth—Letters from the Emperors

of France and Russia to the King of England—Failure of the Negotiation consequent thereon—Situation of the French and Spanish Armies in the Peninsula at the beginning of November—Defeat and partial Dispersion of the Army under General Blake in Biscay—of Count Belvedere's Force in Estramadura—and of the Army under General Castanos on the Ebro—Advance of Napoleon to the Capital of Spain—Fall of Madrid—Disposition of the Spanish Colonies. **CAMPAIGN IN PORTUGAL:** Situation of that Kingdom—Oporto wrested from the French—Arrival of a British Expedition under Sir Arthur Wellesley off the Coast of Portugal—Debarcation of the British Troops—Battle of Roleia—Battle of Vimiera—Convention of Cintra—Sir John Moore appointed Commander-in-chief of the British Forces in the Peninsula—Advance of the Expedition under his Command to Salamanca—Perilous Situation—Disastrous Retreat—Battle of Corunna—Death of Sir John Moore—Embarkation of the Troops—Termination of the Campaign 45

CHAPTER VII.

FOREIGN HISTORY: Mediation of Austria—Perilous Situation of Sweden—Subsidiary Treaty between Great Britain and Sweden—Invasion of Finland by the Russians, under Count Buxhovden—Surrender of Abo and Biomeberg to the Russians—Fall of Sweaborg—Armistice between the Russian and Swedish Forces—Unsuccessful Efforts of Sweden against Norway—English Army despatched to the Baltic—Operations of the Squadron under Sir Samuel Hood—Predominant Influence of French Politics at the Court of St. Petersburg—Expulsion of the Swedes from Finland—Death of Christian VII. King of Denmark—Changes in Italy—Establishment of an Order of hereditary Nobility in France—Nomenclature of the Court of the Emperor Napoleon (*note*)—French Annual Expose—Relations between the United States of America and the belligerent Powers of Europe 75

CHAPTER VIII.

BRITISH HISTORY: Meeting of the Parliament of 1808—Debates on the Bombardment of Copenhagen and the Seizure of the Danish Fleet—Petitions for Peace—Mr. Whitbread's Motion of Censure for the Rejection of the proffered Mediation of Russia and Austria—Bill for the Prevention of Reversionary Grants—Sir Francis Burdett's Motion on the Appropriation of the Droits of Admiralty—Lord Castlereagh's Proposal for reviving the Practice of Enlistment for Life—for the Formation of a Local Militia—National Finances—Sir Samuel Romilly's Bill for ameliorating the Criminal Code—Mr. Sheridan's Appeal in favour of the Spanish Patriots—Rejection of a Bill for fixing a minimum Price on Labour—The Session of Parliament closed by a solemn Pledge to support the Cause of the Spanish Patriots 71

CHAPTER IX.

FOREIGN HISTORY: Military Preparations of the House of Austria—Rupture between France and Austria—Passage of the Inn by the Archduke Charles—Departure of Bonaparte from Paris, to place himself at the head of his Army in Germany—Battle of Ebnensburg—Fall of Landshtut into the hands of the French—Napoleon and the Archduke meet for the first time at Eckmühl, where the Austrians sustain a signal Defeat—Fall of Ratisbon—Advance of the French Army to Vienna—Battle of Essling—Operations in Poland and the North of Germany—Campaign in Italy—Battle of Wagram—Retreat of the Austrian Army—Termination of the Fourth *Punic* War by an Armistice—Treaty of Peace—Gallant Resistance of the Tyrolese—Annexation of the Papal Territories to France—Excommunication of the Emperor Napoleon—Imperial Divorce—Revolution in Sweden 80

CHAPTER X.

BRITISH HISTORY: Meeting of the Parliament of 1809—Monument voted to the memory of Sir John Moore—Thanks of Parliament voted to Sir Arthur Wellesley, and the Officers and Troops under his Command—Augmentation of the military Force of the Country—Discussions on the Convention of Cintra—Charges exhibited against his Royal Highness the Duke of York—Nature of the Evidence—Decision of the House of Commons at variance with the Public Voice—Resignation of the Commander-in-chief—Expressions of Public Gratitude to Colonel Wardle—Abuse of India Patronage—Charges against Lord Castlereagh of trafficking in Seats in Parliament—Public Finances—Extortionate Conduct of the Dutch Commissioners—Charge of corrupt Practices preferred by Mr. Madocks against Lord Castlereagh and Mr. Spencer Perceval—Sir Francis Burdett's Plan of Parliamentary Reform—Mr. Wardle's Motion relative to the Public Expenditure—Prorogation of Parliament—Destruction of the French Fleet in Basque Roads—Naval Operations in the Mediterranean—Colonial Conquests—Relations between Great Britain and the United States—Disastrous Expedition to the Scheldt—Disensions in the Cabinet—Duel between Lord Castlereagh and Mr. Canning—Dissolution of the Ministry—Ministerial Arrangements—The Jubilee 95

CHAPTER XI.

SPANISH CAMPAIGNS: State of the hostile Armies at the Beginning of the Year 1809—Capture of Oporto by the French—Defeat of the Spaniards at Medellin—Treaty of Peace and Alliance between Spain and Great Britain—Return of Sir Arthur Wellesley to the Peninsula—Expulsion of the French Army from Oporto—Second Siege and Fall of Saragossa—Defeat of General Blake in Catalonia—Battle of Talavera—Retreat of the British and Spanish Armies after the Victory of Talavera—Elevation of Sir Arthur Wellesley to the Peerage—Appointment of the Marquis of Wellesley as Ambassador Extraordinary to Spain—The Nature of his Mission—Recall of the Marquis—Defeat of General Venegas near Toledo—Signal Defeat of the Spanish Army under General Arizaga—Defeat of the French Army at Zamama—Battle of Alba—Fall of Gerona—Popular Commotion at Seville—Fall of that City—Advance of the French Armies to Cadiz—Dissolution of the Supreme Central Junta, and the Appointment

of a Council of Regency—Abortive Attempt to rescue Ferdinand VII.—Military Operations in Portugal—Plan of the Campaign—Advance of the French Army under Massena into Portugal—Fall of Ciudad Rodrigo and Almeida—Battle of Busaco—Retreat of Lord Wellington to the Lines of Torres Vedras—Close of the Campaign—Election of the Spanish Cortes—Meeting of the Cortes in the Isle of Leon—The Proceedings of that Body—Appointment of a new Council of Regency—Situation of the Peninsula at the Close of the Year 1810 110

CHAPTER XII.

BRITISH HISTORY: Meeting of Parliament—Inquiry into the Policy and Conduct of the Walcheren Expedition—Standing Order of the House of Commons for the exclusion of Strangers enforced by Mr. Yorke—John Gale Jones committed to Newgate for a Breach of Privilege—Mr. Yorke appointed Teller of the Exchequer, and First Lord of the Admiralty—Deprived of his Seat for Cambridgehire—Motion of Sir Francis Burdett for the Liberation of Mr. Gale Jones—Sir Francis Burdett pronounced guilty of a Breach of Privilege, and committed to the Tower—His Liberation—Public Finances—Appointment of the Bullion Committee—Mr. Brand's Plan of Parliamentary Reform—Motions for Catholic Emancipation—Earl Grey's Motion on the State of the Nation—Prorogation of Parliament—Death and Character of Mr. Windham—Capture of Guadaloupe—Gallant Naval Exploit—Capture of the Dutch and French Settlements in the East—Death of the Princess Amelia—Indisposition of the King—Abrupt Meeting of Parliament—Repeated Adjournments—Appointment of a Regency in the Person of his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales 123

CHAPTER XIII.

FOREIGN HISTORY: Sudden Death of the Crown-prince of Sweden—Marshal Bernadotte elected Crown-prince—Marriage of the Emperor Napoleon to the Archduchess Maria Louisa—Rapid Advances made by the Emperor Napoleon towards the Establishment of an absolute Despotism—Decree for the Establishment of State Prisons—for the Registration of domestic Servants—for restricting the Operations of the Press—Abdication of Louis Bonaparte in favour of his Son—Annexation of Holland and the Hanse Towns to France—Death of the Queen of Prussia—Annexation of Hanover to the Kingdom of Westphalia 136

CHAPTER XIV.

NAVAL AND COLONIAL CAMPAIGN: Gallant Exploit performed by a small British Squadron under Captain Hoste—Destruction of the Enemy's ships in the Bay of Sagone—Descent on the Coast of Naples—Capture and Destruction of the Enemy's Convoys on the Coast of Calabria, Normandy, and the Adriatic Sea—Capture of a French Convoy within the mouth of the Gironde—Desperate Action in the Indian Seas—Dreadful Shipwrecks—Surrender of the Island of Java, the last of the Enemy's Colonies in the East Indies—The actuating Motives of the Policy of the French Government—Energy in the Naval Department—Substitutes for Colonial Produce—State of the Gallican Church—System of national Education—Birth of the King of Rome 141

CHAPTER XV.

DOMESTIC HISTORY: Opening of the first Regency Parliament—Refusal of the Prince-re-

gent to accept a Provision for the Royal Household—Motion regarding his Majesty's Health in 1804—Commercial Distresses—The Bullion Question—Lord King's Demand of Cash Payments from his Tenants—Lord Stanhope's Act for upholding the National Currency—Ex-officio Informations—New Office created in the Court of Chancery—Amelioration in the Discipline of the Army—British Subjects carrying on the Slave-trade made liable to Transportation—Lord Sidmouth's Bill to amend and explain the Toleration Act—Public Finances—Reappointment of the Duke of York to the Office of Commander-in-chief—Lord Milton's Motion thereon—State of his Majesty's Health—Affairs of Ireland—Letter of Mr. Wellesley Pole—Convention Act—Proceedings of the Catholics—Arrest and Trial of the Delegates to the Catholic Committee—National Education—Population Returns of 1811 . . . 186

CHAPTER XVI.

CAMPAIGN IN SPAIN AND PORTUGAL: State of the Peninsula at the commencement of the Year 1811—Death of the Marquis de la Romana—Siege of Badajoz, and the surrender of that Fortress to the Duke of Dalmatia—Retreat of Massena from Santarem to the Spanish Frontier—Battle of Albuera—Battle of Fuentes d'Onoro—Escape of the Garrison of Almeida under General Bennier—The Command of the French Army of Portugal transferred from Massena, Duke of Rivoli, to Marmont, Duke of Ragusa—Badajoz besieged by the Allies—Siege raised—Battle of Barrosa—Ciudad Rodrigo invested by Lord Wellington—Retreat of the British Army—Gallant Exploit performed by General Hill at Arroyo del Molino—Siege and Storm of Tarragona—Fall of Valencia—Repulse of General Victor at Tarifa—Guerilla War—Court of Madrid—Cortes—CAMPAIGN OF 1812: Ciudad Rodrigo carried by Storm—Lord Wellington's Services in the Peninsula rewarded by an Earldom—Siege and Fall of Badajoz—Battle of the Bridge of Almaraz—Retreat of the French Army under the Duke of Ragusa—Forts of Salamanca stormed by the British—Battle of Salamanca—Madrid entered by the Allies—Siege of Burgos raised—Retreat of the Allies, and close of the Campaign . 170

CHAPTER XVII.

BARRIS HENRY: Meeting of Parliament—Establishment of the Royal Household—Negotiations for an extended Administration—The Prince-regent invested with the unrestricted Powers of the Sovereign—Mr. Perceval remained in his Situation as Prime Minister—Alarm occasioned by the Murders in the Metropolis—Inquiry instituted into the Policy and Operation of the Orders in Council—Assassination of Mr. Perceval—Trial and Execution of Bellingham, the Assassin—Sketch of the Life and Character of Mr. Perceval—Motion of Mr. Stuart Wortley for an Address to the Prince-regent, beseeching his Royal Highness to appoint a strong and efficient Administration—Carried by a Majority of four—Negotiations for a new Ministry consequent thereon—Failure of the Negotiations, and Continuance of the existing Administration in Office under certain Changes and Modifications—List of the Administration as constituted in June, 1812—Revocation of the Orders in Council—Finances—Motion in favour of the Catholics—New Toleration Act—Dissolution of Parliament—Overtures for Peace made by France—Political Relations between Great Britain and America—

Captain Henry's Mission—War declared by the United States against England—Historical Sketch of the Rise, Progress, and Suppression of the Commotions in the manufacturing Districts of England, popularly styled "Luddism" . . . 181

CHAPTER XVIII.

RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN: Causes of the War—Austria and Prussia become Parties in the War against Russia—Preparations for opening the Campaign—Bonaparte quits Paris to assume the Command of the French Army—Opening of the Campaign—Passage of the Niemen by the French—Retreat of the Russian Army, and Advance of the French to the Capital of Russian Poland—The French interpose between the First and Second Russian Armies—Concentration of the First Russian Army on the Dwina, under the Commander-in-chief, General Barclay de Tolly—Critical Situation of General Bagration—Advance of the French Army to the Dwina—The French possess themselves of Vitepsk—Defeat of Marshal Oudinot by Prince Wittgenstein on the Dwina—Junction of Prince Bagration with the First Russian Army—Advance of the Russians under Admiral Tschichagoff, from the Danube into the Government of Minsk—Operations in the North—The Intention of Marshal Oudinot and General St. Cyr to penetrate to St. Petersburg, defeated—Battle of Smolensk, and advance of the French Army—Arrival of the French at Viasma—Command of the Russian Armies transferred from General Barclay de Tolly to Prince Kutusoff—Battle of Borodino—Entrance of the French into Moscow—Destruction of that magnificent City . . . 180

CHAPTER XIX.

RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN: Napoleon, impressed with the perilous Situation of his Army, proposes to open a Negotiation for Peace—Repeated Rejection of these Overtures—Moscow abandoned by the French—Battle of Touratino—Retreat of the French Armies—Advance of the Russian Auxiliary Corps from the North and South to close in upon the Enemy and cut off his Retreat—Battle of Malo-Jaroslavitz—Battle of Viasma—The Winter sets in—Its Effects on the French Army—Passage of the Vope—Arrival at Smolensk—Battles of Kraonoi—Junction of all the Russian Armies—Dreadful Passage of the Beresina—Capture of the Bavarian Auxiliaries under General Wrede—Arrival of Napoleon at Molodetschno—The Twenty-ninth Bulletin of the French Army—The Emperor Napoleon abandons his Army and repairs to Paris—Disorganization of the French Army—Ruin and Dispersion—Defection of the Prussians under General D'York—Surrender of the Prussian Fortresses, garrisoned by French Troops, to the Russians under Wittgenstein—Permission granted by the Russians to Prince Schwartzberg to retire with the Wreck of his Army into Austrian Galicia—Result of the Campaign . . . 209

CHAPTER XX.

BRITISH HISTORY: Observations on the declining Power of France—Meeting of Parliament—Parliamentary Pledge to support the Government in the War with America—Sir Samuel Romilly's continued Exertions to ameliorate the Criminal Code—Motion of Sir Francis Burdett to provide against any Interruption in the Exercise of the Royal Functions—Case of the Princess of Wales stated—Her Appeal to the House of Commons through the Medium of

the Speaker—Complete Justification of her Honour and Character, followed by Expressions of national Sympathy towards her Royal Highness—The Views of the Friends of Catholic Emancipation developed in a Bill brought into Parliament by Mr. Grattan—Failure of that Measure—The Benefits of the Toleration Act extended to Unitarians—New Measure of Finance—Taxes—Stipendiary Curates' Bill—Important Appeal Cause regarding Scottish Marriages—Renewal of the East India Company's Charter, with certain Modifications . . . 230

CHAPTER XXI.

SPANISH CAMPAIGN: Plan of Operations—Relative Force of the contending Armies—Advance of the Allies—Madrid finally abandoned by the French—Battle of Vittoria—The Invading Army driven across the Spanish Frontier—Operations on the eastern Coast of Spain—under General Sir John Murray—under Lord William Bentinck—Marshal Soult appointed Lieutenant-general of the French Army—Unsuccessful Efforts to relieve the Fortresses of St. Sebastian and Pampluna—Battle of the Pyrenees—Fall of St. Sebastian—of Pampluna—Invasion of France by the Army under Lord Wellington . . . 340

CHAPTER XXII.

CAMPAIGN IN GERMANY: Gigantic Preparations made by France—Reconciliation between Napoleon and Pope Pius VII.—The Empress appointed Regent—Advance of the Russians from the Vistula—Invitation held out by the Emperor Alexander to the King of Prussia—Singular Situation of Prussia at this Moment—Offer made by Frederick William to mediate between the Belligerents—Rejected—Prussia declares against France—The Allies enter Saxony—Prussian Preparations—Political Relations between France and Sweden—Re-establishment of Peace between Sweden and Great Britain—Treaty of Alliance formed by those Powers—Situation of Denmark—Hamburg entered by the Russians—Reoccupied by the French—Napoleon takes the Field—Approximation of the grand Armies—Battle of Lutten—Retreat of the Allies—Entry of the French into Dresden—Battle of Bautzen—Advance of the French—Armistice under the Mediation of Austria—Terms of Peace proposed by the Emperor Francis—Rejected by Napoleon—Denunciation of the Armistice . . . 350

CHAPTER XXIII.

GERMAN CAMPAIGN (continued): Austrian Declaration of War against France—Opening of the Campaign—Victory of the Katzbach—Battle of Dresden—Death of General Moreau—Battle of Juterbock—War in Italy—Extraordinary Meeting of the French Senate—Napoleon quits Dresden—Battle of Leipzig—Retreat of the French Army to the Rhine—Battle of Hanau—Arrival of the Emperor in Paris—Dissolution of the Confederation of the Rhine—Emancipation of Holland—Exertions of Great Britain—Hanover liberated by the Crown-prince of Sweden—The Danes separate from the French—Capitulation of Dresden—Biographical Sketches of Prince Kutusoff, Marshal Duroc, Duke of Friuli, and General Moreau . . . 380

CHAPTER XXIV.

CAMPAIGN IN FRANCE: Declaration of the Allied Powers previous to the Invasion of France—Meeting of the French Legislative Body—Ab-

stract of the Report of the Committee appointed to examine the Diplomatic Correspondence—Napoleon's indignant Observations thereon—Passage of the Rhine by the Allied Armies—Proclamation of Prince Schwartzberg, the Commander-in-chief, to the People of France—Disposition of the French Armies—Capture of Geneva by the Allies—The Invasion of France announced to his Senators by Napoleon—Congress assembled at Chatillon—Advance of the invading Army into the interior of France—The Emperor quits Paris to place himself at the Head of his Army—Battle of Brienne—of La Rothiere—Retreat of the French, and Advance of the Allies—Prince Schwartzberg and Marshal Blucher divide their Force, and advance on Paris, the former by the Banks of the Seine, and the latter on the Course of the Marne—Vigorous and successful Exertions of Napoleon—Repulse of Marshal Blucher—of Prince Schwartzberg—Their Retreat—Negotiations at Chatillon—Belgium released from French Dominion—Battles of Craone and Leon—The Allies again assume the offensive—Last Conferences at Chatillon—Rupture of the Congress . . . 390

CHAPTER XXV.

CAMPAIGN IN FRANCE (continued): Liberation of Ferdinand VII.—Operations in the South of France—Battle of Orthes—Counter-revolution at Bordeaux—Movements of the hostile Armies in the Department of the Seine and the Marne—Battle of Arcis-sur-Aube—Retreat of Napoleon—Stratagem to draw the Allied Armies from Paris—The Allies resolved to advance upon the Capital—Disastrous Attempt upon Bergen-op-Zoom—Inactivity of the Prince-royal of Sweden—Operations in Italy—Junction of the Armies of Prince Schwartzberg and Marshal Blucher—Advance on Paris—Preparations made by Marshal Marmont and Mortier to defend the Capital—Battle of Paris—Armistice—Capitulation—Advance of Napoleon with a Detachment of Guards into the Neighbourhood of Paris—State of Parties—Exertions of the Royalists to induce the People to demand the Restoration of the Bourbons—Triumphal Entry of the Allies into the French Capital—Proclamation of the Emperor Alexander, explanatory of the Views of the Allies towards France—The Senate convoked by Prince Talleyrand—They abjure the Imperial Sway, and create a Provisional Government—The French Prisoners of War in Russia liberated without Ransom—Napoleon collects an Army at Fontenelleau—Establishment of a Regency Government at Blois under the Empress Maria Louisa—Abdication of the Emperor Napoleon—Battle of Toulouse—Cessation of Hostilities in the South of France—Entry of the Count d'Artois into Paris as Lieutenant-general of the Kingdom—Dissolution of the Imperial Government, and the Regency at Blois—Napoleon's Farewell to his Guards—His Departure for the Isle of Elba—Constitutional Charter—Entry of Louis XVIII. into Paris—Adhesion of the French Marshals—Definitive Treaty of Peace . . . 306

CHAPTER XXVI.

BRITISH HISTORY: Meeting of Parliament—Inquiry regarding the Cession of Norway to Sweden—Address to the Prince-regent, moved by Mr. Wilberforce—Honours conferred upon the Duke of Wellington—Takes his Seat in the House of Peers—His Reception in the House of Commons—The Corn Bill—Fresh Indignities

offered to the Princess of Wales—Discussions in Parliament on this Subject—Proposed Marriage between the Princess Charlotte of Wales and the Prince of Orange—The proposed Alliance broken off—The Princess of Wales leaves the Kingdom—Imperial and royal Visit to England—Case of Lord Cochrane—Finances—State of Ireland—Congratulatory Address to the Prince-regent on the Restoration of Peace—Prorogation of Parliament 320

CHAPTER XXVII.

CONGRESS AT VIENNA: Members of the Congress—Its Objects—Projected Incorporation of the Kingdom of Saxony with Prussia—Declaration of Frederick Augustus protesting against the Injustice of this Measure—The Subject left open to further Discussion—Poland—Hanover assumes the Rank of a Kingdom, under the House of Guelph—Confederation of the Swedish Cantons—Victor Emanuel, King of Sardinia, re-established on his throne—Return of Pope Pius VII. to his Capital—Conduct of Ferdinand VII. on reascending the throne of Spain—Incorporation of the Belgic Provinces with Holland, under the Sovereign Prince of the Netherlands—Restoration of a general Peace 340

BOOK V.

CHAPTER I.

AMERICAN ANNALS: Causes of the War—State of Parties—Outrage at Baltimore—Naval and Military Force of the United States—Invasion of Canada—Surrender of General Hull—Public Spirit of the Western States—Siege of Fort Wayne—Expeditions of Generals Tupper and Hopkins—Northern Army—Affair of Queens-town—Operations of General Smyth—Naval Events—Cruise of Commodore Rodgers—Capture of the Alert—Escape of the Constitution—Capture of the Guerriere—of the Frolic—of the Macedonian—of the Java 360

CHAPTER II.

AMERICAN ANNALS (continued): Armistice rejected—Meeting of Congress—President's Message—Increase of the Army and Navy—Presidential Election—Dissolution of Congress—Operations on the North-western Frontier—Capture of Frenchtown—Massacre of Raisin—Siege of Fort Meigs—Ontario Frontier—Capture of Ogdensburg—of York—of Fort George—Affair at Stony Creek—at the Beaver Dams—Attack on Sackett's Harbour—War in the Chesapeake Bay—Capture of the Peacock—of the Chesapeake—of the Argus—of the Boxer—Privateers—Squadrons under Commodores Rodgers and Decatur 380

CHAPTER III.

AMERICAN ANNALS (continued): North-western Frontier—Fort Meigs again besieged—Defence of Sandusky—Capture of the British Fleet on Lake Erie—Battle of the Thames—Expedition to Mackinaw—Operations on the St. Lawrence—Affair at Williamsburgh—Failure of the Expedition—Operations of General Hampton—Affair at La Cole—Burning of Newark, and Devastation of the Frontier—Engagements on Lake Ontario—Operations on that Frontier—Capture of Fort Erie—Battles of Chippewa and Bridgewater—Siege of Fort Erie—War with the Southern Indians—Expedition of Generals Jackson, Cooke, and Coffee—Civil History—Meeting of the 13th Congress—Internal Taxes—Hostages—Repeal of the Restriction System—Increase of the Army—Financial Affairs—Mission to Gottenburg—Adjournment of Congress 400

CHAPTER IV.

AMERICAN ANNALS (continued): Naval Events—Cruise of Commodore Rodgers—Cruise and Capture of the Essex—Capture of the Epervier—of the Reindeer—of the Avon—of the Levan and the Cyane—of the President—of the Peiguin—War on the Coast—Capture of Eastport—Attack on Stonington and Castine—Battle of Bladensburg—Capture of Washington—Attack on Baltimore—on Plattsburgh—Engagement on Lake Champlain—War in the South—Attack on Mobile—Capture of Pensacola—Invasion of New Orleans—Battle of New Orleans—Capture of Fort Bowyer—Civil History—Hartford Convention—Congressional Proceedings—Negotiation at Ghent—Treaty of Peace—Conclusion 420

CHAPTER V.

FRENCH HISTORY: Difficulties of the Situation of Louis XVIII. at the Commencement of his Reign—Sketch of his Ministry—Opening of the first Session after the Restoration—Speech of the King—Royal Constitutional Charter—Restrictions on the Liberty of the Press—Exposition of the State of the French Nation at the Period of the Restoration—Budget—King's Debts and Civil List—Prince Talleyrand's Contrast between the Public Burthens of France, England, and America—Establishment of the Legion of Honour confirmed—The Sale of emigrant Property declared irrevocable—Restoration of the unsold Estates of the Emigrants—The Duke of Tarentum's Plan for indemnifying the Emigrants, and securing the Endowments of the Military—Corn Laws—Establishment of Ecclesiastical Schools—of a National Penitentiary for young Criminals—Expedition against the French Part of the Island of St. Domingo abandoned—Close of the First Session of the restoration Parliament—State of Parties in France—Disinterment of Louis XVI. and his Queen—Ominous Aspect of Public Affairs 440

CHAPTER VI.

THE SECOND REIGN OF THE EMPEROR NAPOLEON: Introductory Matter: Exile—Return from Elba—Debarcation in the Gulf of Juan—Triumphal March from the Coast to the Capital—Departure of Louis XVIII.—His arrival at Ghent—Unsuccessful Efforts to raise the royal Standard in the South and West of France—Proceedings of the Congress of Vienna in consequence of the Return of Napoleon—Declaration of the 13th of March—Proceedings of the British Parliament—Coalition Treaty of the 25th of March—Pacific Overtures made by France—Letter of the Emperor Napoleon to the Sovereigns of Europe—Justificatory Manifesto of the French Government—Fidelity of some of the French Marshals to the royal Cause—Death of Berthier—Napoleon's Ministry—Policy of his Government—Efforts to rouse the French Nation to resist the threatened Invasion of their Country—New Constitution entitled *Acte Additionnel aux Constitutions de l'Empire*—Champ de Mai—Meeting of the Chambers—Speech of the Emperor at the Opening of the Session 460

CHAPTER VII.

BELGIC CAMPAIGN OF 1815: Europe again in Arms—Plan of the Campaign formed by the Allies—Marshal Blucher's Proclamation to his Army on taking the Field—Napoleon's Objects and Means—His Proclamation—Sudden Com-

mencomement of Hostilities—Passage of the Sambre by Napoleon on the 15th of June—Battles of Quatre Bras, and of Ligny-sous-Fleurus on the 16th—Retreat of the Allied Armies under the Duke of Wellington and Marshal Blucher on the 17th—Advance of the French—British Position—French Position—Battle of Waterloo on the 18th—Furious Attacks made by the French on the Right, the Centre, and the Left of the British Positions—Progress of the Engagement—The British Centre carried—The French repulsed—Advance of the Prussians on the Right of the French Position—Last desperate Effort made by the French Army—Repulsed—Simultaneous Advance of the whole of the British Forces—Entire Overthrow of the Enemy—Pursuit of the Fugitives by the Prussians under Marshal Blucher—Dreadful Slaughter—Complete Dispersion of the French Army—Marshal Blucher's Official Letter to the Governor of Berlin—British Official Account of the Battle of Waterloo—French Bulletin of the Campaign—Prussian Proclamation—Honours and Privileges conferred on the British Army 560

CHAPTER VIII.

Sensation produced by the Return of Napoleon to Paris—Proposal to appoint him Dictator broached in the Council—Declined by himself—Meeting of the Chambers—Their Sitting declared permanent—Meeting of the Imperial Committee in Council—Suggestion in the Presence of the Emperor that his Abdication could alone save the Country—Act of Abdication—Its Reception—Appointment of a Provisional Government—Stormy Discussion in the Chamber of Peers—Napoleon II. acknowledged by the Deputies—Commissioners sent to treat with the Allies for Peace at Haguenau—Departure of Napoleon for Rochefort—Advance of the Allies upon Paris—Arrival of Louis XVIII. at Cambray—Memorial of the Duke of Otranto to the Duke of Wellington—Failure of the Negotiations at Haguenau—Arrival of the Armies under the Duke of Wellington and Marshal Blucher before Paris—Siege—Capitulation—State of Parties—Interview of the Duke of Otranto with the Duke of Wellington—With the King—Dissolution of the Provisional Government—Conduct of the Chambers—Their Dissolution—Louis XVIII. reascends the Throne—Arrival of Napoleon at Rochefort—His Indecision fatal to him—Surrenders to Captain Maitland on board the Bellerophon Man-of-war—Brought to England—Impression made by his Presence off the Coast—Resolution of the British Government to send him to St. Helena—His Protest—Deportation—Character 590

CHAPTER IX.

BRITISH HISTORY: Assembling of Parliament—Addresses carried in both Houses—Supplies voted—Adjournment—Parliament reassembles—Property Tax Act repealed—Estimated Expenses of Peace Establishment—Bill for regulating the importation Price of Corn—Riots—Corn Bill passed into a Law—Derangement of the Minister's Measures of Finance by the Return of Napoleon from Elba—War Taxes revived—Marriage of the Duke of Cumberland—Vote of Thanks to the Duke of York as Captain-general and Commander-in-chief of the British Army—Death of Mr. Whitbread—His public Character—Conclusion of the Session of Parliament—Consequence of the War and the Influence of Peace upon the Agricultural, Commercial, and Financial Affairs of the Country—Exposition of the public Income and Expenditure during the War—Amount of the National Debt—Summary View of the Population, Property, and Annual Resources of the British Empire—Holy League—Establishment of Peace Societies in Europe and America—Situation of the Royal Family—Marriage of the Princess Charlotte of Wales to Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg 510

CHAPTER X.

FOREIGN HISTORY: Policy of the Court of Naples—Murat espouses the Cause of Napoleon—Attacks the Troops of Austria—Is conquered and dethroned—Retires to the South of France—Makes a hostile Descent in Calabria—Is taken, tried, and executed—Louis XVIII. dissolves the Chambers—Character of the new Deputies—Proscription Lists—Total Extinction of the Freedom of the Periodical Press in France—Ordinance for disbanding the old, and organizing a new Army in France—Trial and Execution of Colonel Labedoyere—Fate of Marshal Brune—The Louvre dismantled—Triumph of the Ultra-royalist Party in the French Cabinet—Change of Ministry—Meeting of the Chambers—Persecution of the Protestants in the South of France—Trial and Execution of Marshal Ney—Trial and Conviction of General Count Lavalette—His Escape—Negotiations between France and the Allied Powers—General Treaty of Peace with France—Treaty of Alliance and Friendship entered into by the Allied Powers 530

CHAPTER XI.

Retrospect of the Epochs of the Wars of the French Revolution from the Rupture of the Treaty of Amiens to the Conclusion of a General Peace—Remarks on the General Treaty of Vienna—Copy of that Treaty 520
Appendix 560
Index and Analysis 580

HISTORY OF THE WARS

OF THE

FRENCH REVOLUTION.

BOOK IV.

CONTINUED.

1807.

CHAPTER III.

Barren History: Meeting of Parliament—Debates on the late Negotiation with France—Financial Statements—Lord Henry Petty's Plan of Finance—Bill for the better Regulation of Courts of Justice in Scotland—Mr. Whitbread's Plan for reforming the Poor Laws, and amending the Condition of the Poor—Total Abolition of the Slave-trade—Catholic Bill—Change of Ministry consequent thereon—New Administration—General Election.

THE first session of the third parliament of the United Kingdom, assembled on the 15th of December, 1806, and was opened by commission in his majesty's name. The office of speaker again devolved by unanimous choice upon the Right Honourable Charles Abbot, and the interval between the 14th and 19th of December was occupied in administering the usual oaths to the members. On Friday the 19th, his majesty's speech was read by the lord chancellor. The object of the speech was to prepare the nation for the awful crisis then impending and to animate them to adequate exertions against the formidable and increasing power of the enemy. His majesty acquainted his parliament, that his efforts for the restoration of general tranquillity, on terms consistent with the interest and honour of his people, and good faith to his allies, had been disappointed by the ambition and injustice of the enemy, who in the same moment had kindled up a fresh war in Europe, of which the progress had been attended with the most calamitous events. Prussia, threatened by the near approach of that danger, which she had vainly hoped to avert by many sacrifices, was at length compelled to adopt the resolution of openly resisting the unrelenting system of aggrandizement and conquest pursued by France; but neither this determination, nor the succeeding measures of hostility, were previously concerted with his majesty; nor had any disposition been shown to offer an adequate satisfaction for those aggressions which had placed this country in a state of hostility with Prussia.

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Yet, in this situation, his majesty did not hesitate to adopt, without delay, such measures as were calculated to unite their councils and interests against the common enemy. The speech extolled the good faith of his majesty's remaining allies; and concluded with a solemn appeal to the bravery and public spirit of his people. The address on his majesty's speech, which was moved in the house of lords by the Earl of Jersey, and seconded by Lord Somers; and in the house of commons by the Hon. Mr. Lamb, and seconded by Mr. John Smyth, called forth a number of observations from Lord Hawkesbury and Mr. Canning, but was passed in both houses without a division.

On Monday, the 22d of December, the unanimous thanks of both houses of parliament were voted to Major-general Sir John Stuart, and also to the Hon. Brigadier-generals Cole and Auckland, for the distinguished ability and valour manifested by them in the signal victory obtained over the French troops at Maida, on the 4th of July, 1806, and to the officers under their command; as well as to the non-commissioned officers and private soldiers serving under the same, for their bravery and good conduct in the glorious battle of Maida.

On the 2d of January, the subject of the late negotiation with France for the restoration of a general peace, was brought under the consideration of the house of lords. The discussion was introduced by the prime minister, Lord Grenville, in a speech of considerable length, the leading points

9

of which were embraced in the following motion :

"That an humble address be presented to his majesty, to assure him that this house has taken into its serious consideration the papers relative to the late negotiation, which he has been graciously pleased to lay before them, and that they see with gratitude, that he has employed every means to restore the blessings of peace, in a manner consistent with the interest and glory of his people, and at the same time with an observance of that good faith with our allies which this country is bound to maintain inviolate : That while we lament that, by the unbounded ambition of the enemy, those laudable endeavours have been frustrated, no exertions shall be wanting on our part to support and assist his majesty in the adoption of such measures as may be found necessary, either for the restoration of peace, or to meet the various exigencies of the war in this most important crisis."

Lord Hawkesbury and Lord Eldon expressed their complete concurrence in the leading points of the address, but their lordships contended, that there was nothing in the whole of the papers laid upon the table, that proved that the French government, from the commencement of the negotiation to its close, had agreed to proceed on the basis of the *uti possidetis*—the state of actual possession ; yet they most heartily acquiesced in the general result of the negotiation, and with this exception, joined in the address, which was carried *nemine contradicente*.

On the 5th of January, the same subject was brought under discussion in the house of commons, on the motion of Lord Howick, when his lordship said :—"In rising to perform the duty that now devolves upon me, I cannot but feel deep regret—a deep and poignant regret, at the failure of an effort, on our part made with sincerity, and pursued with good faith, to put an end to the war upon terms advantageous to this country, and to all Europe ; a regret, in any circumstances justifiable and becoming ; but at present, aggravated by the events which have lately occurred upon the continent, and which seem to render the attainment of that object more difficult and more distant than ever. But, besides these subjects of regret and of sorrow, I feel myself affected by painful emotions of a more private and personal nature. It is impossible for me to forget by whom, had it so pleased God, this important business would have been opened to this house. I cannot therefore present myself to your notice on this occasion, without being reminded of the infinite loss I have personally sustained, in being deprived of my friend, of my instructor, without whom I should have felt no confidence in myself ; and in reflecting upon the worth and the talents of Mr. Fox, the

loss which the public have sustained is irresistibly forced upon my recollection. But, if any thing could support and encourage me in the discharge of the duty now imposed upon me, it is the knowledge I possess of the principles and opinions which Mr. Fox held upon this subject. In the last conversation I held with that great statesman, which was on the 7th of September, the Sunday before his death, three great cardinal points were insisted upon by him. 1st. The security of our honour, in which Hanover was concerned. 2d. Fidelity to our Russian connexion. 3d. Sicily. The grounds on which the negotiations broke off, were in direct conformity with these opinions. On this occasion, he told me, that the ardent wishes of his mind were to consummate, before he died, two great works on which he had set his heart ; and these were, the restoration of a solid and honourable peace, and the abolition of the slave-trade." The noble lord then proceeded to give a clear and detailed statement of the whole transaction concerning the negotiation, for the purpose of showing, that, on the one hand, the honour of the crown and the interests of the country were not compromised by any unworthy concessions ; and, on the other, that no means were left unemployed, to obtain such a peace as might be consistent with the honour, the interests, and the prosperity of this nation. With this view, he showed, first, that the overture for peace originated with France ; next, that the basis agreed upon for conducting the negotiation was that of actual possession ; and, lastly, that owing to the tergiversation and ambitious view of the French government, no terms could be procured that were consistent with the interests of Europe and the maintenance of inviolable good faith towards our allies. Having, as he hoped, established these points, his lordship concluded by moving an address similar to that moved in the other house of parliament by Lord Grenville.

Lord Yarmouth said, that in the communications he had held with M. Talleyrand, that minister distinctly admitted that the basis of the negotiation should be the principle of actual possession, and his lordship was well assured, that had it not been for the melancholy event of the death of Mr. Fox, no objection would have been started against that principle by the French government.

Mr. Montague thought that the negotiation was objectionable, both in its commencement and prosecution. The French minister had, he conceived, taken Mr. Fox on the weak side, and by impressing him

with the notion that he was ready to treat on the basis of the *uti possidetis*, had "doped and bamboozled him."

Mr. Whitbread, after making some remarks on the extraordinary speech of Mr. Montague, proceeded to observe, that he could not, without experiencing the bitterest anguish, express his sentiments on this negotiation, commenced by one sincere friend, and conducted by others for whom he felt the greatest esteem. When he read the documents which were lying on the table of the house, and perused them most attentively, he found in them parts of which he highly approved, and others of which he greatly disapproved. All that part which preceded the political death, as it had been called, of that illustrious man, Mr. Fox, claimed his approbation and support; but when death closed the career of his ever-to-be-lamented friend, he saw, between the beginning and the end of the negotiations, obvious characters which distinguished them. Adverting to the unfortunate words, *uti possidetis*, he said that the real ground of the negotiation in the first instance was the stipulation of honourable terms for both nations and for their allies;* and next, that Russia should be admitted to the negotiation conjointly with this country. He considered it unfortunate that the noble lord (Lauderdale) should have been sent over to Paris with the abstract basis of *uti possidetis*, and likewise that it should have been so peremptorily demanded. On the whole, he was of opinion, that all the time which elapsed in the discussion of the abstract terms was completely wasted, particularly when the general ground had been already well explained and fully understood, namely, mutual exchange and compensation for cessations. He did not think that we were justified in saying that the negotiation had wholly failed in consequence of the injustice and ambition of France, and it was still his opinion that peace was attainable. Under the influence of these impressions, he moved an amendment to the address:

"To assure his majesty of our firm determination to co-operate with his majesty in calling forth the resources of the united kingdom, for the vigorous prosecution of the war in which we are involved. and to pray his majesty, that he will, in his paternal goodness, afford, as far as is consistent with his own honour, and the interests of his people, every facility to any just arrangement by which the blessings of peace may be restored to his loyal subjects."

Mr. Canning expressed his surprise that no attempt was made by any of his majesty's ministers to answer the observation of the honourable gentleman (Mr.

Whitbread), whose consistency he admired, though he differed from him widely in his conclusions. Adverting to the three points insisted upon in Lord Howick's speech, he said, he was now perfectly satisfied that the first overture for negotiation came from France; with respect to the *uti possidetis*, the more he considered the subject, the more he was convinced that the papers on the table did not make out the charge against the enemy—that he opened the negotiation on that basis, and that he afterwards departed from it; and though he derived great satisfaction from observing the good faith which government had preserved towards our allies, yet he did not think that a concert so perfect in principle had been acted upon, either towards Russia or Prussia, as the nature of our relations with those powers would have entitled us fairly to pursue.

Mr. Perceval, from a review of all the circumstances connected with the negotiation, concluded, that the enemy were never seriously desirous of peace, and that ministers were the dupes of the artifice of the French government. He lamented that a man of Mr. Fox's great talents and incorruptible mind, had been betrayed into a private and confidential correspondence with such a man as the friend to whom he was attached,* Talleyrand. He blamed ministers for not having sooner put an end to the negotiations, and declared his firm conviction, that no peace could take place with France, at least, such a peace as would be worthy of the acceptance of this country, so long as the force and councils of the enemy were directed by two such men as Bonaparte and Talleyrand.

Lord Howick observed, that some honourable gentlemen blamed his majesty's ministers for having done too much in the way of negotiation, while his honourable friend and relation, Mr. Whitbread, censured them for doing too little. But he thought it was not a little in their favour that they had steered a middle course between the two extremes. In this opinion, the house seemed to concur, and Mr. Whitbread having withdrawn his amendment, the address was put and carried without a division.

On the 20th of January, Lord Henry Petty, the chancellor of the exchequer, brought forward a statement of the supplies and the ways and means for the year, combined with a permanent plan of finance, which had for its object to provide the means of maintaining the honour and independence of the British empire, during the

* Mr. Fox's Letter to M. Talleyrand, dated March 25th, 1806.—Book iii. chap. viii. p. 558.

* See Mr. Fox's Letter to M. Talleyrand, vol. i. page 558.

necessary continuance of the war, without perceptibly increasing the burthens of the country, and with manifest benefit to the interest of the public creditor. The total amount of the supplies for the year 1807, he stated, at 40,527,065*l.* 11*s.* 8*d.* and the ways and means at 41,100,000*l.*

The new plan of finance was adapted to meet a scale of expenditure nearly equal to that of the year 1806; and assumed, that, during the war, the annual produce of the permanent and temporary revenues would continue equal to the produce of that year. Keeping these premises in view, it was proposed that the war loans for the years 1807, 1808, and 1809, should be twelve millions annually; for the year 1810 fourteen millions; and for each of the ten following years sixteen millions. Those several loans, amounting in the fourteen years to two hundred and ten millions, were to be made a charge on the war taxes, which were estimated to produce twenty-one millions annually. The charge thus thrown on the war taxes was meant to be at the rate of ten per cent. upon each loan. Every such loan would therefore pledge so much of the war taxes as would be sufficient to meet this charge: that is, a loan of twelve millions would be pledged for 1,200,000*l.* of the war taxes. In each year, if the war should be continued, a further proportion of the war taxes would in the same manner be pledged; consequently, at the end of fourteen years, if the war should be of that duration, twenty-one millions, the whole produce of the war taxes, would be pledged for the total of the loans, which would at that time have amounted to two hundred and ten millions. The ten per cent. charge thus accompanying each loan, would be applied to pay the interest of the loan, and to form a sinking fund, which sinking fund would evidently be more than five per cent. on such of the several loans as should be obtained on a less rate of interest than five per cent. As a five per cent. sinking fund, accumulating at compound interest, would redeem any sum of capital debt in fourteen years, the several proportions of the war taxes, proposed to be pledged for the several loans above mentioned, would have redeemed their respective loans, and be successively liberated, in periods of fourteen years from the date of each such loan. The portions of war taxes thus liberated, might, if the war should still be prolonged, become applicable in a revolving series, and might be again pledged for new loans: it was, however, material, that the property tax should not be pledged beyond the period for which it was granted, but should, in every case, cease on the 6th

of April next after the ratification of a definitive treaty of peace.

In the result therefore of the whole measure, there would not be imposed any new taxes for the first three years from this time. New taxes of less than 300,000*l.* on an average of seven years, from 1810 to 1816, both inclusive, were all that would be necessary, in order to procure for the country the full benefit and advantage of the plan here described, which would continue for twenty years; during the last ten of which again, no new taxes whatever would be required.

"Important as are the advantages which this plan presents," continued the chancellor of the exchequer, "its principal benefit consists in the impression which it must make, both in this country and out of it, where it will be seen, that, without any further material pressure on the resources of the country, and by a perseverance only in its wonted exertions, parliament now finds itself enabled to meet with confidence all the exigencies of the present war, to whatever period its continuance may be necessary, for maintaining the honour and independence of the empire.

The favourable impression made by the new method of supply (which was ultimately agreed to by the house) was immediately obvious upon the funds, which advanced very considerably, and gave the minister an opportunity of negotiating a loan, on terms highly advantageous to the public, and yet by no means unproductive to the contractors.*

* FINANCES.

PUBLIC INCOME of Great Britain for the Year ending the 5th of January, 1806.

Branches of Revenue.	Gross Receipts.			Paid into the Excheq.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Customs, . . .	9,104,799	4	1½	7,192,889	15	11½
Excise, . . .	17,833,246	15	6½	16,352,885	10	10½
Stamps, . . .	4,194,265	12	10½	4,123,527	3	2
Land and Assess-						
ed Taxes, . . .	6,106,920	10	10½	6,261,778	19	4½
Post Office, . .	1,446,073	4	6	1,237,004	19	10½
Miscella. Perma-						
nent Tax, . . .	150,469	7	9½	146,072	1	1½
Here Revenue,	122,723	19	2	157,373	11	10½
Extr. Resources						
{ Customs, . . .	2,659,228	15	9	2,632,147	19	10½
{ Excise, . . .	6,406,870	17	7½	6,360,229	13	9½
{ Prop. Tax, . .	4,546,883	10	10	4,426,986	19	7½
Miscel. Income,	2,470,259	6	8½	2,443,149	0	3½
Loans, inclu-						
ding 1,460,000 <i>l.</i>						
for the service						
of Ireland, }	25,130,404	19	6½	25,130,404	19	6½

Grand Total, £80,172,176 5 3½ £76,469,450 15 4½
Whitehall, Treasury Cham- (Signed)
bers, 22d of March, 1806. N. VANSITTART.

† This Return, which, owing to a delay in the arrival of the parliamentary documents, was omitted in its proper place, is introduced here to preserve the series.

On the 16th of February, Lord Grenville, conformably to a notice given by his lordship in the last session of parliament, introduced into the house of lords a bill for the better regulation of the courts of justice in Scotland, and for instituting in certain cases the trial by jury in civil

causes. The bill which his lordship had to offer, made no alteration in the law of Scotland, but related solely to the manner in which the law ought to be administered. The general outline of the change now proposed, related to three objects:

1st. To divide the court of sessions, which consists of fifteen judges, into three chambers of five judges each, having concurrent jurisdictions.

2d. To introduce, or rather to revive in Scotland, the trial by jury in civil actions of a certain description, namely, those which relate to personal rights; all questions relative to landed property being left to be decided on in the usual manner.

3d. To constitute an intermediate chamber of appeal between the court of session and the house of lords. In forming this chamber of appeal, it was proposed to make one new lord of session, and also to make the lord chief baron a member of the same court, in order that he might also sit in the chamber of revision. These judges and one member from each of the other three chambers, would make five judges for the chamber of revision.

It was his lordship's intention to propose, that the bill should not be read a second time until three weeks after this notice, that further time might be afforded for considering the subject.

Lord Eldon and Lord Hawkesbury gave their approbation in general to the measure, but reserved to themselves the right of proposing alterations in the detail of the bill. Lord Ellenborough declared his decided approbation of the bill, and stated with great energy the inestimable advantages derived by this country from the trial by jury in civil cases, and the great boon which its introduction into Scotland would confer on that country. The bill was then read a first time, and ordered to be read a second time at the period proposed by Lord Grenville.

This measure, which, under certain modifications, was calculated to produce the most beneficial effects in the administration of justice in the sister kingdom, and to diminish the immense number of appeals that are continually flowing into the house of lords from that part of the united kingdom, was arrested in its progress by the dissolution of parliament, which soon afterwards occurred, and, for the present, defeated the object contemplated by the framers of the bill.

Three days after the introduction of Lord Grenville's bill in the house of lords for the better regulation of the courts of justice in Scotland, Mr. Whitbread moved for permission to bring a bill into the house of commons for amending the condition of the poor in England. "I rise," said the honourable gentleman, "to submit to the consideration of this house, one of the most interesting propositions that ever

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE of Great Britain for the Year ending the 5th of January, 1806.

<i>Heads of Expenditure.</i>		<i>Sums.</i>		
		£	s.	d.
Interest,		19,593,305	19	11½
Charge of Management,		221,911	11	9½
Reduction of the National Debt,		7,615,167	7	9½
Interest on Exchequer Bills,		1,478,816	3	3½
Civil List,		1,827,184	10	6½
Civil Government of Scotland,		88,918	15	3½
Payments in anticipation, &c.,		646,000	14	7
Navy,		14,466,998	3	5½
Ordnance,		4,732,286	1	3
Army,		10,758,342	12	11
Extraordinary Services,		6,261,386	16	2
Ireland,		3,211,062	10	0
Miscellaneous Services,		2,845,738	7	11½

Deductions for Sums forming no part of the Expenditure of Great Britain,

73,799,609 14 0½
3,211,062 10 0

Grand Total, £70,686,547 4 0½

Whitehall, Treasury Chambers, 24th of March, 1806. (Signed) N. VANSITTART.

PUBLIC INCOME of Great Britain for the Year ending the 5th of January, 1807.

<i>Branches of Revenue.</i>		<i>Gross Receipts.</i>			<i>Paid into the Exchequer.</i>		
		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Customs,		9,466,256	8	2½	7,774,049	4	9
Excise,		18,979,151	5	3	17,377,213	11	4½
Stamps,		4,422,198	0	4½	4,338,913	8	0½
Land and Assessment Taxes,		6,310,797	2	1½	6,438,260	3	8½
Post-office,		1,511,859	11	0	1,291,736	4	0½
Miscellaneous Permanent Tax,		161,093	19	5½	167,850	11	10½
Hereditary Revenue,		60,482	11	7	84,345	3	3
Extra Resources,							
Customs,		2,923,728	10	11	2,779,244	15	0½
Excise,		6,360,039	1	10½	6,248,609	3	2½
Prop. Tax,		6,162,559	4	8½	6,000,067	13	6½
Miscellaneous Income,		2,513,694	16	1½	2,491,865	10	1½
Loans, including 2,000,000 for the Service of Ireland,		19,699,263	12	1	19,699,263	12	1

Grand Total, £78,461,123 3 8½ £74,691,299 1 0½

Whitehall, Treasury Chambers, 25th March, 1807. (Signed) N. VANSITTART.

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE of Great Britain for the Year ending the 5th of January, 1807.

<i>Heads of Expenditure.</i>		<i>Sums.</i>		
		£	s.	d.
Interest,		20,410,716	8	1½
Charge of Management,		292,127	9	10
Reduction of the National Debt,		8,323,328	14	1½
Interest on Exchequer Bills,		1,310,686	18	9
Civil List,		1,682,572	2	8½
Civil Government of Scotland,		83,750	14	3½
Payments in anticipation,		634,261	0	11
Navy,		16,084,027	17	10
Ordnance,		4,511,064	1	7
Army,		9,282,491	0	0
Extraordinary Services,		5,828,999	7	8
Ireland,		1,768,000	0	0
Miscellaneous Services,		2,766,693	0	11½

Deductions for Sums forming no part of the Expenditure of Great Britain,

72,778,718 16 9½
1,768,000 0 0

Grand Total, £71,010,718 16 9½

Whitehall, Treasury Chambers, 25th March, 1807. (Signed) N. VANSITTART.

occupied the attention of any deliberate assembly upon earth. I wish to engage you in an attempt at the solution of one of the most difficult of all political problems; namely, how to reduce the sum of human vice and misery, and how to augment that of human happiness and virtue, among the subjects of this realm." Mr. Whitbread then proceeded to state, that, by the abstracts then upon the table of the house, which were made up in the year 1803, it appeared, that upon a population in England and Wales (exclusive of the army and navy) of eight millions eight hundred and seventy thousand souls, not less than one million two hundred and thirty-four thousand were partakers of parochial relief; and that in the year ending Easter, 1803, the sum of 4,267,000*l.* had been raised in poor rates, being almost double the sum raised on an average in the years 1783, 4, and 5. His wish was not to get rid of the poor laws, but, by taking proper steps, to render them in time almost obsolete; and the principles on which he would proceed, to effect this most desirable object, were these:—to exalt the character of the labouring classes of the community: to excite the labourer to acquire property, that he may taste its sweets; and to give him inviolable security for that property when it is acquired; to mitigate those restraints which now confine and cramp his sphere of action; to hold out a hope of reward to his patient industry; to render dependent poverty in all cases degrading in his eyes, and at all times less desirable than independent industry. After a number of other preliminary remarks, the honourable gentleman proceeded to open the details of his plan, which may be compressed into the following outline:—

"In the front of his scheme for the exaltation of the character of the labourer, he proposed a plan of general national education, and upon its effects he mainly relied for the consummation of his wishes. In Scotland, the poor laws were almost totally in disuse, and yet all in that country was regularity and order. What was the day-star which shone forth on the other side of the Tweed was it not education?

"In order to excite the labourer to acquire property, he would propose the establishment of one great national institution, in the nature of a bank, for the use and advantage of the labouring classes alone; that it should be placed in the metropolis, and be under the control and management of proper persons; that every man who should be certified by one justice to subsist principally or altogether by the wages of his labour, should be at liberty to remit to the accountant of the poor's fund, in notes or cash, any sum from twenty shillings upwards, but not exceeding more than twenty pounds in one year, nor more in the whole than two hundred pounds; that this money should be placed at interest in government securities; and that facilities should be given for the transmission of the remittances through the post-office. This

plan might also unite an annuitant society and an insurance office for the poor.

"The next point which he wished to urge on the consideration of the house, was the law of settlement; and he should propose, in addition to the means by which a settlement may now be acquired, that a residence as a householder, for five years, in any parish, without being chargeable to that or any other parish, should confer a settlement.

"Mr. Whitbread next proposed a number of regulations respecting parish-vestries, parish-rates, &c. and said that societies for offering premiums to the meritorious poor might be established in favour of the great object that he was now labouring to promote.

"He then adverted to a circumstance very materially concerning the health and comfort of the poor, and recommended the revival of the power formerly given to the church-wardens and overseers to build cottages; to which, he would add the power of buying land to a certain extent, not exceeding in the whole, perhaps, five acres in one parish.

"The last subject to which he should direct the attention of the house, was one of primary importance, and comprehended a variety of details; he meant the mode of administering relief to the poor. To age, infancy, and sickness, he would hold out the hand of support, protection, and care, widely extended, filled with blessings the most copious charity could afford. But he would distinguish between the unfortunate and the criminal; he would do justice to misfortune, and punish profligacy. He would remedy one very great grievance which prevails, as much to the disadvantage of the parishes as to the oppression of the objects relieved: he meant the custom of depriving a man of every worldly possession before relief was administered. He would propose, in case of sickness, or any other great emergency, that the possession of furniture, tools, and live stock, to the value of thirty pounds, and a cottage not exceeding the annual value of five pounds, should not preclude the possessor from receiving relief. Thus a man who, as the law now stands, must by the acceptance of the most trifling assistance, be overwhelmed, would be able to get afloat again in the world, and recover his independence when the afflictive visitation should be at an end."

Mr. Whitbread concluded a very elaborate, comprehensive, and animated speech with the following peroration: "During the hours of anxious thought and laborious investigation which I have given to this subject, I have been charmed with the pleasing vision of the melioration of the state of society, and the eventual and rapid diminution of its burthens. In the adoption of the system of education, I foresee an enlightened peasantry, frugal, industrious, sober, orderly, and contented; crimes diminishing, because the enlightened understanding abhors crimes. In the provisions for the security of the savings of the poor, I see encouragement to frugality, security to property, and the large mass of the people connected with the state, and indissolubly bound to its preservation: in the enlarged power of acquiring settlements, the labourer directed to those spots where labour is most wanted; man, happy in his

increased independence, and exempt from the dread of being driven in age from the place where his dearest connexions exist, and where he has used the best exertions and passed the best days of his life; parochial litigation excluded from our courts, and harmony reigning in our different parishes. In the power of bestowing rewards, I contemplate patience and industry remunerated, and virtue held up to distinction and honour: in the power of building habitations for the poor, their comfort and health promoted: and, lastly, in the reform of the work-house system, and the power of discrimination in administering relief, an abandonment of filth, slothfulness, and vice, and a desirable and marked distinction between the profligate and the innocent. I move, sir, for leave to bring in a bill * for promoting and encouraging industry among the labouring classes of the community, and for the relief and regulation of the criminal and necessitous poor.”

From every side of the house, Mr. Whitbread was complimented on the ability he had displayed, and the attention he had bestowed on this great and complicated subject, and leave was given to bring in the bill. On the 23d of February, the bill was read a second time, and ordered to be printed, and sent to the quarter sessions in the several counties for the consideration of the magistrates, who were requested to give their opinions upon the provisions it contained. But the progress of the measure was interrupted by the change of administration, and the concomitant dissolution of parliament. In the new parliament, this subject was again taken into consideration on the motion of the original mover, and the bill for the general education of the poor was passed through the house of commons; it was, however, ultimately doomed to a fate that so enlightened a measure did not merit; and on the 11th of August, the bill was on the motion of Lord Hawkesbury, the secretary of state for the home department, thrown out of the house of peers.

The anxiety that was shown by the British parliament to place the financial affairs of the country on a permanent basis, and to ameliorate the condition of the labouring classes at home, did not close the ears of the legislature against the voice of outraged humanity in more distant regions. During the last session of parliament two resolutions were passed in both houses; the former declaring, that the African slave-trade, being contrary to the principles of justice, humanity, and sound policy, ought to be abolished with all possible expedition; and the latter, that an address should be presented to the throne, beseeching his

majesty to take such measures as might appear most effectual for obtaining the concurrence and concert of foreign powers in the abolition of the slave-trade.* In pursuance of these resolutions, Lord Grenville, on the 2d of January, brought into the house of peers a bill for the total abolition of the African slave-trade, which bill was read a first time, and printed. On the 4th of February, counsel were heard at the bar of the house in favour of the continuance of the trade; and, on the following day, Lord Grenville concluded an elaborate speech on the subject, by moving that “the bill be now read a second time.” The motion was supported by the Duke of Gloucester, the Bishop of Durham, the Earls Moira, Selkirk, and Roslyn, and the Lords Holland, King, and Hood. The opponents of the bill were the Duke of Clarence, the Earls Westmoreland and St. Vincent, and the Lords Sidmouth, Eldon, and Hawkesbury. At four o'clock in the morning, the house divided, when there appeared for the motion one hundred, and against it thirty-six voices. On the 10th, the bill was read a third time, and having passed, it was ordered to the commons for the concurrence of that assembly.

On the 23d, Lord Howick, at the conclusion of a luminous and eloquent speech, moved for the commitment of the bill, and was supported by Mr. Lushington, Mr. Fawkes, Lord Mahon, Lord Milton, Sir John Doyle, Sir Samuel Romilly, Mr. Wilberforce, and Earl Percy, the latter of whom wished that a clause might be introduced into the bill, by which all the children of slaves born after January, 1810, should be made free. General Gascoyne and Mr. Hibbert opposed the bill; Mr. Hiley Addington preferred a plan for gradual abolition. All these gentlemen having delivered their sentiments, there appeared on a division, for the question two hundred and eighty-three, and against it only sixteen voices! The enthusiasm in favour of this measure, which pervaded all parts of the house, was of a moral nature, and seemed to extend to a conversion of the heart; for several of the old opponents of this righteous cause went away, unable to vote against it: while others of them stayed in their places, and voted in its favour. The bill, which was debated with great animation in all its stages, enacted, that no vessel should clear out for slaves from any port within the British dominions after the 1st of May, 1807, and that no slave should be landed in the colonies after the 1st of March, 1806. On the 16th of March, on the motion of Lord Henry Petty, the bill

* See vol. i. book iii. chap. viii. p. 551.

was read a third time, and passed without a division.

On Wednesday, the 18th, Lord Howick, accompanied by Mr. Wilberforce and others, carried the bill to the lords for their concurrence in certain amendments that had been introduced in the house of commons. Lord Grenville instantly moved that it should be printed, and taken into consideration on Monday. The reason of this extraordinary haste was, that his majesty, displeased with the introduction of the Roman Catholic officers' bill into the house of commons, had resolved to displace the existing administration. On Monday, the 23d, the house of lords met; and such extraordinary diligence had been used in printing the bill, that it was then ready. Lord Grenville immediately brought it forward, and the amendments were adopted without a division. Thus, the bill received the last sanction of the peers. Lord Grenville then congratulated the house on the completion, on its part, of the most glorious measure that had ever been adopted by any legislative body in the world.

But, though the bill had now passed both houses, there was an awful fear throughout the kingdom, lest it should not receive the royal assent before the ministry was dissolved. This event took place the next day; for on Wednesday, the 25th of March, at half-past eleven o'clock in the morning, his majesty's message was delivered to the different members of administration, commanding them to wait upon him, to deliver up the seals of their respective offices. It then appeared, that a commission for the royal assent to this bill, among others, had been obtained. This commission was instantly opened by the lord chancellor (Erskine), who was accompanied by the Lords Holland and Auckland; and as the clock struck twelve, just when the sun was in its meridian splendour, to witness this august act—this establishment of a Magna Charta for Africans in Britain—it was completed. The ceremony being over, the seals of the respective offices were delivered up; so that the execution of this commission was the last act of an administration, which, were it only for its unremitting and successful exertions in behalf of the oppressed African race, would pass to posterity, living through successive generations in the love and gratitude of the most virtuous of mankind. Thus ended one of the most glorious contests, after a continuance for twenty years, ever carried on in any age or country; a contest, not of brutal violence, but of reason. With respect to the end obtained

by it, no man can appreciate its importance. To our own country, as well as to Africa, it is invaluable. It proclaimed, in language too clear to be misunderstood, that even commerce itself should have its moral bounds. They who supported this wicked traffic, virtually denied that man was a moral being. They substituted the law of force for the law of reason. But the great act now under consideration banished the impious doctrine, and restored the rational creature to his moral rights. The sympathies called into action by the long-continued agitation of this great question, were useful in the preservation of national virtue, and contributed greatly to form a counterbalance against the malignant spirit generated by the almost incessant wars which prevailed during the same period.*

For more than three centuries, during which period this detestable traffic in the bones and sinews of men had prevailed, benevolent individuals, men of piety, genius, and learning, had from time to time declared its existence to be diametrically opposite to the principles of the Christian religion, and the dictates of humanity; Mr. Granville Sharpe was the first individual in England, who boldly stood forth the avowed protector of the Africans. With this benevolent man, the first movement towards the abolition of the negro slavery originated, in the year 1765; and history only discharges its duty in recording his name, as the foundation stone on which was erected this glorious edifice, to the honour of liberty and humanity. Other philanthropists, inspired with the same spirit, afterwards came forward in the same cause, and Wilberforce, Clarkson, and a number of other illustrious characters, acting with a society of private individuals, encouraged by men of all ranks and of all religious denominations, but particularly by the Quakers, both in England and America, succeeded, at length, in putting a period to a traffic, which, in the course of the ten years immediately preceding its abolition, had torn from their homes more than three hundred and sixty thousand of the natives of Africa! who had either been sold into slavery, or had miserably perished in their passage to the West Indies.†

The political situation of the British empire, in consequence of the aggrandize-

* Clarkson's "History of the Rise, Progress, and Accomplishment of the Abolition of the African Slave-trade," from which publication this account is principally extracted.

† Sir Samuel Romilly's Speech in the House of Commons, June 11, 1806, grounded on documents laid before that assembly.

ment of France upon the continent, rendered the union of its members, and the concentration of its energies, now more than ever desirable. Almost every regular power of Europe lay prostrate at the feet of Bonaparte. He was surrounded by kingdoms of his own formation, and at the head of which were men who had fought under his banners, or were allied to him by blood, and whom the combined influence of gratitude and policy bound indissolubly to his interest. The complacency with which he surveyed his elevation, seemed impaired only by the circumstance, that the British nation appeared both to possess the power and the inclination to resist his advances towards universal empire. Here, amidst all the devastation and convulsions of the continent, a barrier was erected, against which the waves of his fury were impotent and unavailing. Here, notwithstanding some unhappy deviations from the general system, was an asylum for justice, and a sanctuary for freedom. In such circumstances, the attention of ministers was very naturally directed to the production of national unanimity and harmony. They knew, that, by the removal of those disabilities under which certain classes of his majesty's subjects laboured, they should suppress the murmurs of discontent, and convert the lethargy of indifference into the activity of willing service, and thus procure a reinforcement of strength equal to the pressure of the crisis. They knew that the vigorous hand will ever follow the conciliated heart; and that all the compulsory conscriptions of power are infinitely inferior to those voluntary exertions which originate in the gratitude and happiness of a free people. Accordingly, on the 5th of March, a bill was brought into the house of commons by Lord Howick, which, without having for its object what was called the emancipation of the Catholics, was adapted to afford them great satisfaction, and was doubtless intended as the precursor of a system of enlarged toleration, which contemplated the removal of all the disabilities under which the Catholic and Protestant dissenters of the united kingdom had still the misfortune to labour.*

* The following is an enumeration of the disabilities to which, by the subsisting laws of this realm, the Catholics of Ireland were then liable:—

They could not sit in either of the houses of parliament. They could not be appointed to any of the following offices—chief governor or governor of this kingdom; chancellor, or keeper, or commissary of the seal; lord high treasurer; judge in any of the courts of law, or in the admiralty court; master of the rolls; secretary of state;

In the year 1793, an act had been passed by the Irish parliament, by which the Catholics of Ireland had been enabled, to hold any rank in the army, except that of commander-in-chief of the forces, master-general of the ordnance, or general on the staff. No similar act had been passed by the British parliament; the consequence of which was, that if any circumstances demanded the presence of an Irish regiment in Great Britain, its officers would be disqualified by law from remaining in the service, and must either subject themselves to certain consequent penalties, or relinquish a profession in which they had been educated, and to which alone they could look for their respectable establishment in life. At the time of passing the Irish act, it had been distinctly promised that this inconsistency should be corrected without delay; this pledge however had not been redeemed; and it was one of the objects of the present bill to remove so absurd an incongruity.*

keeper of the privy seal; vice-treasurer, or his deputy; teller, or cashier of the exchequer; auditor-general; governor, or custos rotulorum of counties; chief governor's secretary; privy-counsellor; king's counsel; sergeants, attorney, or solicitor-general; master in chancery; provost, or fellow of Trinity College, Dublin; postmaster-general; master and lieutenant-general of ordnance; commander-in-chief; general on the staff; sheriff, and sub-sheriff; or to the office of mayor, bailiff, recorder, burgess, or any other office in a corporation, unless the lord-lieutenant should grant a written dispensation for that purpose. No Catholic could be guardian to a Protestant; and no Catholic priest could be guardian at all. Catholics were allowed to have arms only under certain restrictions. No Catholic could present to an ecclesiastical living. The pecuniary qualifications of Catholic jurors was made higher than that of Protestants, and no relaxation of the ancient rigorous code was permitted, except to those who should take the oath and declaration prescribed by the 13th and 14th Geo. III. c. 3.

* ABSTRACT of a bill introduced into the house of commons by Lord Howick, on the 5th of March, 1807, "for enabling his majesty to avail himself of the services of all his liege subjects in his naval and military forces:—"

This bill provides, 1st.—That it shall be lawful for his majesty to confer any commission or appointment whatever, in his majesty's naval or military forces, upon any of his subjects without exception, provided that every such person shall take and subscribe the following oath:—

"I, A. B., being by this commission appointed to be—(here set forth the appointment), do hereby solemnly promise and swear, in the presence of Almighty God, that I will be faithful, and bear true allegiance to his majesty King George III.; and that I will do my utmost to maintain and defend him against all treasons and traitorous conspiracies, and against all attempts whatever that shall be made against his person, crown, or dignity; and that I will, to the utmost of my power, resist all such treasons, conspiracies, or attempts, and will also disclose and make known the same

The objections to this measure of conciliation and union, may be resolved into that dread of innovation which influences strong as well as imbecile minds. Innovation, it must be confessed, has sometimes led to the most violent and convulsive movements, in which institutions the most valuable and venerable have been swept away, and horror and massacre have, in different degrees, characterized every devolution of power through a long series of rapid changes. Yet a comprehensive survey will discover that such evils have been often, if not always, imputable to the want of previous innovation, to that continuance of unnecessary and oppressive restriction, and that connivance at experienced abuse, which have eventually exhausted the patience of the sufferers, and urged on to remedies more desperate than the disease. Without innovation, human affairs must necessarily be retrograde or stationary, and the detected errors and ascertained abuses of former times must be permitted to stain and darken every succeeding age.

It soon became a matter of notoriety, that objections to the Catholic bill existed in a quarter to which the British public naturally look up with respect and deference. His majesty, who had already gone far beyond all his predecessors in regard to religious toleration, and particularly in concessions to his Roman Catholic subjects, having maturely considered the nature and extent of this bill, regarded it as contrary to the obligation of his coronation oath,* and the principles of the British constitution. Under such circumstances, ministers found it necessary to abandon the measure, and it was required from them to give a written obligation, pledging themselves never more to pro-

as soon as they shall come to my knowledge: and I do also promise and swear, in the presence of Almighty God, that I will, to the utmost of my power, maintain and support the succession to the crown of Great Britain and Ireland, as the same now stands limited by law; and that I will also, to the utmost of my power, maintain and support the established constitution and government of the said united kingdom, against all attempts whatever that shall be made against the same."

The second and only other clause of the bill, provides, "That no person, employed in his majesty's sea or land service, shall, under any pretence, or by any means, be prevented from attending such divine worship of religious service as may be consistent with or according to his religious persuasion, or opinions, at proper and reasonable times, and such as shall be consistent with the due and full discharge of his naval or military duties; nor shall any such person be compelled or compellable to attend the worship or service of the established church."

* See vol. i. book ii. chap. xviii. p. 368.

pose any thing connected with the Catholic question. This demand they resisted, as incompatible with their honour and duty. Some portion of irritation now operated in both parties; the breach had extended too far to admit of being closed; confidence was mutually impaired; and the necessary consequence, the resignation of ministers, almost immediately ensued.

After a period of suspense and agitation, such as might be expected to occur on so comprehensive a change, the names of the new ministers were announced on the 25th of March.* A trial of strength between the newly appointed and the late ministers speedily took place in the house of commons, on a motion deprecating ministerial pledges, and the result of which served to show that power and office have a close affinity. The majority on the part of ministers, however, only amounted, in a house of four hundred and eighty-four members, to thirty-two; and Mr. Canning intimated, that in the event of administration finding any impediment, from the numbers of their opponents a dissolution of parliament would be resorted to. This

* LIST OF THE NEW MINISTRY.

Cabinet Ministers.

Earl Camden, President of the Council.
Lord Eldon, Lord High Chancellor.
Earl of Westmoreland, Lord Privy Seal.
Duke of Portland, First Lord of the Treasury (Prime Minister).
Lord Mulgrave, First Lord of the Admiralty.
Earl of Chatham, Master-General of the Ordnance.
Earl Bathurst, President of the Board of Trade.
Lord Hawkesbury, Secretary of State for the Home Department.
Rt. Hon. George Canning, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.
Lord Castlereagh, Secretary of State for the Department of War and Colonies.
Rt. Hon. Spencer Perceval, Chancellor and Under-Treasurer of the Exchequer, and also Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster.

Not of the Cabinet.

Rt. Hon. Robert Saunders Dundas, President of the Board of Control for the Affairs of India.
Rt. Hon. George Rose, Vice-President of the Board of Trade, and Treasurer of the Navy.
Sir James Pulteney, Bart., Secretary at War.
Lord Charles Somerset. Rt. Hon. Charles Long Joint Paymasters-General.
Earl of Chichester, Earl of Sandwich, Joint Postmasters-General.
William Huskisson, Esq., Hon. Henry Wellesley, Secretaries of the Treasury.
Sir William Grant, Master of the Rolls.
Sir Vicary Gibbs, Attorney-General.
Sir Thomas Plumer, Solicitor-General.

PERSONS IN THE MINISTRY OF IRELAND.

Duke of Richmond, Lord-Lieutenant.
Lord Manners, Lord High Chancellor.
Sir Arthur Wellesley, Chief Secretary.
Rt. Hon. John Foster, Chancellor of the Exchequer.

menace was soon afterwards carried into effect, and on the 27th of April the session and the parliament were terminated by a speech from the throne, in which 'the commissioners were charged to state, "that his majesty was anxious to recur to the sense of his people, while the events which had recently taken place were yet fresh in their recollection."

This abrupt dissolution of parliament was arraigned by the late possessors of authority in terms of no ordinary energy. It was denounced as impolitic, unconstitutional, and a mere wanton abuse of power. His majesty, however, had only exercised the right indisputably vested in him by the constitution. A reference to the opinions of the people upon important topics of national policy, is rather a subject of congratulation than of censure: and one of the worst indications of the worst times in the British history, was the indifference or aversion manifested by the throne to these appeals to the people. The cry of the danger of the church, which was first started in parliament by Mr. Perceval, on the introduction of the Catholic bill, and reiterated in his address to his constituents at Northampton, was urged with inexpressibly more energy than truth, and was eagerly adopted by many who had more zeal than understanding. But the increased information and tolerant spirit of every class of the people, served in general as a counterpoise against the zeal of the weak, or the insinuations of the artful, and prevented any extensive injury from the application of so critical an engine of policy. At Bristol, however, the populace were excited to a high pitch of resentment against one of their representatives, who had voted with the late administration on the Catholic bill, and though his election was secured, the symptoms of popular violence became so manifest, that the ceremony of chairing was left incomplete. At Liverpool, the indications of public feeling announced that state of exasperation, in which a contest of many days could not be presumed possible, without circumstances accompanying it at which every feeling heart must shrink with horror; and under such circumstances Mr. Roscoe deemed it prudent to withdraw his pretensions. In Surrey, Lord Russel was unable to carry his election. In the city of London, a decline of that interest which had formerly predominated for Alderman Combe was strikingly observable: and he was indebted perhaps for his return to the death of Alderman Hankey, who had started as a new candidate, with the most flattering prospects of

success, but who died in the midst of anticipated triumph, furnishing a characteristic illustration of the pathetic remark of Mr. Burke, from the hustings at Bristol, on a former occasion—"What shadows we are, and what shadows we pursue."

In Yorkshire, the contest was carried on with a vigour and expense unexampled, perhaps, in the history of elections. Mr. Fawkes, one of the late representatives, declined to offer himself to the suffrages of the freeholders on the present occasion; alleging, "that after what had lately passed, a seat in the house of commons, which was the first wish of his heart, had ceased to be an object of his ambition;" and that he "could not, consistently with the duty he owed to a numerous and increasing family, consent to expose himself to the danger of these sudden and unexpected dissolutions." On the subject of expense, Mr. Wilberforce cast himself upon the liberality of his friends, and the subscription was found more than sufficient to defray all his demands. The other candidates were, the Hon. Henry Lascelles, second son of Lord Harewood, and Lord Milton, the only son of Earl Fitzwilliam, both men of high respectability, and the most opulent connexions. The two houses of Wentworth and Harewood had fixed their ambition so perseveringly upon success, as to anticipate the necessary absorption of immense property in the conflict. Notwithstanding the limitations of the Grenville act, and the preclusion of that vast expenditure which used to attend the system of open houses, a hundred thousand pounds were calculated upon by each of these two candidates as requisite to defray the expense of their election; and the event proved that this immense sum was not more than adequate to the demands. Mr. Lascelles, in his address to the freeholders, deprecated the bill introduced into parliament by the late ministers for granting enlarged privileges to the Catholics; he professed himself no courtier, but when the king called upon his subjects to support him, he would be so far a courtier as to obey the call. Lord Milton, on the contrary, avowed himself a friend to the relaxation of the existing laws against dissenters, both Catholic and Protestant; he too would support the king, but it should be a constitutional support; he was zealously attached to the constitution, but his attachment was to the whole of that venerable edifice, and not merely to one of its parts. Such were the public grounds taken by the adverse candidates;

and after a contest continued for fifteen days with unremitting energy and various success, victory at length ranged herself on the side of Lord Milton, and ultimately gave to his lordship a majority of one hundred and eighty-eight votes over his rival.* In the prosecution of this memorable struggle, all the machinery of contested elections was brought into action. Every topic, both national and local, that seemed calculated to advance the interests of the respective candidates, was urged by their partisans. The dangers of the church, and the benefits of an enlarged toleration, were alike relied upon. The conflicting interests of the merchants and manufacturers, which had been long in collision, served to rouse the populous districts of the West-Riding into a state of unexampled activity; and at the close of the contest, the exultation of victory or the depression consequent upon defeat, spread from the city of York, and pervaded every part of that extensive country.

The Westminster election, generally so productive of interest and adventure, did not, on this occasion, vary from its usual character. The candidates for public suffrage were Mr. Paul, Mr. Sheridan, Mr. Elliot, and Lord Cochrane. Of these four gentlemen, Lord Cochrane was returned along with Sir Francis Burdett, who during the whole election stood at the head of the poll, though he had declined to offer himself as a candidate, and was, in fact, at that time confined to his house, by a wound received in a duel with Mr. Paul.†

* YORKSHIRE ELECTION.—*Daily state of the Poll.*

	Mr. Wilberforce.	Lord Milton.	Mr. Lascelles.
1st day,	751	655	774
2d day,	923	1295	914
3d day,	1173	1081	1010
4th day,	1423	1196	1196
5th day,	1641	1037	1403
6th day,	1354	949	1160
7th day,	936	871	845
8th day,	766	698	689
9th day,	600	561	592
10th day,	459	444	465
11th day,	486	619	503
12th day,	373	506	363
13th day,	391	471	341
14th day,	361	502	401
15th day,	250	362	334
Total,	11,806	11,177	10,969

† It appeared that Mr. Paul, without the authority, and even without the knowledge of Sir

Of the late ministry, Mr. Thomas Grenville was the only commoner in the cabinet, who, at the assembling of the new parliament, resumed his situation for the place he had represented. Mr. Windham declined standing for Norfolk; Lord Henry Petty was unsuccessful at Cambridge; and Lord Howick, after representing his native county of Northumberland for a series of twenty years, was obliged to resign his pretensions to a more opulent candidate. Indeed, the object intended by the new ministry in the dissolution of parliament, seemed to be effectually gained. They acquired that accumulation of power which prevented any impediment to their measures, and gave them that command and confidence, without which it is impossible for any administration to secure public esteem, or to despatch the public business. The new parliament assembled on the 22d of June, and during the short session which ensued, much mutual re- crimination took place between the contending parties; but no business, of a nature demanding the notice of general history, occupied the attention of either of the houses of legislature.

Francis Burdett, had caused an advertisement to be inserted in the public papers, announcing that Sir Francis would preside at a public dinner, connected with the arrangements respecting the choice or nomination of proper persons for the representation of Westminster. The surprise of Sir Francis at the appearance of such an advertisement was very considerable, and his displeasure little inferior to his astonishment. He immediately communicated these feelings to Mr. Paul, by express, and peremptorily declined the honour intended him. Irritated by this refusal, Mr. Paul repaired to the residence of Sir Francis Burdett, at Wimbledon, after midnight, and conducted himself in such a manner as to produce a duel, in which, at the second fire, both parties were wounded. Mr. Paul in the leg, and Sir Francis in the thigh. Although the public were not in possession of all the information requisite to form a clear and full estimate of the conduct of the parties, yet, from appearances, striking and impressive, they almost unanimously agreed in censuring Mr. Paul for indecorum and brutality; and the consequence was, not merely the loss of his election, but his entire extinction as a public character; affording a fatal instance of the effects of dissingenuousness and precipitancy, and of the want of that good sense in the conduct of life which is to be preferred to even the most splendid talents.

CHAPTER IV.

EXPEDITIONS: To the Dardanelles—To Egypt—Against Monte Video—Against Buenos Ayres—Capture of the Dutch Settlement of Curacao—Expedition to Copenhagen—War declared by Russia against England—New System of Commercial Interdiction—Disputes with the United States of America—French Decrees—British Orders in Council.

It has already been seen that the war between Russia and Turkey led to an interruption of the harmony which had so long subsisted between the latter power and Great Britain. Russia being engaged in a war with the Porte by the instigation of France, it was incumbent upon England to attempt an accommodation of the existing differences, and to prevent, if possible, the direction of the strength of her ally towards the south of Europe. For this purpose, negotiations were entered into with the cabinet of Constantinople, and Admiral Sir John Duckworth was instructed to proceed, with seven sail of the line, a frigate, and two sloops, to force the Dardanelles, and bombard the Turkish capital, if certain terms should not be acceded to by that government. On the 19th of February, the British admiral proceeded to force the passage. The fire of the enemy from the outer castles inflicted but little injury on his ships; but in the narrow passage of Sestos and Abydos, a very heavy cannonade was directed from both castles, within point blank shot of each other, which opened their fire on the English ships as they continued to pass in succession. The very spirited return made to this fire, considerably diminished its force, and prevented the sternmost ships from receiving any material injury. A small Turkish squadron, consisting of a sixty-four gun ship, four frigates, and several corvettes, at anchor to the north-east of the castles, was attacked by Sir Sidney Smith, and driven on shore, where it was destroyed; while the guns of a formidable battery at Point Pesquies, were spiked by a detachment of marines. On the evening of the 20th, the squadron anchored near Prince's Islands, about eight miles from the city. The negotiations between Mr. Arbuthnot, the British ambassador to the Porte, who was then on board Admiral Duckworth's fleet, and the Turkish government, continued till the 27th, and in the interval, such was the unfortunate state of the weather, that it was not at any time in the power of the British admiral to occupy such a situation as would have enabled him to commence offensive operations. At length, it became necessary to terminate an exhibition thus humiliating. The time which had been occupied by the English commander in

empty menaces, had been employed by the Turks in the most active repairs and preparations. The whole line of the coast now presented a chain of batteries. Twelve line-of-battle ships were ready, with their sails bent, and filled with troops; an innumerable multitude of small craft, with five vessels, had been collected; and nearly two hundred thousand troops, meant to march against the Russians, were said to be in Constantinople. Had the weather favoured an attack, these accumulated means of resistance by the enemy must have been attended with a doubtful issue to the British squadron; and even had Sir John Duckworth overcome all this opposition, the repassing of the Dardanelles was still requisite, to complete his triumph. The idea of waiting for a wind, to bombard the city, was therefore now abandoned; and wounded, as the British commander acknowledges himself to have been, in pride and in ambition, he weighed anchor on the 1st of March, and, by the next day, before noon, every ship under his command had cleared the passage of the Dardanelles. This escape, however, was only from destruction, but by no means from serious loss and injury. The fire of the inner castles, which had been severe in the first passage, was more than doubly formidable on the return. The Windsor Castle was struck by a granite shot, of eight hundred pounds weight; and the number of killed and wounded, which in the first instance had not been considerable, was swelled to nearly three hundred men. The damage done to most of the ships, in their hulls, masts, and rigging, was very severe, and the expedition was productive of nothing but disaster and humiliation.

While Admiral Duckworth was advancing to Constantinople, to fix between the two countries those relations which were in a situation highly critical, an English expedition was proceeding towards another point of the Turkish dominions. On the 6th of March, a detachment, consisting of about five thousand men, under the command of General Fraser, was embarked at Messina, in forty-nine transports, for the purpose of taking possession of Alexandria; and on the 16th, they came to anchor before that city. The intelligence which was received from Major Missett, the

British resident at that place, stated, that the inhabitants were well affected to the British, and that he had sanguine hopes that our troops would be able to gain possession of this important station, without firing a gun. Accordingly, on the morning of the 19th, the British commander occupied the spot rendered memorable by the victory under the heroic Abercrombie; and on the 21st, General Fraser took possession of the place, in virtue of a capitulation executed by Seed Mahamed Naim Effendi, on behalf of his excellency Emen Bey, the governor.

Immediately after the fall of Alexandria, Major-general Wauchope, with a detachment of fifteen hundred men, consisting of the 31st regiment, and chasseurs Britanniques, was despatched to take possession of Rosetta and Rhamanie, under the persuasion that the possession of these places was necessary, to prevent the inhabitants of Alexandria from being exposed to the horrors of famine. The troops despatched on this service encountered no opposition on their march towards Rosetta, and the heights of Abourmandour, which commanded that city, were occupied without any loss. Instead of retaining possession of this post, General Wauchope was induced, without any previous examination, to enter the town with his whole force. Here, he found, to his surprise, that preparations had been made for his reception. The Turks and Albanians, in great numbers, had posted themselves in various buildings and advantageous situations; and from every window and roof in the streets through which the British troops marched, they were assailed by such a severe fire of musketry, that they were obliged at length to evacuate the place, with a loss of three hundred men killed and wounded. The commander himself was among the slain; and Brigadier-general Meade, on whom the command now devolved, was severely wounded in the retreat. In this trying situation, to which the troops were thus rashly exposed, they conducted themselves with the most admirable courage and discipline, and succeeded in effecting their retreat to Aboukir, from whence they soon afterwards returned to Alexandria.

Provisions had now become extremely scarce in this place, and the renewed representations of Major Missett, on the necessity of taking Rosetta, were corroborated by the Sorbagi or chief magistrate of Alexandria, who stated that famine must be the inevitable consequence, if this measure was not promptly executed. Another corps, amounting to about two thousand five hundred men, under Briga-

dier-general Stewart, was accordingly despatched on this important and indispensable service. On the 9th of April, this force took post opposite the Alexandrian gate of Rosetta, and began to form their batteries. From the great extent of the town, it was found impossible that the small British army sent on that service could invest more than one half of it; and a line was in consequence taken up, from the Nile to the front of the Alexandrian gate, thence retiring towards the plain, where the dragoons were posted. A mortar and some guns were brought into play early in the afternoon: these were answered by the shouts of the Albanians from their walls, and by incessant discharges of musketry through the loop-holes and crevices, which were innumerable. From the 12th to the 20th, the operations against the city were prosecuted with much vigour. Great damage was done to the town, and not fewer than three hundred shells, from mortars alone, were thrown into it. During all this time, General Stewart was in daily and almost hourly expectation of assistance from the Mamelukes; but, after waiting for this promised assistance till the 21st, a resolution was taken, on the evening of that day, to retire from before Rosetta on the following morning. Early in the morning of the 22d, Colonel Macleod, who had been despatched to defend the post of Hamet, informed the general that sixty or seventy large vessels, full of hostile troops, were descending the Nile. The danger was now alarming, and not a moment was to be lost. Orders were immediately despatched to the colonel to abandon his position, and return to the main body; but these orders were most unfortunately intercepted. General Stewart himself immediately withdrew, with his army formed in a hollow square, taking with him all the cannon and ammunition which the circumstances of the case would permit. The British troops, impressed with the exigencies of their situation, kept the most compact order, and presented in each direction so formidable a front, that the pursuers, with all their superiority of numbers, and impetuosity of attack, found them impervious to all their assaults. The detachment at Hamet, however, was completely cut off, and the whole loss in killed, wounded, and missing, from the commencement of the expedition under General Stewart, consisted of upwards of a thousand men.

This succession of disasters made a strong impression on the public mind. To be defeated on the plains of Egypt, which had produced some of the fairest wreaths to adorn the brow of British valour, was particularly mortifying. Dis-

aster, however, was totally unconnected with ignominy in the British troops, who, in both the cases above related, exhibited all that discipline, intrepidity, and perseverance, for which they are so nobly distinguished. The expedition itself to Egypt appears to have been by no means either necessary or prudent at the time it was undertaken. The influence of such an enterprise upon the operations of the Vistula, must have been extremely remote, and the troops engaged in this expedition might have been much more beneficially employed on the shores of the Baltic.

The anticipations entertained of a famine at Alexandria, were happily not verified by events. For several months, the British troops remained in possession of that city, and although Rosetta was not added to their conquests, provisions became daily more plentiful. Preparations, however, were making at Cairo, upon a large scale, to effect their expulsion; and on the 8th of August, the Governor of Egypt, at the head of a formidable force of infantry and cavalry, advanced towards Alexandria. The views of the new ministry with respect to the possession of this place, had, no doubt, regulated their instructions to the commander with regard to his conduct; and the diminished state of his forces, the disaffection of the inhabitants towards the invaders, and the vast body now collected to proceed against them, induced General Fraser to abandon the idea of defence. On the approach of the enemy to the town, he sent a flag of truce, announcing, that, on condition of the British prisoners being delivered up, the army under his command should immediately evacuate Egypt. This condition was accepted with as little hesitation as it was made. The English force almost immediately embarked, and on the 22d of September the standard of Mahomet again waved on the towers of Alexandria.

Intelligence was received by the British ministry of the enterprise undertaken by Sir Home Popham, against Buenos Ayres, in the month of June, 1806,* just at the moment when the negotiations between this country and France were pending; and it was not until October, when all hope of the successful termination of that negotiation was at an end, that a reinforcement was sent from England, to co-operate with the troops under General Beresford in Maldonado. The command of the troops was given to Sir Samuel Auchmuty; and Sir Charles Sterling was appointed to convoy the transports in the

Ardent ship of war, and on their arrival at La Plata, to supersede Sir Home Popham on that station. On the 5th of January, this force arrived at Maldonado. An attack on Monte Video was now determined upon, and on the morning of the 18th a landing was effected, in a small bay on the coast. The enemy, who were in possession of the surrounding heights, in great force, suffered the troops to disembark, and to take possession of a strong post about nine miles from the town, without opposition. On the 19th, the army moved towards Monte Video. Two heights, in the front and to the left, were occupied by about four thousand of the enemy's horse, and a heavy fire of round and grape-shot was now opened; but, by a spirited charge from the light battalion under Colonel Brownrigg, the corps opposed to him was dispersed, and one of their guns taken. The enemy on the flank also commenced a retreat, and the British commander was permitted to occupy a position two miles from the citadel, without any further opposition. On the following morning, the whole force of the Spaniards, consisting of about six thousand men, came out of the town to meet the English, and commenced an attack in two columns, one of which was defeated and driven back with the loss of about twelve hundred men; and the other retreated without coming to action. The siege of Monte Video almost immediately commenced; batteries were in a few days opened upon the town, and all the frigates and smaller vessels approached as closely as possible to assist in the cannonade. A battery was erected as near as possible to the wall, by the south gate of the citadel, which communicated with the sea, from which a vigorous fire was kept up, and on the 2d of February, a breach was reported practicable. Orders were now given for the assault to commence an hour before daybreak on the following morning. The troops destined for this service were commanded by Colonel Browne; and the remainder of the British force, including a corps of seven hundred marines and seamen, were encamped under Brigadier-general Lumley, to act as a corps of reserve, and protect the rear. The morning was extremely dark, and the troops had approached near to the breach before they were discovered. But no sooner had the garrison become aware of their danger, than a destructive fire, from every gun that could be made to bear upon the breach, was opened, and showers of musketry were poured down upon the assailants. The head of the British column, owing to the continued darkness, had the misfortune to miss the breach,

* See vol. i. book iii. chap. ix. page 567.

which, in the course of the night, had been closed up and strongly barricaded with hides, notwithstanding all the fire of the besiegers. In this situation, the troops remained, under a heavy fire, for a quarter of an hour, when the breach was discovered by Captain Renny, who pointed it out, and gloriously fell as he mounted it. The soldiers, difficult as was the access, forced their way to the ramparts, and thence into the town, overturning the cannon which had been placed at the head of the principal avenues, and clearing the batteries and the streets with their bayonets. By eight o'clock in the morning, every thing was completely in their possession; perfect tranquillity reigned throughout the place, and the women were seen walking about the town without the slightest alarm. From the first landing to the complete occupation of the citadel, the British loss amounted to about six hundred men; Major Dalrymple was killed, and Lieutenant-colonels Vassal and Brownrigg died of their wounds. The loss sustained by the enemy was about eight hundred killed, and five hundred wounded; about two thousand Spaniards were made prisoners, including the governor, Don Pasquil Ruis Huidobro; and fifteen hundred were supposed to have escaped in their boats, or to have secreted themselves in the town.*

In the month of June, a British expedition, under General Crawford, consisting of about five thousand troops, arrived in the river Plata, and was joined by the troops which had at different times arrived in South America since the first attack upon the Spanish settlements by General Beresford. The command of this united force was given to General Whitelocke, and an attack upon Buenos Ayres was immediately resolved upon. After several delays, occasioned by the unfavourable state of the weather, a landing was effected on the 28th of June, without opposition, at Ensenada, about thirty miles eastward of the town. Colonel Mahon, to whom the bringing up of the heavy artillery was intrusted, was directed to wait at Reduction till further orders; and the army, divided into two columns, after surmounting various difficulties, arrived before Buenos Ayres on the following day, when the fortress was summoned to surrender. This demand, as might have been anticipated, was peremptorily declined, and preparations were made for the attack. The British line was formed by placing General Auchmuty's brigade on the left, extending within two miles of Recoleta; the 36th and 88th regiments were

on the right; and the brigade of General Crawford occupied the principal avenues to the town, about three miles distant from the great square and fort, his right being well supported by an appointment of dragoons, and the 45th regiment extending to the Residencia. The town was thus nearly invested.

Understanding that the inhabitants meant to occupy the flat roofs of their houses for defence and annoyance, and that the town was divided into squares of about one hundred and forty yards each, General Whitelocke resolved to adopt the following plan of attack:—Every division, being provided with cannon, was to proceed along the street directly in its front, till it arrived at the last square adjoining the river, there to occupy the flat roofs of the houses, and to await further instructions; a corporal's guard was to march at the head of each column with instruments to break open the doors of the houses; and the muskets were to be kept unloaded till the columns were formed at their appointed final stations.

These arrangements having been given out, the strong post of the Retiro and Plaza de Toros, was approached, early in the morning of the 5th of July, by General Auchmuty; and notwithstanding the severe discharges of grape-shot and musketry from the Spaniards, the general gained possession of the place, taking thirty-two pieces of cannon, six hundred prisoners, and a vast quantity of ammunition. The 5th regiment advanced to the river, after experiencing very little opposition, and took possession of the church and convent of St. Catalina. The 36th and 88th regiments, under Brigadier-general Lumley, moving in the appointed order, were opposed in their march by an incessant fire of musketry from the tops of the houses, the doors of which were so firmly barricaded, that scarcely any effort could force them open, while the streets were intersected by deep ditches, in the inside of which were planted cannon, which poured grape-shot on the advancing columns. The 36th regiment, however, was enabled to overcome all this opposition, and to reach its final destination. The 88th regiment, which was more exposed to the fire of the forts, and to the principal defences of the Spaniards, was completely overpowered and taken. This misfortune rendered unavailing the success of the other regiment, and both the 36th and the 5th regiments were at length compelled to retreat upon the post of General Auchmuty. In the mean time, the British six-pounders, which had been appointed to move down the principal streets, covered by four troops of carabineers, led on by Lieutenant-colone

* Sir Samuel Auchmuty's Despatches, dated Monte Video, February 6th, 1807.

Kingston, advanced to take the battery; but this gallant officer being unfortunately wounded, as well as Captain Burrell, next in command, and the fire, both from the battery and the houses, proving very destructive, they were obliged to fall back on a position in front of the enemy's principal defences. Lieutenant-colonel Pack, with the left division of General Crawford's brigade, had advanced nearly to the river, where he was to occupy the Jesuits' College, which commanded the principal Spanish line of defence; but on turning to the left, the fire of the enemy became so overwhelming as to render all further advance absolutely impracticable. Part of this division took possession of a house, which was almost immediately found untenable, and no alternative remained but surrender or absolute destruction. The remainder of the division, after sustaining with intrepidity the incessant discharges of the enemy, by which their commander was wounded, retired upon the right division, commanded by General Crawford in person. The general, learning the fate of his left division, and being now opposed by immense superiority of numbers, thought it advisable to take possession of the Convent of St. Domingo. The Residencia had been gained by Colonel Guard, with very slight opposition, and leaving this position in possession of his light companies, the colonel advanced with his principal force towards General Crawford, and joined him at the convent. The building was almost instantly surrounded by the enemy. In this emergency, General Crawford was obliged to confine himself to the defence of the convent; but the quantity of round shot, grape, and musketry, to which the troops were exposed, at length obliged them to quit the top of the building; and the Spaniards, to the number of six thousand, bringing up cannon to force the wooden gates, the general, with all the troops under his command, surrendered at four o'clock in the afternoon.

"The result of this day's action," says General Whitelocke, "left me in possession of the Plaza de Toros, a strong post on the enemy's right, and the Residencia, another strong post on his left, while I occupied the advanced position towards his centre; but these advantages had cost two thousand five hundred men in killed, wounded, and prisoners. The nature of the fire to which the troops were exposed, was violent in the extreme. Grape-shot at the corners of the streets; musketry, hand-grenades, bricks, and stones from the tops of all the houses; every householder, with his negroes defending his dwelling, each of which was in itself a fortress; and it is

not, perhaps, too much to say, that the whole male population of Buenos Ayres was employed in its defence."*

The night of the 5th exhibited an impressive pause in the work of destruction. On the following morning, General Liniers addressed a letter to the British commander, offering to deliver up the prisoners taken on this occasion, and also those taken from General Beresford, on condition that the attack on the town should be discontinued, and that, within two months from that date, Monte Video, and the other stations on the river Plata, occupied by the English troops, should be evacuated. It was stated, in this despatch, that the exasperation of the populace against the English prisoners was unbounded, and that, if hostilities were persisted in by General Whitelocke, it would be impossible to ensure their safety. These terms were no sooner proposed than they were yielded to by the British general, who was determined to this assent principally from a reference to the situation of the prisoners, which, from unquestionable intelligence, he understood to be highly critical; and from the consideration that the possession of a country, whose inhabitants were so decidedly hostile to the conquerors, could be attended with no permanent advantage.

The conduct of General Whitelocke, in conducting this expedition, called forth the most severe reprehension; and the entire failure of the enterprise produced universal dissatisfaction and disappointment. The general, on his return to England, after the entire evacuation of South America, was put upon his trial before a court-martial, assembled at Chelsea, on the 26th of January, 1808, and continued by adjournment for two-and-thirty days. By this tribunal, he was pronounced guilty of all the charges preferred against him, except that part of the second which related to the order, that the muskets of the columns should be unloaded, and that no firing should be permitted on any account; and being declared totally unfit and unworthy to serve his majesty in any military capacity whatever, was cashiered.†

* General Whitelocke's Despatches, dated Buenos Ayres, July 7th, 1807.

† The charges against General Whitelocke were four, and were in substance as follows:—

1st. Having, contrary to the tenor of instructions, in the summons to Buenos Ayres, required that the civil officers and magistrates should be made prisoners of war, which, it is averred, is contrary to all the customs of war, and had a decided effect in inflaming the civil population to resistance.

2d. Exposing the army, in marching against Buenos Ayres, to a destructive discharge of musketry from the town, without providing that army with the proper means of offence or attack,

An enterprise of considerable importance, and terminating in a much more happy result than the expedition against Buenos Ayres, was accomplished the first day in the year 1807, by a squadron of four frigates,* commanded by Captain Brisbane, under the orders of Vice-admiral Dacres. The expedition was directed against the Dutch settlement of Curacoa. The harbour was defended by regular fortifications of two tiers of guns; Fort Amsterdam alone containing sixty-six pieces of cannon. The entrance was only fifty yards wide, and across it were moored two frigates and two large schooners of war. A chain of forts was on the commanding height of Miselburg; and Fort Republique, deemed nearly impregnable, was within the distance of grape-shot, and enfiladed the whole harbour. Soon after daybreak, the British frigates made all possible sail in close order of battle. The vessels appointed to intercept their entrance were taken by boarding; and the lower forts, the citadel, and the town of Amsterdam, by storm. The port was entered at about six o'clock in the morning; before ten, a capitulation was signed; the British flag was hoisted on Fort Republique, and the whole island was in complete possession of the assailants. The loss of the British amounted only to three men killed, and eleven wounded; and the inhabitants of the town, to the amount of thirty thousand, swore allegiance to the British government.

The year 1807 beheld the continent of Europe apparently prostrate at the feet of France. The discipline of Austria and Prussia had disappeared before the numbers and the enthusiasm of the French armies, and the predominant genius of their leader. The sovereigns of those countries had seen their capitals filled with hostile armies, and their flying courts hovering on the frontiers of their former dominions. The house of Hapsburg had ceased to give emperors to Germany; and the downfall of a constitution transmitted from the feudal ages, was beheld without astonishment, and probably without regret.

and ordering the whole of his brigades to be unloaded, and no firing to be permitted on any account.

3d. Not being present personally on the advance against Buenos Ayres; also not keeping open a communication between the main body of the troops and the detachment under General Crawford, which compelled that officer to surrender.

4th. Surrendering the fortress of Monte Video without necessity, which was capable of making an effectual resistance against any force that could be brought against it.

* The *Arethusa*, *Latona*, *Anson*, and *Fishguard*.

The battle of Friedland had convinced the Emperor of Russia of the necessity of peace; and the treaty of Tilsit, concluded on the 8th of July, rather proclaimed than confirmed the power of Bonaparte, and the weakness of his adversaries. In these circumstances, the eyes of all Europe were fixed upon England. In her, they beheld a power which had uniformly resisted with vigour, and with comparative effect, the encroachments of the continental Colossus; and in struggling to support the political system of civilized Europe, she had respected the laws by which it was regulated. In the midst of the disasters and errors of the continent, Denmark had remained unmolested; protected by the firm but temperate politics of her court; by the attachment of the inhabitants to the family of the sovereign, and to their own national independence; by the rigid observance of a strict neutrality; and by the moral turpitude attached to unprovoked aggression. From the general policy of the French emperor, every thing was to be apprehended; and the Crown-prince of Denmark, draining the rest of his dominions of their forces, had for three years kept the flower of the Danish youth assembled on the borders of Holstein, to protect the only quarter in which aggression seemed to be possible, from the entrance of that army which had long hovered on its frontier.

Such was the posture of affairs, when the British government determined to despatch to the Baltic a powerful armament, consisting of twenty thousand troops, under the command of Lieutenant-general Lord Cathcart; and a fleet of twenty-seven sail of the line, and vessels of all other descriptions, to the number of nearly ninety pendants, under Admiral Gambier. When the intelligence of this expedition first arrived in Copenhagen, it was universally supposed, in that city, that the English army was intended to co-operate with the Swedes in the defence of Stralsund, and in the reconquering the rest of Pomerania; and the only apprehension was, that it would arrive too late. The illusion was, however, speedily dissipated, by the arrival of Mr. Jackson in the Danish capital, on the 1st of August, as plenipotentiary on behalf of his Britannic majesty. The English negotiator, as might have been expected, failed in convincing the crown-prince that it was incumbent upon him to deprive his own kingdom and capital, during a period critical beyond example, of a defence, provided at an enormous expense, in order to add to the naval power or to promote the security of Great Britain. Accordingly, on the

16th of August, Lord Cathcart disembarked his forces at Wybeck; and nearly at the same time the British troops from Stralsund effected a landing in Keoge Bay, swelling the land force under the British commander to twenty-eight thousand men. On the day after the landing of the troops, they advanced in three columns, with very trifling opposition, to invest Copenhagen, which was effected on the north and south by the military force, and by the naval power on the east. The regular works were now commenced and carried on with great spirit: and while they were rapidly advancing, the frigates and gun-boats took advantage of a favourable breeze, to station themselves near the entrance of the harbour, from which they might throw shells into the town. Brigadier-general Decken, who had been sent against Frederickswerk, succeeded in surprising that important post, by which a *dépôt* of cannon and powder, and upwards of eight hundred Danish soldiers, fell into the hands of the besiegers. The country being now roused into an extreme state of irritation against the invaders, General Castenschild was enabled to accumulate a formidable voluntary force, and in addition to these irregular troops, three or four battalions of disciplined soldiers contributed to swell the general's ranks. On the 26th, this army was attacked by Sir Arthur Wellesley, and defeated, with a loss of sixty officers, eleven hundred men, and ten pieces of cannon. Having dispersed these troops, the British general moved towards the centre of the island, with a view to disarm and keep down the rising spirit of the country; in which endeavour he so effectually succeeded, as to prevent the besieging army from experiencing any further molestation from this quarter.

In the mean time, the contest was carried on with great vigour between the Danish gun-boats and praams, supported by the crown battery, a block-house, and some other works, and the advanced squadron of the British gun-boats, when the latter were at length obliged to retire before the destructive fire of the red-hot shot of the enemy. Between the British batteries on the shore, and the enemy's gun-boats, the conflict on the part of the former was more successful, and the Danes were, in their turn, obliged to retreat with considerable loss. The besieging army had now advanced its positions to the inundation in front of the city; and the moment rapidly approached, in which the more serious operations of the siege were to commence. As no overtures for accommodation had been made or yielded to by

the Danes, and as every thing evinced their determination to endure the horrors of a bombardment, the heavy ordnance were landed on the 26th, and by the 31st the platform was laid, and the mortar batteries were ready for action. A summons was now despatched by the British commanders to General Pieman, the Governor of Copenhagen, containing the same offers which had been originally made by Mr. Jackson, and which were now again most peremptorily rejected.*

* SUMMONS TO THE CITY OF COPENHAGEN,
Addressed to his Excellency General Pieman,
Governor.

"British Head-quarters, before Copenhagen,
September 1, 1807.

"SIR,—We, the commanders-in-chief of his majesty's sea and land forces now before Copenhagen, judge it expedient at this time to summon you to surrender the place, for the purpose of avoiding the further effusion of blood, by giving up a defence which, it is evident, cannot long be continued. The king, our gracious master, used every endeavour to settle the matter now in dispute, in the most conciliating manner, through his diplomatic servants. To convince his Danish majesty, and all the world, of the reluctance with which his majesty feels himself compelled to have recourse to arms, we, the undersigned, at this moment, when our troops are before your gates, and our batteries ready to open, do renew to you the offer of the same advantages and conciliatory terms which were proposed through his majesty's ministers to your court.

"If you will consent to deliver up the Danish fleet, and to our carrying it away, it shall be held as a deposit for his Danish majesty, and shall be restored, with all its equipments, in as good a state as it is received, as soon as the provisions of a general peace shall remove the necessity which has occasioned this demand. The property of all sorts, which has been captured since the commencement of hostilities, will be restored to its owners, and the union between the kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland, and Denmark, may be renewed. But if this offer be rejected now, it cannot be repeated. The captured property, public and private, must then belong to the captors, and the city, when taken, must share the fate of conquered places.

"We must request an early decision, because, in the present advanced position of the troops, so near your glacis, the most prompt and vigorous attack is indispensable, and delay would be improper. We have the honour to be,

"J. GAMBIER,

"Commander-in-chief of his majesty's ships and vessels.

"CATHCART,

"Commander-in-chief of the land forces."

ANSWER,

Addressed to his Excellency Admiral Gambier
and Lord Cathcart.

"Copenhagen, September 1, 1807.

"MY LORD,—Our fleet, our own indisputable property, we are convinced is as safe in his Danish majesty's hands as ever it can in those of the King of England, as our master never intended any hostility against yours. If you are cruel enough to endeavour to destroy a city that has not given

"The mortar batteries, which had been erected by the army in the several positions they had taken round Copenhagen, together with the bomb vessels, which were placed in convenient situations, began the bombardment on the morning of the 2d of September, with such power and effect, that in a short time the town was set on fire, and, by the repeated discharges of our artillery, was kept in flames in different places till the evening of the 5th, when a considerable part of it being consumed, and the conflagration, arrived at a great height, threatened the speedy destruction of the whole city, the general commanding the garrison sent out a flag of truce, desiring an armistice, to afford time to treat for a capitulation."* It was explained to General Pieman, in reply, that the basis of the capitulation must be the delivering up of the fleet; which in a subsequent letter from the general was admitted; and on the morning of the 7th, the articles of capitulation, which had been settled during the night of the 6th, were ratified. By these articles, the British forces were to be put in immediate possession of the citadel and dock-yards; all the ships of war and naval stores of his Danish majesty, were to be delivered up; the prisoners were to be mutually restored; private property was to be respected; the functions of the civil and military officers were to receive no interruption; and within six weeks the citadel was to be restored to his Danish majesty, in the state in which it was occupied, and the British troops were to evacuate the island of Zealand. The navy, delivered up in consequence of this agreement, consisted of sixteen ships of the line, fifteen frigates, six brigs, and twenty-five gun-boats, besides vessels on the stocks: in the arsenal, were found stores sufficient to fit for sea all this formidable fleet; and all the ships of the line and frigates were laden with the masts, spars, and timber that remained. A considerable part of the stores

any the least cause for such treatment at your hands, it must submit to its fate; but honour and duty bid us to reject a proposal unbecoming an independent power; and we are resolved to repel any and every attack, and defend to the utmost the city and our good cause, for which we are ready to lay down our lives.

"PIEMAN,

'Commander-in-chief of his Danish Majesty's land forces."

Appendant to General Pieman's reply, was a proposal to send to his royal master, at Kolding, for his final instructions; but the British commanders did not consider themselves authorized to acquiesce in this proposal.

* Admiral Gambier's Despatches, dated Copenhagen-Road, September 7th, 1807.

of this description, were put on board the Leyden and Inflexible; and some of the more valuable articles on board others of his majesty's ships; notwithstanding which, there still remained sufficient to load ninety-two transports, and other vessels, chartered for this purpose, and whose cargoes, at least, amounted to twenty thousand tons. The loss sustained by the British, before Copenhagen, did not exceed two hundred men: that of the Danes was much more considerable; it amounted to about two thousand persons; four hundred houses were destroyed; and the venerable edifice of Frederick Kirk was laid in ruins.

In calculating the amount of the gain by this unprecedented operation, England had obviously to set off, first, the expense attending the expedition to Copenhagen, which probably amounted to the prime cost of the captured vessels; second, the implacable animosity of the whole Danish nation against this country, devoting them, with all the resources of Denmark, to the service of Bonaparte; third, the resentment expressed and acted upon by the Emperor of Russia, which cemented, if it did not dictate, his alliance with France; and lastly, and above all, the diminution of that high national character, and consequent influence, which Great Britain had hitherto enjoyed among the nations of Europe. It was indeed asserted, in justification of this measure, that "his majesty had received the most positive information of the determination of the present ruler of France to occupy with a military force the territory of Holstein; for the purpose of excluding Great Britain from her accustomed channels of communication with the continent; or inducing or compelling the court of Denmark to close the passage of the Sound against British commerce and navigation; and of availing himself of the aid of the Danish marine for the invasion of Great Britain and Ireland; and further, "Holstein once occupied, Zealand would be at the mercy of France, and the navy of Denmark at her disposal."* The evidence of the positive information here alluded to, was never exhibited; but it was contended, and from high authority, that ministers had no occasion to produce proof of their assertion; that the facts which justified the seizure of the Danish fleet were public and notorious, and were to be found in the power and animosity of France; the weakness and hostile disposition of Denmark; and the importance of her navy toward the success of any plan which the enemy might adopt

* British Declaration, dated September 25, 1807.

for the invasion of these realms. These circumstances, it was insisted, made out a case of necessity; and the measure adopted was one of self-preservation, the first law of nature. To establish these positions, it was necessary to show the inability of Denmark to resist the seizure of her fleet by France; and that, even in such case, Great Britain was menaced with a danger so imminent as to justify an attack on a neutral power. On the first of these points, it was affirmed by Earl St. Vincent, one of the best naval authorities in this country, in the presence of Lords Cathcart and Gambier, in the house of peers, and uncontradicted, that it was easier to invade Great Britain from Boulogne, than Zealand from Funen; and consequently, that "Holstein once occupied, Zealand was (*not*) at the mercy of France, and the navy of Denmark at her disposal." On the second, it cannot be seriously stated, that this nation would have been in a state of tremendous and unparalleled peril, although the navy of Bonaparte had been actually augmented by sixteen ships, fifteen frigates, six brigs, and twenty-five gun-boats. When the war was renewed in 1803, the victories of our naval heroes had not completed the destruction of the French marine. France had still a powerful fleet; and Russia, Prussia, Sweden, and Denmark were united in a confederacy hostile to this country. Yet, did our measures at that time argue pusillanimity, or beget despondency? Did any man then venture to state to the British nation, that the imminent peril which menaced these realms had rendered obsolete the political code of our ancestors, and that safety could be found only in imitating the violence and atrocity of the enemy? It ought also to be recollected, that at the time she was required to surrender up her fleet to British protection, Denmark could not consent to the sacrifice demanded. Her continental possessions were exposed to French invasion; her capital might be laid in ruins by an English fleet; and her foreign possessions were at the mercy of Great Britain. A strict neutrality was therefore a line of conduct imperiously prescribed to the crown-prince, by the local peculiarities of his territory; and it is a circumstance highly honourable to the people of Great Britain, that no consideration of present advantage, or of permanent security, ever fully reconciled them to an enterprise, by which they conceived the national honour to be tarnished, and felt that their moral sensibilities were outraged. (59)

The conduct of the Emperor of Russia, in acceding to the treaty of Tilsit, had tended considerably to relax the bond of union between the courts of London and St.

that the powerful ever inflicted upon the weak and unoffending. The author of the invasion of Spain is an exile upon the rock of St. Helena, while those who planned the attack upon Copenhagen still direct the councils of England, and exercise a controlling influence over the rest of Europe. But although the armies of her great antagonist may have given to the cause of England a temporary advantage, yet the best interests of society require that such events should not be suffered to pass away with the ordinary occurrences of history, without some stronger animadversions than the partialities of Mr. Baines for his own country have allowed him to express. What has once happened may happen again, and if the pretext of retaliation be admitted by mankind as a justification of crime, the future wars of the civilized world will be general and destructive beyond those of any former period. By acquiescing in the invasion of Denmark, the monarchs of Europe have torn in pieces the book of international law, and sanctioned a precedent which will never want followers when power and a disposition to injustice are combined. It may be useful, therefore, briefly to recapitulate the principal features of this enterprise, as a memorial of the disposition of the government by which it was undertaken, and because many of the most important facts are omitted or glossed over by Mr. Baines.

While the other powers of Europe had taken an active part in the wars which succeeded the French revolution, Denmark alone, under the administration of a wise and honest statesman, preserved a pacific policy, until the aggressions of the British upon her commerce compelled her to become a party to the armed neutrality, which was dissolved by the death of the Emperor Paul in 1801. After the renewal of the war in 1803 between France and England, she observed a strict impartiality, careful to give offence to neither, and studious only to preserve herself from injury by the conflicts of her more powerful neighbours. She suspected no danger, because she had given no offence, and because her comparative weakness could have afforded no cause of alarm to any other nation. From the British government, especially, nothing was feared, because in the diplomatic intercourse of the two countries, offence was not even hinted at. Suddenly, and without even a whisper of complaint, a British fleet makes its appearance in the Baltic. The ambassador of that nation proposes to the Danish government an alliance offensive and defensive with England, the conditions of which were the surrender of the Danish fleet, and of the fortresses of Cronenburg and Copenhagen into the hands of the English. To such proposals, but one answer could be given. "History," said the prince-royal, "affords no example of a more wanton outrage than that with which Denmark is menaced. The treachery of the pirates of Barbary loses its enormity, when compared with that of the English." When the British envoy added, that his government would make a compensation in money for the value of the fleet, "What compensation," asked the prince, "can you make for our violated honour?" Immediately after receiving the Danish reply, the British army was debarked, to the number of 23,000 men, and the siege of Copenhagen commenced. Against

(59) The momentous events of the last ten years have had the effect of throwing into a partial oblivion one of the most wanton outrages

Petersburg; and the long interviews held on the Niemen between the two emperors, the exchanges of imperial insignia at Tilsit, and the ascendancy of Bonaparte's understanding, rendered it far from improbable that Russia might soon join in hostility against England, with which she had so long, but so unsuccessfully co-operated. At length, every doubt on this subject was dissipated; and apprehension was converted into certainty. The season of the year having arrived in which annoyance from Great Britain could not be apprehended, the British ambassador was ordered to leave Petersburg, and on the 31st of October, a declaration of war was issued against England.

In this paper, the emperor regrets the existing alienation of his Britannic majesty, in proportion to the great value which he had placed upon his friendship. Twice had the emperor taken up arms in a cause in which England was peculiarly concerned, but in the accomplishment of her projects he had in vain solicited her co-operation. When peace was re-established with France by Russia, the latter had offered her mediation to England. This had been rejected, unquestionably on a determination to break off all the existing ties between the two nations. At the moment when it was thus in the power of England to complete that general peace which was so much desired, her fleets and troops were summoned to execute an act of outrage unparalleled in history, and to attack a power, which, by its

so powerful a force, supported by a numerous fleet, the Danish militia could offer little resistance. After several days' bombardment, during which the suburbs of the city were totally destroyed, three hundred houses consumed, and upwards of two thousand lives sacrificed, the city capitulated. Then began a scene of plunder and devastation, to the relation of which it would be difficult to give credit, if the experience of our own wars with the English had not afforded us serious proofs of its probability. Not merely was the greater part of the fleet carried away by the conquerors, but the magazines, which the prudent caution of the Danish government had filled with the munitions of war, were stripped of their contents, and even the tools of the workmen did not escape the rapacity of the British officers. The principal part of what was thus acquired was sent to England, the remainder was committed to the flames in the presence of the unfortunate inhabitants, to whose feelings they might have spared this last indignity. These operations being concluded, the British army retired, after some weeks' possession of the town, on the approach of the prince-royal, with an army of regular troops, whose patriotic indignation they did not choose to meet. Such was the expedition to Copenhagen, from which the rulers of nations ought to derive a solemn warning of the utter inefficacy of the existing laws of nations. The "tyrant's plea, necessity," used by the British government in defence of their conduct on this occasion, will continue to be the pretext of future outrages; and unless some better system of international union can be devised, by which the strong may be subjected to the restraints imposed upon individuals in a state of society, historians will write and moralists declaim in vain.

moderate conduct and wise neutrality, maintained a sort of moral dignity amidst surrounding and conflicting monarchies. The Prince-royal of Denmark had communicated all the insidious propositions of England to the emperor, and reposed in him a just confidence. The emperor, touched with the confidence reposed in him, and having considered his own peculiar complaints against England, and his engagements with the powers of the north, had resolved to recall his embassy from England; to terminate all communication with her; to act on the principles of the armed neutrality, and never to recede from them; to procure the restoration of all unjustly detained vessels and merchandise; not to re-establish any communication before complete satisfaction was given to Denmark; and to require of his Britannic majesty, instead of "suffering his ministers to scatter the seeds of fresh war, to conclude such a treaty with the Emperor of France, as should prolong interminably the invaluable blessings of peace."

To this declaration, an answer was returned by the British government on the 18th of December, in which it was stated,

"That his Britannic majesty was aware of the nature of those engagements imposed on the Emperor of Russia by the peace of Tilsit, but had hoped that, in a season of reflection, he would have extricated himself from the new councils and connexions which had been adopted in a moment of despondency and alarm, and returned to that policy which he had so long professed, and which had conducted so much to the prosperity of his dominions; but the declaration of Russia had disappointed these expectations. With respect to the charge against Great Britain, of having neglected to support the military operations of Russia, it is observed, that the war with the Porte was undertaken by Great Britain at the instigation of Russia, and solely for the purpose of maintaining Russian interests. The offer of mediation by Russia was not declined, but accepted, on conditions in themselves perfectly natural, and which it would have been highly improper to omit. The conditions required by his majesty were—a statement of the basis upon which the enemy was disposed to treat, and a communication of the articles of the treaty of Tilsit; but these conditions had neither of them been fulfilled. With respect to the expedition to Copenhagen, it ill became those who were parties to the secret arrangements at Tilsit, to demand satisfaction for a measure to which those arrangements gave rise, and by which one of the objects of them was happily defeated. The requisition of an immediate conclusion of peace with France, was as extraordinary in substance as it was offensive in its manner. His majesty would never admit the pretensions of the Emperor of Russia to dictate the time or the mode of his negotiations with other powers, nor would ever endure that any government should indemnify itself for the humiliation of subservieny to France, by adopting an insolent and peremptory tone towards Great Britain. His majesty," continues the declaration, "proclaims anew those principles of maritime law, against which the armed neutrality was originally directed; and against which the present hostilities of Russia are denounced. Those principles, which have been recognised and acted upon in the best periods of the history of Europe, it is the right and the duty of his majesty to maintain; and against every confederacy, his majesty is determined, under the blessing of divine Providence, to maintain them. When the

opportunity for peace between Great Britain and Russia shall arrive, his majesty will embrace it with eagerness. His majesty, as he has nothing to concede, so he has nothing to require: satisfied, if Russia shall manifest a disposition to return to her ancient feelings of friendship towards Great Britain; to a just consideration of her own true interests; and to a sense of her own dignity as an independent nation."

One immense power now occupied Europe, arranging and controlling every thing in conformity to its views. The subjugation of Russia to French influence was, on this account, sincerely to be deplored; nor could it be concealed, that the substitution of her hostility for her alliance, was greatly to be lamented by this country, as adding to the pressure of a situation already full of embarrassment. Amidst the difficulties pressing upon this country, the vast territory of Europe being now subservient to the designs of an enemy, meditating its downfall as the consummation of his policy, there was something calculated to produce inspirations of the noblest heroism. The antipathy of the enemy arose principally from that effectual opposition afforded by England to the universal dominion of his arms; and the magnitude of the confederation of nations, united willingly or by compulsion against her, was a confession that her prowess and resources were incapable of being subdued but by the most extraordinary means; and implied, indeed, those doubts of success, which never fail to add confidence to the spirit with which aggression is opposed. This impressive, because reluctant compliment from an adversary, was felt at this moment by the British nation in its full force, and all hearts and hands were united to sustain the urgency of the crisis.

The efforts of Bonaparte to exclude English commerce, and to establish his "continental system," were this year continued with rigorous perseverance and undiminished pressure. To embarrass the trade and finances of Great Britain, Europe was obliged, in a great degree, to abandon those luxuries which long habit had almost rendered necessary supplies. The restrictions enforced against England were followed on her part by a system of retaliation, which deprived multitudes in France of the means of honest industry, and even of relief under disease and pain. The cotton manufactures languished for want of raw material. Sugars, and various other articles of colonial produce, had attained a price that exceeded by three hundred per cent. their former value; and rhubarb and bark, the usual palliatives of disease, were scarcely to be procured. Similar distresses, flowing from the same causes, extend-

ed to almost all the countries of the continent, which presented a striking picture of privation and patient endurance. At the same time, this country felt with no common pressure the consequences of these restrictions. The regular channels of communication, through which British manufactures and colonial produce had poured in immense supplies, extending in opposite directions to the remotest points of the continent, were now dried up. Those connivances and elusions which had formerly rendered positive restraints formidable only upon paper, were in a great measure precluded, and the distress in the manufacturing and commercial districts of the kingdom was such as to excite the most poignant regret in the philanthropic observer, who could derive no consolation from the idea that these evils were felt with equal force throughout the greater part of Europe. The distress of the West India planters, in consequence of the exclusion of their produce from the usual markets, excited particular attention; and to remedy this evil, a committee of the house of commons, appointed to inquire into the most effectual means of affording them relief, recommended a decrease of duty upon colonial produce, an advance of bounty upon its importation, and the interruption of the intercourse carried on by American ships between the colonies of Cuba, Porto Rico, Martinique, and Guadeloupe, through the medium of the United States, to Europe.

The suggestion of the committee relative to the suspension of French and American intercourse, leads to a view of the relative situation of the United States and Great Britain. The spirit of disaffection between the two countries originated in causes that have already been stated and discussed.* With respect to the practice of searching American vessels for British seamen, incidents were perpetually occurring to keep alive the spirit of exasperation. In the former year, John Pierce, an American seaman, was killed by a shot fired from on board the *Leander*; and in the course of the present year another fatal occurrence took place, which threatened consequences of the most serious nature. A British squadron, under Admiral Berkeley, had been for some time stationed at the entrance to the Chesapeake Bay; and while the American frigate, the *Chesapeake*, of forty-four guns, was equipping for the Mediterranean, under Commodore Barron, several seamen had deserted from the English ships and engaged themselves to serve on board the American frigate. Representations of these

circumstances having been made to the agents of the American government without effect, an order was in consequence issued by Admiral Berkeley to the captain of the *Leopard* frigate (60) to cruise off the cape for the purpose of intercepting the *Chesapeake*, after she had passed the limits of the American waters, and examining her four deserters. In compliance with these directions, Captain Humphries sent a boat on board the American frigate on the 23d of June, as she was advancing on her voyage, apprizing the commodore that he had deserters on board, and that he had received orders to search for them. The demand of Captain Humphries not being acceded to, he fired several shots without injuring the American vessel; no attention being paid to these demonstrations, a broadside was poured into the *Chesapeake*, which she returned with six or seven detached shots, and, on receiving a second broadside, struck her colours. On examination, several deserters were found; and the object of the conflict being accomplished, the *Chesapeake*, which had suffered a loss of six men killed and twenty-one wounded, was dismissed in a shattered condition to her port. (61)

No sooner had intelligence of this distressing event reached the American government, than a proclamation was issued by the president, in which, after stating the hovering of British vessels on the coast, the insubordination of British officers to the laws, their violence towards the persons, and trespasses on the property, of the citizens of the United States, while they were enjoying all the means of resitment; the affair of the *Chesapeake* was noticed as a deed which transcended all that the Americans had seen or suffered, and brought their sensibilities to a crisis, and their forbearance to a pause. Hospitality, in such circumstances, ceased to be a duty; and all armed vessels of Great Britain were ordered immediately to quit the American harbours, and interdicted entrance into any of the ports of the United States. That a high tone of animation should have been assumed on this occasion, is by no means surprising, nor that interdiction should be considered necessary, in return for an aggression of such violence. The right of searching the ships

of war of neutral states, though formerly claimed by the British government, had been tacitly abandoned, and its exercise had latterly made no part of the instructions of British officers. With respect to the abstract question of such a right, if it attached to Great Britain, it might be presumed equally to belong to America; and, unless right was to be regulated by power, this reciprocity was indispensable. On the arrival in England of the first intelligence of the unfortunate affair of the *Chesapeake*, considerable surprise and regret were universally expressed; and ministers hesitated not to declare in parliament, their readiness to make every reparation for whatever might appear, on full and accurate information, an unauthorized act of hostility. In pursuance of this disposition, Admiral Berkeley was, not long afterwards, recalled from the American station; (62) and in a proclamation issued for recalling British seamen, it was stated, that force might, if necessary, be exercised for the recovering of deserters on board the merchant vessels of neutrals, but that, with respect to ships of war, a requisition only should be made to deliver up deserters; and on their refusal, information was to be given to the British ministers at the neutral courts, or to the British government at home. By this proclamation, the conduct of Admiral Berkeley was tacitly disavowed, and Mr. Rose, the son of the treasurer of the navy, was soon afterwards despatched on a special mission to America with overtures of conciliation.

Had the dispute between the two countries been confined to the question of impressing seamen, it is probable that an accommodation would have taken place; but it involved also the rights of American commerce. Ever since the breaking out of the present war, America had been made the medium of commerce between the colonies of France and the mother country. This trade, which now began to be considered as a species of war in disguise, was eminently advantageous to both countries, and some idea may be formed of its extent, when it is known, that in one year forty-five thousand hogsheads of sugar were introduced, in American bottoms, into the single port of Amsterdam. To terminate this connexion appeared an important object of policy with Great Britain; but the case involved questions of great delicacy, and demanded deep consideration. The inevitable consequences of a war with America, would be to cut

(60) The *Leopard* was rated as a 50 gun ship, and carried probably about 60 guns.

(61) Four seamen were taken out of the *Chesapeake*, all of whom were afterwards proved to be American citizens, who had been impressed into the British service, and had subsequently deserted from it. The loss on board the *Chesapeake* is incorrectly stated. Three only were killed, and seventeen wounded.

(62) Admiral Berkeley was, like Captain Whitby, only recalled to be promoted and appointed to another station.

off one of the most extensive and beneficial sources of British commerce. The exports of British manufactures to that country, were immense; and the growing population, and consequently increasing consumption, would every year enlarge its demand upon English industry and ingenuity. The enterprise of the trans-Atlantic merchants, was perpetually enlarging their connexions with distant markets, already opened to them, or discovering others still more remote, to which they conveyed the merchandise of Great Britain, pouring in return into her lap, both the price of the commodity and the profits of the voyage. All these advantages would not merely be put to hazard, but in many cases absolutely destroyed, by an appeal to arms.* The balance of property also, due from America to England, amounted, at this time, to at least eight millions sterling; and the mere suspension of the payment of this sum, would involve incalculable distresses. The ca-

* AMERICAN COMMERCE.

RETURN of the average IMPORTS of America, for the three years, 1802, 1803, 1804.

(From a Report made to Congress in 1806.)

Imports from the dominions of Great Britain,	18,093,000
from Holland, France, Spain, and Italy,	5,731,000
from northern powers, Prussia, Germany, and Portugal,	1,845,000
from China, and other native powers of Asia,	1,093,000
from all other countries,	188,000

Total amount of imports, 1,16,950,000

Of the annexed imports, manufactured goods of cotton, wool, silk, leather, glass, iron, paper, &c., constitute about 9,000,000. and come from the following countries:

The dominions of Great Britain,	16,845,000
Russia,	280,000
Germany, Sweden, and Denmark,	550,000
Holland,	255,000
France,	275,000
Spain, Portugal, and Italy,	270,000
China,	525,000
	19,000,000

EXPORTS from America, on an average of the same years.

(Collected from the same authority.)

Exported in domestic produce,	19,000,000
in foreign produce re-exported,	6,400,000

Total amount of exports, 1,15,400,000

American imports from Great Britain and her dependencies,	18,093,000
Exports to them,	5,200,000

Leaving a balance in our favour of 12,993,000

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lamity to which the West India islands themselves might be exposed, from a measure intended chiefly for their relief, was also an important consideration, as American hostility would certainly inflict on these colonies new and most formidable evils, by precluding those supplies of articles of the first necessity, which seemed incapable of being procured from any other quarter. The possible advantage of America, as a source of supply for timber and warlike stores, when the ports of the Baltic were likely to be shut against us, and even as a granary to Great Britain herself, was not to be overlooked. Considerations of this nature must, undoubtedly, have weighed with Mr. Pitt, to prevent the adoption of hostile measures against America: and his immediate successors in office were influenced by similar reasonings; even the publication of the Berlin decree, for blockading the British islands, could not prevail upon them to break off this circuitous connexion between France and her colonies, and thus expose England to the perils of a rupture with America; but, on the 7th of January, 1807, an order of council was issued, which prevented neutral vessels from trading from any port in the possession or under the control of the enemy. By this edict, the neutral trade, direct from neutral nations to the enemy's ports, received no molestation, though the neutral trade from one port of the enemy to another was prohibited. Although this order in council could be no matter of astonishment in America, after the promulgation of Bonaparte's decree, yet it was received with the most animated indignation. It was alleged, that as the British government was at war

The exports of America are distributed in the following manner:

To the dominions of Great Britain,	15,200,000
Viz In Europe,	13,525,000
Asia,	29,000
The West Indies,	1,458,000
North America,	188,000
To the dominions of all the other powers,	10,200,000

1,15,400,000

Thus, it appears, that the value of the importations from the dominions of Great Britain, are equal to that from all the countries of Europe and their colonies together; and notwithstanding European manufactured articles are admitted from all countries at the same rate of duties, and although the balance of trade is in favour of America with the continent, and against her with Great Britain, yet, that in the years referred to in these returns, which may be considered as a fair criterion of the state of the trade in general, France did not furnish one twenty-fourth part, and all Europe collectively, not one fourth part, of the amount imported from this country.

with nearly every nation on the Atlantic and Mediterranean Seas, American vessels were now required to sacrifice their cargoes in the first port at which they touched, or to return home without going to any other market; and that, under this new law of the ocean, the American trade must be swept away by seizure and confiscation.* But if the measures adopted by the late ministry called down the animadversions of the American government, the system of vigorous retaliation against France, and of consequent pressure upon the trade of neutrals, determined upon by the new ministry, was still less favourable to the hope of speedy accommodation. On the 11th of November, 1807, additional orders in council were issued by the court of St. James, by which every port of every country from which Great Britain was excluded, was declared to be in a state of blockade. All trade in the produce and manufactures of these countries, was pronounced illegal, and the vessels employed in such trade were liable to seizure. The documents granted by French agents in neutral ports, certifying that the cargoes were not of British produce or manufacture, were no longer to be allowed, and all neutral vessels in possession of them were to be seized wherever met. Thus was the trade along the coast of France and of her allies, in neutral vessels, completely prohibited; and, though the Americans might still freely trade with the enemy's colonies, for articles of their own consumption, the double restriction was imposed upon their intercourse between France and her colonies, of calling at a British port, and paying a British duty. The object of these restrictions, was, to burthen the enemy's produce with charges which would make it cost more than the same commodities imported into the continent by Great Britain, and thereby to afford relief to the West India merchants and planters.

What effect these edicts would produce in America, became immediately an interesting subject of consideration; and in the high-wrought resentment of that coun-

try against England, owing to the difficulties she had already thrown in the way of her commerce, and the recent indignity offered to her flag, it was imagined that the government would immediately decide on open hostility. The republicans, however, well aware of the ruinous consequences of war, determined on a middle course; and in order to avoid the losses and hostilities which were to be apprehended from the measures respectively adopted by England and France, Congress, on the 22d of December, resolved to lay a strict embargo on all the vessels of the United States. By this act, their own vessels were prohibited from departing from any of their ports; and ships from all other nations were commanded to quit the American harbours, with or without cargoes, as soon as the act was notified to them. With respect to the effects flowing from the embargo law towards England and France, there could be no doubt that both of them must suffer heavy loss and extreme inconvenience; yet, as the former carried on a much more extensive commercial connexion with America than the latter, the pressure upon the merchants of Great Britain would be infinitely more severe. The first impressions made by the intelligence of the embargo in this country, was a general feeling of alarm among commercial men; and the merchants of Liverpool, aware that this act of Congress proceeded from our orders in council, petitioned for their speedy removal, but parliament did not think proper to comply with their requests.*

Bonaparte, well aware that all restrictions upon commerce, would, from the situation and pursuits of England, fall upon this country with a much heavier pressure than upon France, felt no disposition to relax in this new species of warfare; and accordingly, on the 23d of November, a decree was issued from Milan, enacting "that all vessels which, after having touched at England, from any nation whatever, shall enter the ports of France, shall be seized and confiscated, as well as their cargoes, without exception or distinction of commodities or merchandise." This interdict was, on the 19th of the following month, followed by a rejoinder to the orders in council of the 11th of November, by which it was de-

* This was a misconception of the order in council of the 7th of January; American vessels might still proceed from one enemy's port to another, provided they had not come to entry, or broken bulk; † and Lord Howick, in an official note, dated the 17th of March, 1807, and addressed to Mr. Rist, the Danish minister, says, "It is not our intention that our orders should affect the general trade of neutrals; but only prevent the coasting trade of France and her dependencies, from being carried on by neutrals, as that species of trade is such as properly belongs to France herself, to which neutrals are to be considered as lending themselves unfairly."

† Explanation given by the king's advocate.

* The average trade of the town of Liverpool, from the year 1797 to 1807, amounted to 10,000,000*l.* annually; and in the year 1807, the amount of the trade with America exceeded half the whole amount of the trade of that port.†

† General Gascoigne's speech in the house of commons on the orders in council, March 3d, 1808.

clared, that every neutral which submitted to be searched by an English ship, or paid any duty whatsoever to the English government, should be considered as thereby *denationalized*, and having forfeited the protection of its own government, should in consequence be liable to seizure as a lawful prize by French ships of war. Neutral powers were thus placed between confiscation and confiscation. If they proceeded to a French port, without first paying a duty upon their cargoes in England, they were liable to be captured by British cruisers; and if they came to England and paid the duty, they then became subject to confiscation in the ports of the enemy. The case was one of extreme hardship; and in this country, where war had not obliterated all sense of moral obligation, and where a spirit of hostility had not entirely silenced the voice of discretion, the justice and the policy of the orders in council underwent a severe scrutiny, and called forth the most animated discussions.*

* ANTI-COMMERCIAL DECREES AND ORDERS
IN COUNCIL.

FRENCH.—BERLIN DECREE.

"From our Imperial Camp at Berlin, Nov. 21st, 1806.

"NAPOLEON, Emperor of the French, and King of Italy.

"Considering, 1. That England has ceased to observe the law of nations, recognised by all civilized states. 2. That she considers every individual as an enemy who belongs to a hostile state, and consequently makes prisoners, not merely the crews of ships of war, but also the crews of merchant vessels, and even the members of commercial factories, and persons connected with commerce, where employed in their mercantile affairs. 3. That she extends the rights of conquest to the cargo and commodities, and to the property of individuals; which right of conquest, however, ought only to be applicable to that which belongs to the hostile state. 4. That she extends her right of blockade to places not fortified, and to commercial ports, in bays, and the mouths of navigable rivers; which blockade, according to the principles and practice of all civilized nations, is applicable only to fortified places. That she considers a place in a state of blockade before which she has not even a single ship of war, although a place can be considered as blockaded only when it is so circumscribed in its communication that it is impossible to approach it without visible danger: That she even declares places in a state of blockade which, with her whole united strength, she would be unable effectually to blockade; for instance, whole coasts and whole kingdoms. 5. That this monstrous abuse of the right of blockade, has no other object than to impede the communication between nations, and to aggrandize the commerce and industry of England by the ruins of the commerce and industry of the continent. 6. That, as this is the object of England, all those who carry on traffic in English commodities upon the continent, by doing so, second her views and render them

By the advocates for these interdicts, it was urged, that previously to the publication of the British orders in council, France enjoyed, by the assistance of neu-

selfes her accomplices. 7. That this conduct of England, which is altogether worthy of the age of barbarism, has become advantageous to that power to the prejudice of every other. 8. That it is a right conferred by nature to oppose to an enemy the weapons he employs against you, and to fight against him in the same manner in which he attacks, and that this principle is recognised by all ideas of justice, and by all liberal sentiments, the result of that civilization by which societies are distinguished.

"We therefore determine to employ against England those principles which she has adopted in her maritime code. The consequence of the present decree shall be considered as fixed fundamental laws of the empire, so long as England refuses to acknowledge one and the same law as applicable both to sea and land; till she ceases to consider private property, be it what it may, a good prize; till she ceases to extend to the persons of individuals who are not engaged in military operations the principles by which she at present treats them as prisoners of war; and until she shall apply the rights of blockade only to those places which she has a force fully adequate to cut off from communication. We have therefore decreed, and do decree as follows:—

Article I. "The British islands are declared to be in a state of blockade.

II. "All commerce and all correspondence with the British isles are prohibited.

III. "The letters or packets which are addressed to England, or to Englishmen, or which are written in the English language, shall not be forwarded by the posts, and shall be taken away.

IV. "Every individual who is an English subject, of whatever condition he be, who is found in the countries occupied by our troops or those of our allies, shall be made prisoner of war.

V. "Every magazine, every commodity, every article of property, of whatever sort, which belongs to an English subject, shall be declared good prize.

VI. "The trade in English commodities is prohibited, and every article which belongs to England, or is the produce of her manufactures and colonies, is declared good prize.

VII. "The half of the proceeds of the confiscation of the articles, property, and goods, declared good prize by the preceding article, will be employed to indemnify the merchants for the losses which they suffer by the capture of trading vessels seized by the English cruisers.

VIII. "No ship which comes direct from England, or the English colonies, or has been there after the publication of the present decree, shall be admitted into any harbour.

IX. "Every ship which trades with a false declaration, in contravention of the above principles, shall be seized, and the ship and cargo confiscated as if they were English property.

X. "Our prize court at Paris is invested with power definitively to settle all disputes which may arise in our empire, or in the countries occupied by the French armies, in regard to the execution of the present decree. Moreover, our prize court at Milan is invested with full power finally to decide all disputes which may arise within the dominions of our kingdom of Italy.

XI. "The present decree shall be communicated to the King of Spain, of Naples, of Holland,

trials, as many advantages of trade as were possessed by England with her triumphant navy. That navy, indeed, as far as trade was concerned, was neutralized and ren-

dered useless, by neutral ships carrying to France, Spain, and Holland, the produce of their colonies, and all that it was important for them to obtain from distant

other such port, to discontinue her voyage, and not to proceed to any such port; and any vessel, after being so warned, or any vessel coming from any such port, after a reasonable time shall have been afforded for receiving information of this his majesty's order, which shall be found proceeding to another such port, shall be captured and brought in, and, together with her cargo, shall be condemned as lawful prize: and his majesty's principal secretaries of state, the lords commissioners of the admiralty, and the judges of the high court of admiralty and courts of vice-admiralty, are to take the necessary measures herein as to them shall respectively appear.

XII. "Our ministers of foreign affairs, of war, of marine, of finance, of police, and our postmasters-general, each of them, in as far as concerns his department, is intrusted with the execution of the decree.

(Signed)

"NAPOLEON."

Subsequent to the publication of the above interdiction, and in aid of its provisions, it was decreed, "That all neutral vessels coming into any port in France, or her dependencies, should bring with them a '*certificate of origin*': being a declaration, under the hand of the French consul at the place of shipment, that the cargo was not of British produce or manufacture; and that all vessels met at sea without such certificate, should be liable to capture."

ENGLISH.—ORDER IN COUNCIL.

At the Court at the Queen's Palace, January 7th, 1807; Present, the King's most excellent majesty, in council.

"Whereas the French government has issued certain orders, which, in violation of the usages of war, purport to prohibit the commerce of all neutral nations with his majesty's dominions, and also to prevent such nations from trading with any other country, in any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of his majesty's dominions; and whereas the said government has also taken upon itself to declare all his majesty's dominions to be in a state of blockade, at a time when the fleets of France and her allies are themselves confined within their own ports by the superior valour and discipline of the British navy; and whereas such attempts on the part of the enemy would give to his majesty an unquestionable right of retaliation, and would warrant his majesty in enforcing the same prohibition of all commerce with France, which that power vainly hopes to effect against the commerce of his majesty's subjects; a prohibition which the superiority of his majesty's naval forces might enable him to support, by actually investing the ports and coasts of the enemy with numerous squadrons and cruisers, so as to make the entrance or approach thereto manifestly dangerous; and whereas his majesty, though unwilling to follow the example of his enemies, by proceeding to an extremity so distressing to all nations not engaged in the war, and carrying on their accustomed trade, yet feels himself bound, by a due regard to the just defence of the rights and interests of his people, not to suffer such measures to be taken by the enemy, without taking some steps on his part to restrain this violence, and to retort upon them the evils of their own injustice; his majesty is thereupon pleased, by and with the advice of his privy council, to order, and it is hereby ordered, that no vessel shall be permitted to trade from one port to another, both which ports shall belong to, or be in the possession of France or her allies, or shall be so far under their control, as that British vessels may not freely trade thereat; and the commanders of his majesty's ships of war and privateers shall be and are hereby instructed to warn every neutral vessel coming from any such port, and destined to an-

dered useless, by neutral ships carrying to France, Spain, and Holland, the produce of their colonies, and all that it was important for them to obtain from distant

other such port, to discontinue her voyage, and not to proceed to any such port; and any vessel, after being so warned, or any vessel coming from any such port, after a reasonable time shall have been afforded for receiving information of this his majesty's order, which shall be found proceeding to another such port, shall be captured and brought in, and, together with her cargo, shall be condemned as lawful prize: and his majesty's principal secretaries of state, the lords commissioners of the admiralty, and the judges of the high court of admiralty and courts of vice-admiralty, are to take the necessary measures herein as to them shall respectively appear.

(Signed)

"WM. FAWKENER."

ORDER IN COUNCIL.

At the Court at the Queen's Palace, November 11th, 1807; Present, the King's most excellent majesty, in council.

"Whereas certain orders, establishing an unprecedented system of warfare against this kingdom, and aimed especially at the destruction of its commerce and resources, were some time since issued by the government of France, by which 'the British islands were declared to be in a state of blockade,' thereby subjecting to capture and condemnation all vessels, with their cargoes, which should continue to trade with his majesty's dominions:—And whereas, by the same orders, 'all trading in English merchandise is prohibited; and every article of merchandise belonging to England, or coming from her colonies, or of her manufacture, is declared lawful prize':—And whereas the nations in alliance with France, and under her control, were required to give, and have given, and do give, effect to such orders:—And whereas his majesty's order of the 7th of January last has not answered the desired purpose, either of compelling the enemy to recall those orders, or of inducing neutral nations to interpose with effect, to obtain their revocation; but, on the contrary, the same have been recently enforced with increased vigour:—And whereas his majesty, under these circumstances, finds himself compelled to take further measures for asserting and vindicating his just rights, and for supporting that maritime power which the exertions and the valour of his people have, under the blessing of Providence, enabled him to establish and maintain; and the maintenance of which is not more essential to the safety and prosperity of his majesty's dominions, than it is to the protection of such states as still retain their independence, and to the general intercourse and happiness of mankind:—His majesty is therefore pleased, by and with the advice of his privy council, to order, and it is hereby ordered, that all the ports and places of France and her allies, or of any other country at war with his majesty, and all other ports or places in Europe, from which, although not at war with his majesty, the British flag is excluded, and all ports and places in the colonies belonging to his majesty's enemies, shall from henceforth be subject to the same restrictions, in point of trade and navigation, with the exceptions hereinafter mentioned, as if the same were actually blockaded by his majesty's naval forces, in the most strict and rigorous manner: and it is hereby further ordered and declared, that all trade in articles which are of the produce or manufacture of the said countries or colonies, shall be

regions.* This had long been the case, and it became a matter of grave deliberation, whether we ought not, even before the promulgation of the Berlin decree, to

have resorted to the rule of the war of 1756; which declared, that a neutral had no right to carry on, in time of war, a trade prohibited to him in time of peace.

deemed and considered to be unlawful; and that every vessel trading from or to the said countries or colonies, together with all goods and merchandise on board, and all articles of the produce or manufacture of the said countries or colonies, shall be captured and condemned as prize to the captors. But although his majesty would be fully justified, by the circumstances and considerations above recited, in establishing such system of restrictions, with respect to all the countries and colonies of his enemies, without exception or qualification; yet his majesty being nevertheless desirous not to subject neutrals to any greater inconvenience than is absolutely inseparable from the carrying into effect his majesty's just determination to counteract the designs of his enemies, and to retort upon his enemies themselves the consequences of their own violence and injustice; and being yet willing to hope that it may be possible (consistently with that object) still to allow to neutrals the opportunity of furnishing themselves with colonial produce for their own consumption and supply; and even to leave open, for the present, such trade with his majesty's enemies as shall be carried on directly with the ports of his majesty's dominions, or of his allies, in the manner hereinafter mentioned:—

“His majesty is therefore pleased further to order, and it is hereby ordered, that nothing herein contained shall extend to subject to capture or condemnation any vessel, or the cargo of any vessel, belonging to any country not declared by this order to be subjected to the restrictions incident to a state of blockade, which shall have cleared out with such cargo from some port or place of the country to which she belongs, either in Europe or America, or from some free port in his majesty's colonies, under circumstances in which such trade from such free port is permitted, direct to some port or place in the colonies of his majesty's enemies, or from those colonies direct to the country to which such vessel belongs, or to some free port in his majesty's colonies, in such cases, and with such articles, as it may be unlawful to import into such free port: nor to any vessel, or the cargo of any vessel, belonging to any country not at war with his majesty, which shall have cleared out from some port or place in this kingdom, or from Gibraltar or Malta, under such regulations as his majesty may think fit to prescribe, or from any port belonging to his majesty's allies, and shall be proceeding direct to the port specified in her clearance:—nor to any vessel, or the cargo of any vessel, belonging to any country not at war with his majesty, which shall be coming from any port or place in Europe which is declared by this order to be subject to the restrictions incident to a state of blockade, destined to some port or place in Europe belonging to his majesty, and which shall be on her voyage direct thereto: but these exceptions are not to be understood as exempting from capture or confiscation any vessel or goods which shall be liable thereto in respect of having entered or departed from any port or place actually blockaded by his majesty's squadrons or ships of war, or for being enemies' property, or for any other cause than the contravention of this present order.

“And the commanders of his majesty's ships

* War in Disguise

of war and privateers, and other vessels acting under his majesty's commission, shall be, and are hereby instructed to warn every vessel which shall have commenced her voyage prior to any notice of this order, and shall be destined to any port of France, or of her allies, or of any other country at war with his majesty, or to any port or place from which the British flag as aforesaid is excluded, or to any colony belonging to his majesty's enemies, and which shall not have cleared out as is hereinbefore allowed, to discontinue her voyage, and to proceed to some port or place in this kingdom, or to Gibraltar or Malta; and any vessel, which, after having been so warned, or after a reasonable time shall have been afforded for the arrival of information of this his majesty's order at any port or place from which she sailed, or which, after having notice of this order, shall be found in the prosecution of any voyage contrary to the restrictions contained in this order, shall be captured, and, together with her cargo, condemned as lawful prize to the captors.—

“And whereas countries, not engaged in the war, have acquiesced in the orders of France, prohibiting all trade in any articles the produce or manufacture of his majesty's dominions; and the merchants of those countries have given countenance and effect to those prohibitions, by accepting from persons styling themselves commercial agents of the enemy, resident at neutral ports, certain documents, termed ‘Certificates of Origin,’ being certificates obtained at the ports of shipment, declaring that the articles of the cargo are not of the produce or manufacture of his majesty's dominions; or to that effect:—And whereas this expedient has been directed by France, and submitted to by such merchants, as part of the new system of warfare directed against the trade of this kingdom, and as the most effectual instrument of accomplishing the same, and it is therefore essentially necessary to resist it:—His majesty is therefore pleased, by and with the advice of his privy council, to order, and it is hereby ordered, That if any vessel, after reasonable time shall have been afforded for receiving notice of this his majesty's order at the port or place from which such vessel shall have cleared out, shall be found carrying any such certificate or document as aforesaid, or any document referring to or authenticating the same, such vessel shall be adjudged lawful prize to the captor, together with the goods laden therein, belonging to the person or persons by whom, or on whose behalf, any such document was put on board.—And the right honourable the lords commissioners of his majesty's treasury, his majesty's principal secretaries of state, the lords commissioners of the admiralty and the judges of the high court of admiralty and courts of vice-admiralty are to take the necessary measures herein as to them shall respectively appertain.

(Signed)

“WM. FAWKENER.”

Two other orders in council were issued on the 11th of November, 1807, by the former of which the future sale and transfer of enemies' vessels to the subjects of a neutral country, was declared invalid; and by the latter, the goods of those countries from which the British flag was excluded were allowed to be imported by neutrals into England.

It was well known that French houses were established in America, to facilitate the trade with her colonies; and it was from these houses that the late groundless

outcry against Great Britain proceeded. It was also ascertained that the import trade of America amounted annually to one hundred and four millions of dollars,

The following analysis of the orders in council was given by the English Board of Trade to the American merchants:—

"All trade directly from America to every port and country of Europe at war with Great Britain, or from which the British flag is excluded, is totally prohibited. The trade from America to the colonies of all nations, remain unaltered by the present orders. America may export the produce of her own country, but that of no other, directly to Sweden. With the above exception, all articles, whether of domestic or colonial produce, exported by America to Europe, must be landed in England, and can be re-exported only on payment of certain duties to the British government—with an exception in favour of such articles as are actually the produce of the United States (cotton excepted). Any vessel, the cargo whereof shall be accompanied with certificates of French consuls abroad of its origin (called certificates of origin), shall, together with the cargo, be liable to seizure and condemnation."

§ These orders speak of neutrals generally, but as all the maritime powers of Europe (Sweden excepted) were, at the time they were promulgated, at war with England, they were in effect applicable only to America.

[One of the most striking features of the Wars of the French Revolution, is to be found in the code of commercial interdiction, contained in the French decrees and the British orders in council; and, in order that a clear and comprehensive view may be taken of the nature of a species of warfare, so oppressive towards the subjects of belligerent states, and so unjust towards neutrals, the above documents are given entire.]

FRENCH.

MILAN DECREE—FIRST.

"Milan, November 23d, 1807.

"NAPOLEON, Emperor of the French, King of Italy, and Protector of the Confederation of the Rhine.

"Upon the report of our minister of the finances, we have decreed and do decree as follows:—

I. "All vessels which, after having touched at England, from any motive whatever, shall enter the ports of France, shall be seized and confiscated, as well as their cargoes, without exception or distinction of commodities or merchandise.

II. "The captains of vessels who shall enter the ports of France, shall, on the day of their arrival, proceed to the office of the imperial customs, and there make a declaration of the place from which they sailed, of the ports they have put into, and exhibit their manifests, bills of lading, sea papers, and log-books. When the captain shall have signed and delivered his declaration, and communicated his papers, the head officer of the customs shall interrogate the sailors separately, in the presence of two overseers. If it results from this examination that the vessel has touched at England, independent of the seizure and confiscation of the said ship and cargo, the captain, as well as those sailors who, upon examinations, shall have made a false declaration, shall be deemed prisoners, and shall not be set at

liberty until having paid the sum of 60,000 francs, as a personal penalty for the captain, and 500 francs for each of the sailors so arrested, over and above the pains incurred by those who falsify their papers and log-books.

III. "If advice or information, communicated to the directors of our customs, give rise to any suspicions as to the origin of the cargoes, they shall be provisionally warehoused until it is ascertained and decided that they do not come from England or her colonies.

IV. "Our commissaries for commercial relations, who deliver certificates of origin for merchandise laden in the ports of their residence destined for that of France, shall not confine themselves to an attestation that the merchandise or commodities do not come from England, or her colonies, or commerce; they shall indicate the place of origin, the documents which have been laid before them in support of the declaration which has been made to them, and the name of the ship on board of which they have been primarily transported from the place of origin into that of their residence.

(Signed)

"NAPOLEON."

MILAN DECREE—SECOND.

Milan, December 17th, 1807.

"NAPOLEON, Emperor of the French, King of Italy, and Protector of the Confederation of the Rhine.

"Observing the measures adopted by the British government, on the 11th of November last, by which vessels belonging to neutral, friendly, or even powers the allies of England, are made liable, not only to be searched by English cruisers, but to be compulsorily detained in England, and to have a tax laid on them of so much per cent. on the cargo, to be regulated by the British legislature—Observing that by these acts the British government denationalizes ships of every nation in Europe, that it is not competent for any government to detract from its own independence and rights, all the sovereigns of Europe having in trust the sovereignties and independence of the flag; and if, by an unpardonable weakness, and which, in the eyes of posterity, would be an indelible stain, such a tyranny were allowed to be established into principle, and consecrated by usage, the English would avail themselves of it to assert it as a right, as they have availed themselves of the tolerance of governments to establish the infamous principle, that the flag of a nation does not cover goods, and to give to their right of blockade an arbitrary extension, and which infringes the sovereignty of every state; we have decreed and do decree as follows:—

I. "Every ship, to whatever nation it may belong, that shall have submitted to be searched by an English ship, or to a voyage to England, or that shall have paid any tax whatsoever to the English government, is thereby, and for that alone, declared to be denationalized, to have forfeited the protection of its king, and to have become English property.

II. "Whether the ships thus denationalized by the arbitrary measures of the English government, enter into our ports, or those of our allies,

seven millions of which were gained by France.* As to the justice of our orders in council, America, as a neutral, must be well aware that they were merely retaliatory, provoked by the decrees of the enemy, and carrying within them their own justification.† Now that the peace of Tilsit had established the influence of France on the continent, the prohibition of British trade would be universally enforced; and unless some principles of retaliation were adopted on our part, England would be compelled to submit to such terms of peace as France might be disposed to dictate; but if, by our retaliation, France should be deprived of many of the articles of daily consumption, the subjects of that country would, in a little time, be forced to become the violators of

or whether they fall into the hands of our ships of war, or of our privateers, they are declared to be good and lawful prizes.

III. "The British islands are declared to be in a state of blockade, both by land and sea. Every ship, of whatever nation, or whatsoever the nature of its cargo may be, that sails from the ports of England, or those of the English colonies, and of the countries occupied by English troops, and proceeding to England, or to the English colonies, or to the countries occupied by English troops, is good and lawful prize, as contrary to the present decree; and may be captured by our ships of war or our privateers, and adjudged to the captor.

IV. "These measures, which are resorted to only in just retaliation of the barbarous system adopted by England, which assimilates its legislation to that of Algiers, shall cease to have any effect with respect to all nations who shall have the firmness to compel the English government to respect their flag. They shall continue to be rigorously in force as long as that government does not return to the principle of the law of nations, which regulates the relations of civilized states in a state of war. The provisions of the present decree shall be abrogated and null, in fact, as soon as the English abide again by the principles of the law of nations, which are also the principles of justice and honour.—All our ministers are charged with the execution of the present decree, which shall be inserted in the Bulletin of the Laws.

(Signed)

"NAPOLEON."

Another decree, dated at Paris, on the 11th of January, 1808, directs, "That when a vessel shall enter into a French port, or in that of any country occupied by the French armies, any man of the crew, or any passenger, who shall declare to the principal of the custom house, that the said ship came from England, or her colonies, or from any country occupied by English troops, or that it has been visited by an English vessel, shall, on proof of his declaration, receive a third part of the produce of the neat sale of the ship and cargo." And "any functionary or agent of the government, who shall be convicted of having favoured the contravention of the Milan decrees of the 23d of November and the 17th of December, 1807, shall be adjudged guilty of high-treason."

* Earl Bathurst.

† Lord Hawkesbury.

the prohibitions of their own government. It was the anxious wish of his majesty's government, to preserve peace with America; her prosperity was the prosperity of Great Britain.* But it must be recollected, that in all engagements, expressed or implied, between belligerents and neutrals, there were neutral duties, as well as neutral rights, and that belligerents had direct obligations towards themselves, as well as collateral obligations towards their neighbours. If a neutral power allowed its territory to be violated by one belligerent, it was bound to allow an equal latitude to an opposite belligerent. The same principle held at sea, and if America submitted to the intervention of France, a similar intervention should be permitted to England.† When the French directory, in 1798, published a decree similar to the edict lately issued at Berlin, it was immediately denounced in the Congress by the American president, as a violation of the rights and independence of the American states; but on the present occasion the president had taken no such step, though it was a well ascertained fact, that an American vessel had been captured under the operation of the Berlin decree. There was no contract without a reciprocal obligation, and if neutrals did not oblige France to adhere to the law of nations, they could not complain of England, if her adherence to that law was less strict than usual. The orders in council only declared the ports of France and her allies to be in a state of blockade, and their produce contraband of war; and France had done the same by this country. The French certificates of origin, by prohibiting neutrals from carrying British goods, violated the law of nations, and neutrals, by thus admitting France to legislate for them, had made themselves the instruments of France against Great Britain.‡ As to the policy of the orders in council, we must use the same weapons against France that she wielded against this country; and the nation must not perish, because the measures which were necessary for its preservation might press upon neutral commerce, which Bonaparte had not hesitated to violate.§ The orders in council, though not intended as a measure of finance, would levy a contribution upon the enemy; and since the continent must have colonial produce, it was a wise and politic measure, to constrain them to receive it only through our ports, at the

* Mr. Rose and Lord Castlereagh.

† Sir John Nichol, the advocate-general.

‡ Sir William Scott.

§ The lord chancellor.

price we might think proper to fix upon it. The question was now reduced to this—are we to be conquered by France or not? Bonaparte had essayed his military warfare against us ineffectually, and was now to try the success of a commercial warfare.

Such were the arguments by which the orders in council were supported, and such the views of those who put this new engine of hostility in motion. It was, on the other hand, contended, that these measures of retaliation were neither just nor expedient—just towards neutrals, nor expedient as regarded the true interests of this country. The first feature of this war on trade went nearly to annihilate the commerce of neutrals, and the inevitable tendency of the second must be to circumscribe our own. The defence offered for this measure, was, that our blockade was but a retaliation of that which had been imposed by the enemy; and that neutrals, having submitted to the one, had no right to complain of the other. In assuming that America had acquiesced in the orders of France, and submitted to this new system of war, a fact was taken for granted that had no existence. General Armstrong, the American minister at Paris, on the appearance of the Berlin decree, felt it his duty to call for an explanation of that document; in answer to which inquiry he was informed by M. Decres, the French minister of marine and of the colonies, under date of the 24th of December, 1806, “That an American vessel cannot be taken at sea from the mere reason that she is going to or coming from a port of England,” and “that the imperial decree lately passed was not to affect American commerce, which would still be governed by the rules of the treaty established between France and America.” The fact, however, which seemed to set at rest the question of the execution of the Berlin decree, previous to the issuing of our orders in council, was this, that so late as the 18th of October, 1807, Messrs. Monroe and Pinkney, the American residents in London, communicated to the English secretary of state the construction which France had given to that decree, and officially assured him that the practice had been in conformity to that construction. Nor was this all; the matter did not rest on the authority of public papers, or assertions, or admissions, on one side or on the other. It was ascertained by facts public and notorious, and by evidence laid before the legislature; and so far was America from acquiescing in this order of blockade, that she did not limit or disguise her trade with this country, but up to the very date of our orders in council of November 11th,

1807, she went on from day to day increasing that trade in the sight of the whole world. Instead of acquiescing in the order of blockade, it was manifest that America utterly disregarded it. It was equally certain that France never resented this resistance of her order by America and that her last solemn and boastful decrees, as far as they respected neutrals, fell into the same neglect as those that had gone before them. All this time neutral vessels were publicly and regularly chartered on voyages from this country to the continent of Europe; the price of articles of our colonial produce and home manufacture continued unaltered in the continental markets; and the rate of insurance on such voyages did not experience the least advance in consequence of the Berlin decree, but remained precisely at the point where it had stood formerly, till our orders in council raised it so high as to put an end to the trade altogether.* These observations apply to the justice of the orders in council: as to their policy or expediency, it has already been stated, that on an average of the three years preceding 1805, the United States had imported annually from Great Britain and her dependencies to the value of upwards of eight millions sterling, while their exports to Great Britain scarcely exceeded five millions for each of those years. For the three years next after 1804, the average exported to America was upwards of ten millions, and not more than four millions and a half was received in our ports from that country. The inevitable effect of the orders in council would be, to reduce our American trade from ten millions annually to something a little above four. The degree of misery and impoverishment produced by throwing two-thirds of the articles destined for exportation to the United States, back on the hands of thousands, and turning out of employment the capital and the workmen occupied in providing them, may be conceived by those who are aware of the delicate balance on which commercial prosperity is suspended. The risk of permanently losing the market of America, by a temporary suspension of our trade with that country, and the possibility, not to say probability, of involving the two countries in a state of actual war, were considerations that pressed heavy on the minds of the British merchant and manufacturer; while the politician was well aware that the enemy must suffer much less from this system of commercial proscription than ourselves.

* Evidence laid before parliament by the London and Liverpool petitioners.

CHAPTER V.

FOREIGN HISTORY.—State of France—The Code of Conscription—The Emperor's Address to the Assemblies—Territorial Changes in Holland—State of Portugal—Threats of French Invasion held out to the Court of Lisbon—Removal of the British Settlers—Emigration of the Court to the Brazils—Entrance of the French army into Lisbon—Situation of Spain—Conspiracy against the King by his Son—Secret Treaty for the Partition of the Kingdom of Portugal—Introduction of a French Force into Spain—Abdication of Charles IV.—The Royal Family of Spain allured to Bayonne to meet the Emperor Napoleon—Intrigues at that Place—Abdication of Charles and Ferdinand in favour of Bonaparte—Insurrection at Madrid—Prostration of Spain at the feet of the Invaders.

WHILE Bonaparte was pursuing his conquests on the banks of the Vistula and the Niemen, the tranquillity of France experienced not the slightest interruption. No disposition appears to have been manifested to cabal and party in the higher orders of society, or of sedition or insurrection in the lower classes. The military glory of the "great nation" covered from the view those embarrassments and distresses which were inevitably occasioned by protracted hostility, even amidst all the splendour of conquest; and the conscript laws, the least popular, but the most efficient part of Bonaparte's policy, had in a great degree lost their terrors, and were acquiesced in, as necessary to the external security or the unexampled renown of the empire. In the month of March, 1807, a message was communicated to the senate by Regnaud St. Jean D'Angely, in the delivery of which the orator of government shed tears of sorrow, while he announced the necessity of anticipating the conscription of 1808. This order for the anticipated conscription, however, did not require that the recruits should, as on former occasions, immediately repair to the armies, but permitted them to be trained and disciplined for six months within the frontiers of France. Thus sedulously attentive was Bonaparte to that instrument of his triumphs and elevation—a numerous and highly disciplined army; and, while he possessed a standing force such as Europe never before witnessed, his anxiety was continually displayed to secure for this engine of conquest a permanent supply.*

* *The Code of Conscription.*—France, at the time now under consideration, was divided into thirty military governments, each of which was subject to a general of division and his staff, to which commissaries were attached as executive officers. The civil division consisted of one hundred and twenty-two departments—twenty-four of which had been acquired since the overthrow of the monarchy, exclusive of Tuscany. The departments were divided into districts or *arrondissements*, the districts into cantons, and the cantons into municipalities—amounting to about fifty-five thousand. Each department was governed by a prefect and his council, composed of a commissary of police, a mayor, and certain inspectors, denominated counsellors of prefecture; the district, by a sub-prefect and his council, of a similar

No sooner were the objects of the imperial interviews at Tilsit accomplished, than Bonaparte proceeded to Paris, where his arrival was anticipated with all the

formation; the cantons and municipalities were under the supervision of an administration, composed of the civil authorities, with a president at their head; and a mayor, a commissary of police, and two officers of the government, styled *adjuncts*, were allotted to every division having a population above five thousand souls.* These several authorities, standing in strict subordination to each other, were at the control of the prefects and sub-prefects; who, themselves, were charged with a weighty and inflexible responsibility as to the military levies. The conscription was first published in the form of a general law by the council of ancients, in the year 1798, and subsequently underwent some slight modification. The directorial plan is attributed to Carnot. The law by which the whole number of conscripts was limited, regulated at the same time the contingent of each department, proportionally to its population. Within eight days after publication, the prefect distributed the contingent among the districts, by the same rule; and the sub-prefect among the cantons and municipalities. All Frenchmen between the full age of twenty and twenty-five complete, were liable to the conscription. They were each year thrown into five classes; the first of which consisted of those who had completed their twentieth year, on the 16th of September preceding; the second, of those who at the same period had terminated their twenty-first year, and so on in the order of seniority. Eight days were allowed for the preparation of lists; the conscripts were then assembled in each canton, and examined by the administration, or by a special commission created by the prefect. By these meetings all pleas of exemption were scrutinized; but the final decision of all doubtful cases was referred to a commission of higher resort. The claims being disposed of, lists were then formed of those who were adjudged competent to serve, whether present or absent; and the sub-prefect proceeded to the drawing, or designation by lot, of such as were to constitute the *quota* of the district. Tickets regularly numbered, to the amount of the names on the lists, were then publicly deposited in an urn, and indiscriminately drawn out by the conscripts or their friends, the lot falling upon those who drew the number below the amount of the *quota*. The higher numbers drawn by the rest were annexed to their names, that they might be forthcoming in their order, should any casualty disable their predecessors. Absentees not presenting themselves within a month after the drawing, were declared *refractory*, proclaimed throughout the empire, and pursued as deserters. These

* Peuchet, *Statistique de la France*, 1807.

ardour of curiosity, and hailed with every demonstration of satisfaction. The birthday of the emperor was this year celebrated with peculiar distinction; and a grand *fete*

were the conscripts of "active service;" but besides these, the law required an equal number to form the "conscription of reserve." The members of the reserve were nominated with the same formalities, to march only in case of emergency, but regularly organized, and carefully disciplined within their own department, from which they were not suffered to absent themselves. A third body was then created of "supplemental conscripts," equal in number to one-fourth of the whole contingent, and destined to fill up the vacancies which might be occasioned, before junction at head-quarters, by death, desertion, or other causes. No Frenchman under the age of thirty could travel through the empire, or hold any situation under government, or serve in any public office, without the production of a certificate, duly authenticated, attesting that he had discharged his liability to the conscription. All the authorities were bound, under the severest sanctions, to observe that the conscripts were assembled, reviewed, and dismissed to their destinations without delay. They marched, under an escort of gendarmes,* and in bodies strictly limited to the number of one hundred, to various quarters or depots, through the empire, and were there first supplied with arms and clothing. No exemptions were originally allowed to the law of "active service," but by the modifications subsequently introduced, the eldest brother of an orphan family, the only son of a widow, or of a labourer, above the age of seventy, or of one who might have a brother in the active service, might, on solicitation, be transferred to the reserve. Parents continued responsible for their absent children, until they could produce an official attestation of their death. The directory admitted of no substitutes; but the severity of this principle was relaxed by Napoleon in favour of such as were adjudged "incapable of sustaining the fatigues;" or "whose labours and studies were deemed more useful to the state, than their military services." Persons of this description were allowed to find a substitute, for which more than two hundred pounds sterling was frequently given. The proxy was to be between the age of twenty-five and forty, of the middle size at least, of robust constitution, of good character, and beyond the reach of the conscription laws. All the exacting clauses of this system were fortified by heavy denunciations against public functionaries, parents, or others, who should contribute to defeat or to retard its operation. Conscripts detected in counterfeiting infirmities, or mutilating themselves, were placed at the disposal of the government for five years, to be employed in such labours as might be judged most useful to the state. Absentees, or refractory conscripts, were amerced in a sum of fifteen hundred francs, together with the expense incurred in the pursuit, which was levied inexorably on the real property of the father or mother, should the fugitive possess none in his own right. Every conscript absenting himself for twenty-four hours from his depot, became liable to be punished as a deserter. A special council of war decided upon the cases of desertion; and the penalties were, first, death; second, the punishment of the ball; and third, public or hard labour. Death

* A species of armed constables, about sixteen thousand in number.—*Peuchet*.

took place, in which ingenuity exhausted itself in endless devices expressive of gratitude and admiration. On the following day, the legislative body and the tribunate were assembled in the usual forms; on which occasion the emperor in his address observed, that since their last meeting, new wars, new triumphs, and new treaties, had changed the political relations of Europe; that the house of Brandenburg, which was the first to combine against the independence of France, was permitted to reign only through the friendship of the powerful emperor of the north; that a French prince would speedily reign on the Elbe; that the house of Saxony had regained the independence it had lost for fifty years; that the inhabitants of the dutchy of Warsaw and Dantzic had recovered their country; and that all nations concurred in joy at the extinction of the pernicious influence of England on the continent. By the confederation of the Rhine, France was united with Germany; and by her own peculiar system of federation, she was united with Spain, Holland, Switzerland, and Italy. Her new relations with Russia were founded on the mutual esteem of two great nations. The emperor wished for peace by sea, and would never suffer any irritation to influence his decisions on this subject; there could indeed be no room for irritation against a people, the sport and victim of the parties which devoured them, and which was misled as much with respect to the affairs of other nations as to their own. The tranquillity and order of the French nation, during his absence, had excited his ardent gratitude. He had contrived the means of simplifying their institutions;

was inflicted on the deserter to the enemy, and on those who, in deserting from the punishment of the ball, carried off their own arms, or those of their comrades; the punishment of the ball, on such deserters as escape into the interior of the empire with their uniforms or with the effects of another; and hard labour for three years on the mere deserter. A person under the punishment of the ball, had an iron ball, of eight pounds weight, fastened to an iron chain seven feet in length, attached to his leg. He, in the first instance, heard his sentence read on his knees, and was condemned to hard labour during ten hours daily, being in the interval of rest chained in solitary confinement. The duration of this punishment, which was ten years, was prolonged, and an additional ball fettered to the leg, in case of contumacy or serious disobedience.* By the operation of the law of conscription, the levies raised for the French army exceeded 100,000 annually—constituting a drain of one seventieth part of the whole male population between twenty and forty years of age.

* See "Code de la Conscription," and Edinburgh Review, vol. xiii. p. 427.

he had extended the principle on which had been founded the legion of honour: the finances were prosperous; the contributions on land were diminished; various public works had been completed; and it was his resolution, that in the remotest parts of the empire, and even in the smallest hamlet, the comfort of the citizen, and the value of the land, should be increased by the developement of a general system of improvement. On the same day, the report on the state of the empire was delivered, and, while the government orator detailed the internal improvements which had taken place with the usual pomp and minuteness, he announced, that it was the wish of the emperor, that henceforth there should be no sects among the learned, and no political parties in the state.

The details contained in these documents, undoubtedly presented circumstances well calculated to excite congratulation, and among the most prominent of these was that external security which France enjoyed after one of the most protracted and bloody conflicts recorded in history. Many of the internal regulations specified, were calculated for public happiness, and displayed a laudable attention to domestic policy, amidst the anxieties and embarrassments of foreign war. The simplification of political institutions alluded to in the emperor's address, consisted particularly in an absorption of the tribunate in the legislative body, which was speedily accomplished after this intimation. The tone of compassion towards England, "the sport and victim of parties," was so far interesting that it was calculated to amuse. By this imbecile and pitiful nation, France had been baffled in her menaces of invasion; her commerce had been annihilated; her navy swept from the ocean; and though her range through the different kingdoms of the continent had not then been arrested, she found in her conquests only a more extended prison. But not the least important passage in these papers was, the expression of the imperial desire that there should be no sects among the learned, and no parties in the state. Such has ever been the cant of despotism. The most interesting questions were henceforth to present but one view, and to admit but one comment. Those collisions of opinion, which have marked all preceding ages, were, at the behest of the conqueror, to be superseded by an influx of light, which was to penetrate all minds, and dissipate all error. Unless this marvellous irradiation could be accomplished, the extinction of parties could only be effected by the prevention of discussion. It was therefore against

discussion that the blow was levelled. Party might be fatal to tyranny. Hence that denunciation of political communications, under the invidious designation of party and faction. The animation of debate is apt to interrupt the tranquillity of despotism, and the recommended exclusion of party is the torpid acquiescence of slaves.

In the territory of Holland a change took place soon after the arrangements at Tilsit. The strong fortresses of the Maese, to its discharge into the sea, were taken within the limits of France, and in return for this diminution of security, Holland was obliged to acquiesce in an accession of territory from the conquered dominions of Prussia.

The close of the present year presented a new and interesting phenomenon in modern history—the migration of a European court into a southern hemisphere. It had long been a topic of serious deliberation between the cabinets of Great Britain and Portugal, whether, in the case of actual invasion by France, the Portuguese court might not be advantageously transferred to its dependencies in South America; and the assembling of an army of forty thousand men at Bayonne, for the avowed purpose of invading the territories of the house of Braganza, threatened speedily to demand from the prince-regent this weighty sacrifice. In vain had Portugal exhausted the royal treasury, and made innumerable sacrifices to preserve her neutrality; in vain, had she shut the ports of her dominions to the subjects of an ancient and royal ally;* the French troops were preparing to march into the interior of the kingdom, and the French ambassador, having failed in his endeavours to involve the prince-regent in the war against England, had quitted Lisbon in disgust. These events were noticed to the chamber of commerce for the information of the British factory; and the preparations which had been previously commenced by them, for settling their affairs, and withdrawing from the country, were now continued with redoubled urgency. The activity and confusion in the ports were extreme; the most extravagant terms were demanded for the conveyance of settlers, with their families, to England, in vessels ill adapted for accommodation, or even for security; and towards the end of October, scarcely any thing British, except British feeling, remained in that country.

In the mean time, the Portuguese navy was prepared with all possible expedition; the royal furniture and treasures were packed up, the conveniences and necessities for a long voyage, and for various es-

* By the decree for the exclusion of British ships, dated Lisbon, October 22, 1807.

establishments on the arrival of the fleet at its destination, were assiduously collected, and arrangements were made for the new government abroad, and for a regency at home. Lord Strangford, the British ambassador, was indefatigable in his endeavours to confirm the wavering purpose of the court, and perpetually contrasting the independence and glory of the new empire in South America, with the abject vassalage, and contemptible insignificance, which alone could be expected, were the princes to continue in his European dominions. A reluctance, however, to quit the shores of that country which he had so long governed, and which had given him birth, was not unfrequently manifested by the prince; and in proportion as the time approached for his embarkation on an enterprise of such magnitude, he appeared the less inclined to make the momentous sacrifice. So far indeed did his wishes to conciliate France prevail, that on the 8th of November, he signed an order for detaining the few British subjects, and the small portion of British property, that remained in his dominions. On the publication of this decree, Lord Strangford demanded his passports, and, presenting a final remonstrance to the court, proceeded to join the squadron under Sir Sidney Smith, which had been sent to the coast of Portugal to assist in saving the royal family, or, in the worst event, to prevent the Portuguese fleet from falling into the possession of the enemy. A most vigorous blockade of the Tagus was immediately resolved upon; but after a few days the intercourse of the British ambassador and the court was renewed, at the request of the former, who, on proceeding to Lisbon, found all the apprehensions of the prince now directed to a French army, and all his hopes to a British fleet. To explain this singular change in the politics of the Portuguese court, it must be observed that, in the interval between the departure and the return of Lord Strangford, the prince had received intelligence, that Bonaparte had fulminated against him one of those edicts which had almost invariably been followed by the subversion of thrones. The proclamation that "the house of Braganza shall cease to reign"* had gone forth; and to this alarming denunciation, which cut off all hopes of compromise, even by the most humiliating submission, was to be ascribed the complacency with which the renewed intercourse with England was accepted. So great was the agitation exhibited by the court, that it now manifested as much avi-

dity to accomplish the enterprise, as it had previously shown hesitation and reluctance towards it. The interview with the English ambassador took place on the 27th of November, and on the morning of the 29th, the Portuguese fleet sailed out of the Tagus, with the whole of the royal family of Braganza, and a considerable number of faithful counsellors, and respectable and opulent adherents. The fleet consisted of eight sail of the line, four large frigates, and several other vessels of war, besides a number of Brazil ships, and amounted in all to thirty-six sail, containing about eighteen thousand Portuguese subjects. As they passed through the British squadron, a reciprocal salute was fired, and the singularity and magnitude of the enterprise, combined with the circumstance of two squadrons meeting in cordial friendship, which only two days before were in a state of open hostility, served to render this interesting spectacle at once grand and impressive. So critical was the juncture, that before the Portuguese fleet quitted the Tagus, they recognised the French army, under General Junot, with their Spanish auxiliaries, on the heights of Lisbon, and on the following day the invaders entered the capital, without opposition.* Sir Sidney Smith, with a British squadron, accompanied the royal emigrants to Rio de Janeiro, in Brazil, where they arrived on the 19th of January following, after a prosperous voyage; and from this period England became the only connecting link, commercial and political, between the Brazilian court and their European dominions.

Spain, once the most potent and flourishing of the European monarchies, had, during more than two centuries, been in a state of decline. A wretched system of government had almost extinguished the ancient Castilian spirit; and the Spanish armies, which in former ages had been acknowledged superior to those of all other nations, had lost their ancient reputation for courage and discipline. In this state of national degradation, Spain was one of the first countries of the continent that fell under the control of revolutionary France, and appeared, of all others, the least capable of throwing off the yoke of vassalage. The flower of the Spanish army was

* On the arrival of the French and Spanish army on the Portuguese frontier, the invaders wrote to the Marquis of Alorna, the commandant at Elvas, to inquire whether they were to be "received as friends or as enemies," to which the marquis laconically replied:

"Sir,—We are unable to entertain you as friends, or to resist you as enemies.

"Yours, &c. ALORNO."

* *Moniteur* of the 18th of November, 1807.

serving under the banners of France in the north of Europe; the iron frontier of Spain to the north-east, was in the hands of French garrisons; and the metropolis, as well as the greater part of the interior, was occupied by one hundred thousand foreign troops, commanded by able and experienced officers. The Spaniards, without arms, without ammunition, and without a public treasury, were abandoned by their government; and not a few of their *grandees*, and other persons of high distinction, to whom they might have looked up for bringing the resources of the monarchy into one uniform direction, they had reason to rank among the enemies of their country. The bands of society in Spain were in fact broken asunder. There was no visible mode of combining their separate force into any regular plan of co-operation. Yet, under all these circumstances, the people did not hesitate to enter on a conflict with the most numerous and the most warlike nation of Europe. To trace these great and unexpected events to their source, requires a retrospect of those intrigues at the court of Madrid, of those family contentions, and of that foreign interference, which led to the subversion of the throne of the Bourbons in Spain, and to one of the most memorable contests in modern history. (63)

(63) We are told by M. de Pradt, in his "*Mémoires Historiques sur la Révolution d'Espagne*," that the determination of overthrowing the Bourbon dynasty, was taken by Napoleon in consequence of a disposition to hostility manifested by that court, soon after the breaking out of the war with Prussia in 1806. Subsequent to the treaty of 1795, a strict alliance had subsisted between the two countries. Suddenly, however, and while Napoleon was with his armies in Prussia, a proclamation was published by the prince of the peace, calling the Spaniards to arms, by every motive of religion and honour. No doubt could be entertained against whom this manifesto was intended, although it was silent with respect to the enemy. The battle of Jena destroyed, at once, the hopes entertained by the Spanish government of throwing off the French yoke; but, although it was pretended that these preparations had been made for the purpose of resisting a threatened attack of the Emperor of Morocco, their real object did not escape the penetration of Napoleon. From this moment, his resolution is said to have been formed. "Napoleon," says M. de Pradt, "has often told me that it was on the field of battle of Jena he received the proclamation, which, laying open to him the perfidy and dangers to which he might be subjected in every new expedition, induced him to make the determination of ridding himself of a concealed enemy, ready to attack him at every moment of embarrassment."* It has been frequently asserted that the invasion of Spain was undertaken upon the earnest suggestions of Talleyrand; and this idea is countenanced by the following passage in Mr. Warden's narrative of his conversations with Na-

After the conclusion of the peace of Tilsit, the machinations of Bonaparte against the royal family and the throne of Spain, began to appear: and his first step in furtherance of his designs was to draw out of Spain sixteen thousand of her best troops, and to place them in a situation where they could not interfere with his views. He afterwards proposed to Ferdinand, the Prince of Asturias, and heir-apparent to the throne of Spain, a marriage with a French princess, and obtained his consent to the union. Soon after Ferdinand had acquiesced in the wishes of Bona-

oleon and his suite. "The name of Talleyrand happening to occur in the course of conversation with our French shipmates, the high opinion entertained of his talents by the Bonapartists was acknowledged without reserve. On my asking at what period he was separated from the councils and confidence of Napoleon, it was replied, at the invasion of Spain. I then observed, that the reports in England respecting that circumstance were correct as to time, and I presumed were equally so as to the cause; his unreserved disapprobation of that bold and adventurous enterprise. This met with an instant contradiction, which was followed by a most decisive assertion that the Prince of Benevento approved of the Spanish war, and founded his recommendation of that measure on his unalterable opinion, which he boldly communicated to the emperor, that his life was not secure while a Bourbon reigned in Europe."† M. de Pradt, on the contrary, assures us that the plan was Bonaparte's own, and was kept a secret even from his ministers of state, until fully matured at Bayonne. Talleyrand, he informs us, was not apprized of the treaty of Fontainebleau, until the march of the guard under Marshal Bessières to Spain.‡ The account here given of the motives which led to the change of dynasty in that country, is corroborated by the narrative published by M. d'Escoiquiz, counsellor of state under Ferdinand, of his conversations with Napoleon at Bayonne. The latter is there represented to have said, "It is impossible that you should avoid seeing, that as long as the Bourbons reign in Spain, I can never expect to maintain a sincere alliance with that power. They will manage, I know, very well as long as they are alone, to keep up the appearance of an alliance with me, because they are not strong enough to do me an injury; but their hatred will break forth the moment they see me embarrassed in a northern war, and then they will combine with my enemies to attack me. How can I better satisfy you of the correctness of this opinion, than by recalling to your recollection the perfidy with which Charles IV. himself, notwithstanding his pretended fidelity to his alliance, sought to make war on me a short time previous to the battle of Jena, that is, at the very moment in which he thought me most occupied with Prussia? Did he not profit by the danger which appeared to menace me, to issue a proclamation, which called upon his subjects to arm against me? Never, no! never, I repeat, can I count upon Spain as long as the Bourbons occupy the throne; and the power of that nation, which has been considerable in every age, may one day, if directed by a man of sense, be sufficient to disturb my repose."

* Warden's Letters, p. 48.

† Mémoires, &c. p. 28.

‡ Ibid. p. 299.

parte on this point, a conspiracy was said to have been detected, at Madrid, against the life of Charles, the reigning monarch; and a decree, dated the 30th of October, 1807, was issued by the king, charging his son with having conspired against the life of his royal parent. "My life," says the king, "which has so often been in danger, was too long in the eyes of my successor, who, infatuated by prejudice, and alienated from every principle of Christianity that my paternal care and love had taught him, had entered into a project to dethrone me. Informed of this, I thought proper to inquire personally into the truth of the fact, and surprised him in my room; I found in his possession the cypher of his correspondence, and of the instructions he had received from the vile conspirators." The king, under the first impression made by this alarming discovery, convoked the governor in council, and ordered his son and his accomplices into confinement; but, softened by the penitential expressions of the prince, and the entreaties of the queen, he was soon after liberated, and restored to the royal favour.*

* DECREE OF THE KING OF SPAIN.

"The voice of nature unnerves the arm of vengeance; and when the offender's want of consideration pleads for pity, a father cannot refuse to listen to his voice. My son has already declared the authors of that horrible plan which has been suggested by the evil-minded. He has laid open every thing in a legal form, and all is exactly consistent with those proofs that are required by the law in such cases. His confusion and repentance have dictated the remonstrances which he has addressed to me, and of which the following is the chief:—

"SIRE and FATHER,—I am guilty of failing in my duty to your majesty; I have failed in my obedience to my father and my king. I ought to do nothing without your majesty's consent; but I have been surprised. I have denounced the guilty, and beg your majesty to suffer your repentant son to kiss your feet.

(Signed)

"FERDINAND.

"St. Laurent, November 5th.

"MADAME and MOTHER,—I sincerely repent of the great fault which I have committed against the king and queen, my father and mother!—With the greatest submission I beg your pardon, as well as for my obstinacy in denying the truth the other night. For this cause, I heartily entreat your majesty to deign to interpose your mediation between my father and me, that he may condescend to suffer his repentant son to kiss his feet.

(Signed)

"FERDINAND.

"St. Laurent, November 5th.

"In consequence of these letters, and the entreaty of the queen, my well-beloved spouse, I forgive my son; and he shall recover my favour as soon as his conduct shall give proofs of a real amendment in his proceedings.

(Signed)

"CHARLES R.

"Madrid, November 5th, 1807."

At the period when this mysterious conspiracy was agitated at Madrid, a secret treaty for the partition of Portugal was executed at Fontainebleau,* between the plenipotentiaries of France and Spain, by which it was provided, that part of the kingdom of Portugal should be bestowed upon the King of Etruria, as an indemnity for his Italian dominions, with the title of King of Northern Lusitania; that the province of Alentejo and the kingdom of the Algarves should be allotted to the prince of the peace, with the title of Prince of the Algarves; and that the remaining provinces should be held in sequestration, to devolve at a general peace upon the house of Braganza, in exchange for Gibraltar, Trinidad, and other colonies which the English had conquered from Spain and her allies. This treaty of course required the means by which it was to be put in execution, and a secret convention was accordingly concluded on the same day, and by the same parties, by which it was stipulated, that a French army of twenty-five thousand infantry, and three thousand cavalry, should enter Spain, and march directly for Lisbon; and that they should be joined by eight thousand Spanish infantry and three thousand cavalry, with thirty pieces of artillery; that sixteen thousand Spanish troops should also occupy the other parts of Portugal; and that a body of forty thousand French troops should be assembled at Bayonne, by the 20th of November, 1807, to be ready to proceed through Spain into Portugal, in case the English should send reinforcements to menace it with attack. Thus did Napoleon procure the admission of a large army into Spain. Charles having agreed to a treaty, the provisions of which were to be carried into execution by means of this army, could not object to his territories being entered by foreign troops; Ferdinand was still less capable, from the situation in which he was placed, of opposing the schemes of Bonaparte; and the prince of the peace,† the prime minister of Spain and the obsequious supporter of French policy at the court of Madrid, was disposed rather to advance than to resist the will of the French emperor. It is difficult to conceive a combination of characters and circumstances more favourable to the ambitious views of Napoleon. The characters of Charles, Ferdinand, and the premier, were all suited to his purposes, and required only to be worked upon:

* Dated October 27, 1807.

† The title of prince of the peace was conferred on Don Manuel Godoy, on the ratification of the treaty of peace concluded between France and Spain at Basle, in the year 1796.

different times, and in an appropriate manner, to promote the objects of this consummate intrigue.

It was not sufficient for Bonaparte that he had introduced his army into the heart of Spain; but in order to possess the firmest power over that kingdom, it was necessary also to occupy the principal fortresses. Under the plea, therefore, of consulting the security of his troops, he obtained possession of the forts of Pampeluna, St. Sebastian, Barcelona, and Montjoui; and by thus holding the keys of the kingdom, he had it in his power to introduce, through the passes of the Pyrenees, any additional number of soldiers. The details of the means by which he introduced his forces into those fortresses, are curious. At Pampeluna, a body of French troops, who apparently were amusing themselves with casting snowballs at each other, on the esplanade of the citadel, continued their sport till they had an opportunity of throwing themselves upon the drawbridge, possessing the gate, and admitting a body of their comrades, who had been in readiness; and the capture was thus effected. St. Sebastian was overpowered by a body of French, who had been admitted as patients into the hospital. Duhesme, who commanded the French troops detached against Barcelona, had obtained permission from the Spanish governor to mount guards of French with those maintained by the native soldiers. He then gave out that his troops were about to march; and, as if previous to their moving, had them drawn up in front of the citadel of the place. A French general rode up under pretence of reviewing these men, then passed forward to the gate of the citadel, as if to speak to the French portion of the guard. A body of Italian light troops rushed in, close after the French officer and his suite, and the citadel of Barcelona was in the hands of the French. Montjoui, the citadel, as it may be termed, of Barcelona, shared the same fate.

It is impossible accurately to ascertain the number of French troops marched into Spain, under the pretence of occupying Portugal, and fulfilling the treaty of Fontainebleau; but, from an official return published about the end of January, 1808, it appears, that between the 19th of October, 1807, and the 18th of January following, upwards of seventy thousand infantry, and ten thousand cavalry, entered by the pass of Irun.

In this manner, the revolutionary volcano, by which the Spanish monarchy was about to be convulsed, had secretly and silently collected its powers, and in the

month of March the explosion took place. It appears that his Catholic majesty, influenced probably by the suggestions of his ally, had formed a design of removing the seat of government to Mexico, and that the measure was approved of by the queen and the prince of the peace, but reprobated by the Prince of Asturias and his brother, with the majority of the grandees of the court. The motive which led to this extraordinary project, like all the affairs of the court of Madrid, from the period of the alleged conspiracy of the heir-apparent till the journey of the royal family to Bayonne, is enveloped in mystery; but the scheme of emigrating beyond the Atlantic was probably communicated to the king through the medium of Isquiero, the Spanish negotiator of the secret treaty of Fontainebleau. No sooner had the intended emigration of the royal family transpired, than the capital of Spain presented a scene of confusion and turbulence. A report having been spread, on the 17th of March, that the guards had received orders to march to Aranjuez, where the court then resided, the inhabitants of Madrid rushed in crowds to the road to prevent their departure. At the same time, several of the ministers and grandees, who disapproved of the emigration, circulated handbills in the surrounding country, stating the designs of the court, and the danger to which the kingdom was exposed. The night was a scene of tumult, and on the following day immense crowds of people hurried to Aranjuez, where the palace of the favourite, although defended by his guards, was forced, and the furniture destroyed. The princess of peace was conducted to the royal palace, with all the respect due to her rank; but the prince, her husband, had disappeared, and his brother, Don Diego Godoy, commandant of the life-guards, was arrested by the soldiers of his own corps. In this emergency, the king found it necessary to issue two decrees, by one of which he declared the favourite stripped of all his power and employments; and in the other, he assured his subjects that the army of France had entered Spain only as his friends; and that the life-guards, instead of having left Madrid for the purpose of accompanying him on a voyage, which he declared he never had any intention of taking, had quitted it solely for the purpose of protecting his person. These proclamations, however, failed in their effect; the scenes of popular tumult spread from Aranjuez to Madrid, where on the 18th, the populace rushed in crowds to the palace of the prince of the peace, and to the houses of several of the other ministers. The result was

that the favourite, after having with difficulty escaped the fury of the mob, was afterwards arrested. In the midst of this popular effervescence, the king resolved to withdraw from so tumultuous a scene, and issued a royal decree, by which he abdicated the crown in favour of his son.* The first act of Ferdinand VII. was to issue an edict, in which he declared his resolution immediately to confiscate the property of Don Manuel Godoy, the prince of the peace, and to use all the means in his power to repair the wrongs done to such of his subjects as had suffered from their attachment to his cause. It naturally becomes a question, not only of considerable interest, but of great importance, to determine how far this act of abdication was "free and spontaneous." This inquiry involves the character both of Ferdinand and of his father, and will be found intimately connected with the future events of the Spanish revolution. Don Pedro Cevallos, secretary of state to Charles IV., in his exposition of the practices and machinations which led to the usurpation of the crown of Spain by the Emperor of the French, declares that no violence was done to his majesty in order to extort an abdication of his crown, either by his son or by the people. For the purpose of showing that this was not a sudden and unpremeditated act, it is further asserted by that minister, that three weeks before the disturbance at Aranjuez, the king, in his presence and in the presence of all the other ministers of state, addressed her majesty, the queen, in these words: "Maria Louisa, we will retire to one of the provinces, where we will pass our days in tranquillity; and Ferdinand, who is a young man, will take upon him the burden of government." This testimony may be perfectly correct, and yet the abdication might not be voluntary, in the fair and liberal construction of that term. The conclusion indeed seems probable, though by no means certain, that

the alarm of the king, aided, perhaps, by the expectations of Ferdinand and his friends, hurried him on to the execution of that act, about which he had before conversed, but which, in all probability, he would never have performed under the pressure of less urgent and distracting circumstances.

These events were soon succeeded by a counter-revolution, more extraordinary in its nature, and in the circumstances by which it was accompanied, than any of the other changes which have stamped a peculiar character on these unstable times. Murat, the Grand-duke of Berg, to whom the command of the French forces in Spain had been confided, no sooner heard of the occurrences at Aranjuez, than he hastened the march of his army towards the capital. Ferdinand, unassured in what way his accession to the throne would be received at the court of St. Cloud, alarmed at the proximity of the French troops, appointed a deputation of three grandes to proceed to Bayonne, to compliment the Emperor Napoleon on his arrival in that city. Murat, in the mean time, held an official communication with the deposed monarch, by whom he was informed that his calamities were not of a common cast, since his own son had been the author of them. His abdication, he said, had been effected by treachery and compulsion. The Prince of Asturias, and Caballero, the minister of justice, were chiefly concerned in the disgraceful transaction; and had he not given up the throne in favour of his son, his own life and that of the queen would most probably have been sacrificed to his resistance. Under these circumstances, Charles had protested against the act of abdication, and wished Murat to be informed that he had written a letter to the emperor, his master, into whose hands he resigned his fate.*

Anxious to conciliate the favour of Bonaparte, and allured by the promises of his generals, Murat and Savary, Ferdinand was prevailed upon to quit Madrid, and to repair to Bayonne, the station which the French emperor had taken for the more convenient accomplishment of his designs. Ferdinand had no sooner entered France, than he perceived too plainly that his authority was departed from him, and it

* ACT OF ABDICATION OF CHARLES IV.

"My habitual infirmities not permitting me to support any longer the important weight of government of my kingdom; and having need, in order to re-establish my health, to enjoy private life in a more temperate climate, I have decided, after the most minute deliberation, to abdicate my crown in favour of my heir, my most beloved son, the Prince of Asturias. Consequently, it is my royal will, that he be forthwith acknowledged and obeyed as king and natural lord of all my kingdoms and sovereignties; and that this royal decree of my free and spontaneous abdication, may be exactly and directly fulfilled, you will communicate it to the council, and to all others to whom it may appertain.

"Given at Aranjuez, the 19th of March, 1808.

(Signed)

"I, THE KING."

* PROTEST OF Charles IV. against the Act of Abdication.

"I protest and declare, that my decree of the 19th of March, in which I renounced my crown in favour of my son, is a deed to which I was compelled, in order to prevent greater calamity, and spare the blood of my beloved subjects. It is therefore to be considered as of no authority.

"Given at Aranjuez, the 25th of March, 1808.

(Signed)

"I, THE KING."

was speedily intimated to him by Savary, that the Bourbon dynasty should no longer reign in Spain, but that it would be succeeded by the family of Bonaparte. This determination was accompanied by a requisition that Ferdinand should, in his own name, and that of his family, renounce the crown of Spain and the Indies in favour of the Emperor of the French. On the following day, Cevallos, who had accompanied Ferdinand in the capacity of first secretary of state, attempted, in a discussion with Champagny, the French minister of foreign affairs, to alter the determination of the emperor. He complained of the perfidy with which the business had been conducted; the king, his master, had come to Bayonne relying on the solemn and repeated assurances of General Savary, given officially in the name of the emperor, that his imperial majesty would recognise him at the very first interview; expecting, according to these assurances, to be treated as the King of Spain, he was surprised that the proposition for renouncing the throne was made to him. He entered his solemn protest against the violence offered to his person in preventing his return to Spain; and declared it to be his final and determined resolution, not to renounce his throne in favour of any other dynasty. In reply to this representation, Champagny contented himself with insisting on the necessity of the renunciation, and with affirming that the abdication of Charles had been involuntary. After some further discussion, the emperor, who had overheard every thing that passed, commanded the two ministers to enter his cabinet, where he insulted Cevallos in gross and violent language, upbraiding him with being a traitor, because, having been minister to Charles, he now acted in the same capacity to Ferdinand. Finding that he could neither convince nor silence the Spanish minister, he abruptly concluded by exclaiming, "I have a system of my own; you ought to adopt more liberal ideas; to be less susceptible on the point of honour, and not to sacrifice the prosperity of Spain to the interests of the Bourbon family."^{*}

Finding that he was not likely soon to succeed in bending Ferdinand to his purpose, Bonaparte determined to have Charles brought to Bayonne. By this means, he hoped to accelerate the completion of his schemes, and to put it completely out of the power of the Spanish nation to rally round any of the old dynasty, in the first moments of their indignation at his

violence and perfidy. The Grand-duke of Berg had orders sent him to employ every artifice in his power to persuade the royal parents to set out on their journey to Bayonne; and after liberating the favourite, the royal party quitted Madrid, and repaired to the French frontier. The situation of Ferdinand was now rendered more than ever embarrassing; beset on one side by Bonaparte, who insisted on the renunciation of his title, and attacked on the other by his father, who upbraided him with having obtained the throne by violence, he perceived no method of liberating himself from the confinement in which he was held, but by yielding up an authority to which he was denied a valid title. Under these circumstances, Ferdinand, on the 1st of May, made a conditional renunciation of his crown in favour of his father. On the 5th, Bonaparte had a long conversation with the royal parents. What passed on this occasion can be conjectured only from the infamous and disgraceful scene that followed, and which is thus described by one who was present at the audience: "At five o'clock, King Ferdinand was called in by his august father, to hear, in the presence of the queen and the emperor, expressions so disgusting and humiliating, that I do not dare to record them. All the party were seated except King Ferdinand, whom the father ordered to make an absolute renunciation of the crown, under pain of being treated, with all his household, as a usurper of the throne, and a conspirator against the life of his parents."^{*} Bonaparte, however, appears not to have regarded the renunciation of Ferdinand to his father as necessary to render valid the resignation of the latter in his favour; for on the very day that the scene already described took place, and before Ferdinand had yielded obedience to the commands of his parent, Charles had executed his deed of resignation, which transferred his title to the Emperor of France. By this document, bearing date the 5th of May, it is declared, 1st, That the integrity of the

^{*} See the Exposition of Don Pedro Cevallos. The scene to which Cevallos alludes, is thus described in the chronicles of the day:—The queen, in a transport of passion, addressing Ferdinand, said—"Traitor! you have for years meditated the death of the king; but thanks to the vigilance, the loyalty, and the zeal of the prince of the peace, neither you, nor any of the infamous traitors who have co-operated with you, have been able to effect your purpose. I tell you to your face that you are not the son of the king! And yet, without having any other right to the crown than that of your mother, you have sought to tear it from us by force; but I agree and demand that the Emperor Napoleon shall be umpire between us: and I call upon him to punish you and your traitorous associates."

kingdom of Spain shall be preserved; and, 2d, That the prince placed on the throne of Spain by the emperor shall be independent. The other articles of this act of resignation declare that the king and queen, as well as the prince of the peace, and such other servants as choose to follow them, shall retire into France, where they shall preserve their respective ranks; that the imperial palace of Compeigne shall be at the disposal of King Charles during his life; that a civil list of eight millions of rials shall be allotted to the king, and that the dowry of the queen, at his death, shall be two millions.* To the Infantes of Spain, the annual sum of four hundred thousand livres is secured; and the king, in exchange for his personal landed property in Spain, receives from Napoleon the castle of Chamboard.

In order to prepare the minds of the Spaniards for this extraordinary transfer, Charles directed a mandate to the supreme junta of the government of Madrid, in which he appointed the Grand-duke of Berg lieutenant-general of the kingdom, and commanded the council of Castile, and the captains-general, and governors of the provinces, to obey his orders. The father having thus done all in his power not only to transfer his right to the throne of Spain to the Emperor of the French, but also to secure the tranquil and ready reception of that transfer by the Spanish nation, the resistance and refusal of Ferdinand were no longer to be expected. Cevallos affords no insight into the particular mode of attack upon the prince, after Bonaparte had succeeded both in forcing him to renounce in favour of his father, and in persuading the father to abdicate in favour of the French dynasty, except that he states, but not of his own personal knowledge, that in the last conference held with Ferdinand, the emperor said, "*Prince, il faut opter entre la cession et la mort.*"† The resignation of Ferdinand took place on the 10th of May; and by the articles of this act it is stipulated, that the Prince of Asturias shall renounce his right to the crown of Spain and the Indies; that the Emperor Napoleon shall secure to him the title of royal highness, and cede to him the domain of Navarre, with an annual grant of four hundred thousand livres of appanage rent, and a further rent of six hundred thousand livres. The title of royal highness, the enjoyment of their respective commandaries in Spain, and an appanage rent of four hundred thou-

sand livres, are by the same instrument granted to Don Antonio, the uncle of Ferdinand, and Don Carlos, and Don Francisco, his brothers, provided they accede to the treaty. No sooner had Ferdinand ratified this treaty, than he was hurried from Bayonne into the interior of France; and, to render his humiliation more abject, and his subserviency to the will of Bonaparte more complete, the prince his uncle, and his brother, were commanded, when they reached Bourdeaux, to address a solemn proclamation to the Spaniards, releasing them from all the duties they owed to the prince, and conjuring them to consult the common good, by conducting themselves as peaceable and obedient subjects to the Emperor Napoleon.

On the 20th of May, Charles, accompanied by his royal consort, arrived at Fontainebleau, where his majesty was immediately provided with a complete equipage for the chase; and thence they removed two days afterwards to Compeigne. The prince of the peace took up his residence at a chateau in the environs of Paris. The unfortunate Ferdinand, with his uncle and brother, arrived on the 19th of May at Valency, a small town in the province of Berry, where they were lodged in a castle belonging to M. Talleyrand, and the prince sought consolation in a strict observance of the ordinances of the Catholic religion.

Abounding, as the annals of mankind do, especially in these latter and portentous times, in examples of treachery, perfidy, and violence, it would be difficult to point out one deed, which, in every part of its performance, in its own nature, or in the character of the means by which it was carried into execution, bore so strong and infamous marks of atrocity as this. The first act of sovereign power exercised by Napoleon over the Spanish nation, was contained in an imperial decree, addressed to the council of Castile, in which, after stating that the king and princes of the Bourbon line had ceded their rights to him, he commanded that the assembly of the notables should be held on the 15th of June, at Bayonne; that the deputies should be charged with the expressions of the sentiments, wishes, and complaints of their constituents, and with full power to fix the basis of a new government. The Grand-duke of Berg was to continue in the office of lieutenant-general of the kingdom; and the ministers, council of state, council of Castile, and all the civil, ecclesiastical, and military authorities, were to remain unchanged. On the same day, Bonaparte addressed a proclamation to the Spanish nation, in which he assured the

* REAL—a Spanish coin of the value of five pence farthing English.

† Prince, you have only to choose between cession and death.

people that his sole object would be to relieve the sufferings he had so long witnessed, by renovating their monarchy. For this purpose, he had convened a general assembly of their deputies, and would place their illustrious crown on the head of one resembling himself; that thus, by uniting the salutary power of the sovereign with a just regard to the liberties of the people, their latest posterity might celebrate him as the restorer of their country.

In the mean time, the most dreadful disorders prevailed in Madrid; the inhabitants had been in a state of agitation and alarm ever since the entrance of the French troops and the departure of the royal family. The French were daily insulted; numerous assemblies were held by the people; and every thing indicated the approach of a dreadful explosion. On the morning of the 2d of May, immense multitudes collected in the principal streets of the capital. Rendered confident by their numbers, they attacked the French troops with great vigour and resolution, and, after forcing them to retreat, obtained possession of their cannon. With these, they succeeded in forcing their enemies out of the city, with great slaughter. Besides this regular and concentrated attack on the great body of the military, wherever a French soldier was discovered, he was instantly cut down or shot. The great street of Alcala, the Sun-Gate, and the Great Square, were the principal scenes of the early success, and of the subsequent massacre of the inhabitants. The alarm was no sooner given, than the French repaired to their posts, and the large reinforcements which poured into the city overwhelmed the insurgents. The principal object with the French army was the street of Alcala, in which were collected more than ten thousand people. Against this and the neighbouring streets and squares, thirty discharges of artillery were directed with murderous effect; these were followed up by the cavalry; the people, routed and dismayed, took refuge in the houses; and the French soldiers, irritated to the highest degree by their previous defeat, followed them into their retreat, and took signal vengeance on the insurgents. The place where the Spaniards made the most vigorous defence, was the store-house of artillery, which, besides ammunition, contained upwards of ten thousand stand of arms. Thither Murat sent a detachment to take possession of the arsenal, but he found it occupied by a number of the inhabitants and Spanish artillery-men, under the command of two brave officers of the names of Doaiz and Velayde. A twenty-four pound-

er, charged with grape-shot, placed at the gate of the store-house, in front of a long and narrow street, made dreadful havoc amongst the French column as it advanced, and compelled the commander to send to Murat for reinforcements. Two other French columns then advanced, and, after attacking the small garrison on both flanks, repeatedly summoned it to surrender, but the brave and resolute commanders refused to listen to the proposition, and their constancy remained unshaken to the last moment of their existence. After the engagement had raged for some time, Velayde was killed by a musket-shot, and Doaiz had his thigh broken by a cannon-ball; this hero still continued to give his orders with the greatest composure, till he had received three other wounds, the last of which put an end to his glorious career. The command of the arsenal now devolved on a corporal of artillery, who, sensible that all further resistance would be unavailing, agreed to capitulate.—About two o'clock, the firing ceased in all parts of the city, in consequence of the personal interference of the council of Castile, who paraded the streets with many of the Spanish nobility, escorted by a body of Spanish soldiers and French imperial guards intermixed. The inhabitants of Madrid now flattered themselves that the carnage was at an end, but in the afternoon, Murat issued general orders to his army for the immediate formation of a military tribunal, of which General Grouchy was appointed president. Before this tribunal, all persons were brought who had been made prisoners in the early part of the day, and, after a summary trial, three groups of forty each were successively shot, in the Prado, by the hands of the military executioners. In this manner, was the evening of the 2d of May spent by the French at Madrid. The inhabitants were commanded to illuminate their houses for the safety of their oppressors; and, through the whole night, the dead and dying were to be seen lying in heaps upon the blood-stained pavement. When the morning arrived, the military tribunals resumed their functions, and for several successive days the feeling of the inhabitants of the capital were outraged by judicial murders. The numbers slain on the 2d of May on the side of the people, must have been immense; and it is stated, on the authority of an eyewitness, that the insurrection was not quelled till after most of the French soldiers actually in the city at the time of its commencement, were put to death.*

* Authentic particulars of the events which took place at Madrid on the 2d of May, 1808 by an Englishman.

This effort of the citizens of Madrid, which ought to have aroused the junta to a sense of their duty, produced directly the opposite effect, and bent them completely to the will of Murat. At their sitting on the 4th of May, that commander was present, and after detailing the circumstances of the insurrection of the 2d, pointed out the necessity of vigorous measures to restrain the turbulent spirit of the populace. The junta, professing an anxiety to prevent the recurrence of similar calamities, decreed, that the presidentship of their body should be offered to his imperial and royal highness the Grand-duke of Berg, and that all their members should conform to his ordonnances. But it was not the junta only who deserted the cause of their country, and enlisted themselves on the side of their invaders and oppressors; the council of the supreme and general Inquisition also exhorted the Spaniards to quiet and unresisting submission. This council, though the spirit of the times, and the growing policy or humanity of its members, had deprived it of a great part of the dread and horror formerly attached to the exercise of his power, still, unfortunately for the Spanish nation, possessed an extensive, penetrating, and powerful influence over the kingdom. The Inquisition was, therefore, an engine too fit for their purpose, to be overlooked or unemployed by the French authorities, and its obsequiousness was as propitious to the wishes of Murat, as its nature and power were conducive to his designs. Through his influence, these holy inquisitors addressed a circular to all the courts of the kingdom, in which they accused the Spanish people of having occasioned, by their factious disposition and outrageous violence, the disturbances and bloodshed of the 2d of May. This violence they represent as having been offered to friendly officers and soldiers, who injured no one; but who, on the contrary, preserved the most rigorous discipline, and towards whom they were bound by the laws of hospitality to behave with attention and friendship. The indulgence in these lawless excesses, it is added, tends only to destroy the principles of subordination, and to weaken the just and salutary confidence of the people in the supreme power. "These truths, so important at all times, and so eminently and peculiarly necessary at a period of violence and tumult," says the supreme court of Inquisition, "can by none be impressed with more propriety and beneficial effect, than by the ministers of the religion of Jesus Christ, which

breathes nothing but peace among men, and subjection, humility, and obedience to all that are in authority."

Even the feeble king was obliged to act his part in repressing the zeal and spirit of his people, and in pointing out to them the heinous crime of rising against their enemies or oppressors; and the last paper to which he set his hand and seal before he abdicated the throne, was filled with remonstrances and upbraidings against his subjects, for having risen in the hope of defending that independence which he had so pusillanimously sacrificed. This proclamation is signed by Charles, but the language in which it is written, the spirit which it breathes throughout, and the counsel which it gives, could have proceeded from none but an agent of Bonaparte. He cautions them against that spirit of faction which would arm them against the French, and to which spirit he attributes both the calamities of his own family, and the recent disturbances in Madrid. He assures them that his sole object at Bayonne is to concert, along with the Emperor of the French, efficient measures for their welfare; and concludes with calling on the Spaniards to trust to his experience; to obey that authority which he holds from God and his fathers; and to follow his example, in thinking that there is no prosperity or safety for their country, but in the friendship of their ally.

Thus, to all appearance, had Bonaparte completely succeeded in accomplishing his views upon Spain. He had proceeded with caution and deliberation; but the great object of his crooked policy seemed now to be consummated. The crown of Spain was conveyed to his family by all the forms of regal transfer; and the members of the old dynasty were safe in the interior of France, removed from all chance of disturbing his future plans, or of serving as the rallying point of resistance and independence. The Spaniards, thus deserted by the royal family, stripped of part of their army, and guarded and oppressed by a numerous, well-disciplined, and watchful enemy, saw the most distinguished public bodies, to whom they had been accustomed to look up with veneration and confidence for example and advice, not only forsake the cause of their country, but actually invite the nation to receive the invaders as friends. Bonaparte, elated by his success, regarded his work as complete, and those to whom the virtues of the Spanish nation were known, lamented to see them destined to pass under the yoke of this unprincipled and selfish conqueror.

CHAPTER VI.

CAMPAIGN IN THE PENINSULA OF SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.—Formation of the Juntas, and general Burst of Patriotism throughout the Provinces of Spain.—Declaration of War against France, and Restoration of Peace with England.—Succours afforded to the Spanish Patriots by Great Britain.—Surrender of the French Fleet at Cadiz.—Defeat and Capitulation of the French Army under General Dupont.—Gallant Defence of Saragossa.—Battle of Rio Seco.—Operations in Biscay.—Repulse of the French Army at Valencia.—Joseph Bonaparte proclaimed King of Spain by Napoleon.—Sketch of the New Spanish Constitution.—Entrance of Joseph Bonaparte into Madrid.—His precipitate Retreat from that Capital.—Installation of the Supreme Junta.—Failure of the Spanish Armies in their Efforts to drive the French beyond the Pyrenees.—Liberation of the Spanish Troops in the Baltic under the Marquis de la Romana.—Conference at Erfurth.—Letter from the Emperors of France and Russia to the King of England.—Failure of the Negotiation consequent thereon.—Situation of the French and Spanish Armies in the Peninsula at the beginning of November.—Defeat and partial Dispersion of the Army under General Blake in Biscay.—of Count Belveder's Force in Estramadura.—and of the Army under General Castanos on the Ebro.—Advance of Napoleon to the Capital of Spain.—Fall of Madrid.—Disposition of the Spanish Colonies. CAMPAIGN IN PORTUGAL: Situation of that Kingdom.—Oporto wrested from the French.—Arrival of a British Expedition under Sir Arthur Wellesley off the Coast of Portugal.—Debarcation of the British Troops.—Battle of Roleia.—Battle of Vimiera.—Convention of Cintra.—Sir John Moore appointed Commander-in-chief of the British Forces in the Peninsula.—Advance of the Expedition under his Command to Salamanca.—Perilous Situation.—Disastrous Retreat.—Battle of Corunna.—Death of Sir John Moore.—Embarkation of the Troops.—Termination of the Campaign.

SCARCELY WAS the renunciation of the royal family in favour of Bonaparte known in Spain, before the northern provinces burst into open and organized insurrection. Asturias and Galicia, the refuge of Spanish independence, when it fled before the Moorish power, set the glorious example; and it was soon followed by almost every part of Spain, not immediately occupied or overawed by the armies of France. One of the first steps taken by the leaders of the revolution, was to form and assemble the juntas, or general assemblies of the provinces, who immediately issued proclamations, calling upon the Spaniards to rise in defence of their sovereign and their liberties. In these proclamations, every topic was insisted on which could awaken the patriotism and rouse the indignation of the people; the long and injurious subserviency of Spain to the views and interests of the French government; the degradation and misery which this servility had produced; the treacherous behaviour of Bonaparte to Ferdinand; and the consequences which must necessarily result from the execution of his designs; were strongly insisted upon. The nation was called upon, by every thing they held dear; by the dignity and glory long sustained by the Spanish name; by their attachment to their religion, their country, and their sovereign; by every tie that bound them to the liberty and happiness of themselves and their posterity; to arm themselves with energy and courage, to prevent, by their powerful and unanimous interference, the infamous and complete ruin with which they were threatened by the common enemy of the independence and happiness of the human race. The crimes of which Bonaparte

had been guilty, were placed before their eyes in all their horror; the fatal consequences which had uniformly resulted from the apathy and indifference of the people, in the countries he had already conquered, were urged as holding forth the most powerful and urgent reasons for the union of the Spanish nation, in the great and glorious cause of resisting his oppression, and preventing their country from being sunk into that state of degradation and slavery, which had overwhelmed so many of the other states of Europe.

The junta, to whose proceedings most attention is due, is that which was assembled at Seville. Madrid being in possession of the French, it became necessary that some other principal city should take the lead in issuing directions respecting the great and arduous contest in which the Spanish nation was about to be engaged, and no place seemed more proper than Seville. The constituted authorities of this place assembled on the 27th of May, 1808, and immediately formed themselves into a supreme junta of government. After having proclaimed Ferdinand King of Spain, and taken possession of the military stores for the purpose of arming the people, they issued an order for all persons, from sixteen to forty-five years of age, who had not children, to enroll themselves. They also established inferior juntas in every town within their jurisdiction, the population of which amounted to two thousand householders; and sent couriers to the principal places in Spain, inviting them to follow the example of Seville. But they principally distinguished themselves by their "precautions," which they issued, as proper to be observ

ed during the struggle in which the nation was about to engage. The character of these precautions is that of clear and comprehensive thought, directed steadily and with success to the contemplation of the crisis in which Spain was placed; the principal difficulties and dangers to which it was likely to be exposed; and the most effectual means by which she might avoid or surmount them, and ultimately succeed in the object she had in view. They recommended in the strongest manner the careful avoidance of all general actions; and a strict adherence to the system of harassing, and continual attacks on the detached and insulated bodies of the enemy's forces.

The junta of Seville also issued a declaration of war against France, and proclaimed peace with England. Indeed, the insurrection of the Spanish nation necessarily directed their thoughts and hopes to Britain, as the only country which possessed the power and the inclination to yield them assistance. One of the first measures adopted by the junta of Asturias, was, to despatch two noblemen to this country, to represent to the British government the state of Spain, and the determined, unanimous spirit of her people, with a view to obtain countenance and support in behalf of their countrymen. In England, the cause of Spain fortunately united all parties. Whatever difference of opinion might exist respecting the probability of ultimate success, all were cordially agreed in the persuasion that every kind of assistance should be afforded to the Spaniards. They had taken up arms to oppose the common enemy, and to maintain their own independence, and therefore were friends to Britain. The cause of the Spaniards was viewed with zeal, satisfaction, and sympathy, by those members of parliament whose general system of politics was in direct opposition to the measures of the existing government; and his majesty's ministers, speaking in the name of their sovereign, gave assurances in parliament that they would afford every assistance in their power to the Spanish patriots.

The requests made by the Asturian deputies were not for men; of these, they affirmed, they had a sufficient supply; but they were in a great measure destitute of arms, ammunition, and clothing. Fortunately, the principal ports in the bay of Biscay were in possession of the patriots; and into these were sent, by fast-sailing vessels, immense supplies of every thing the juntas of Galicia and Asturias required. Intelligent and experienced officers were also despatched, in order to learn accurately the disposition and strength of the Spa-

niards, to communicate directly with the juntas, and to transmit to our government such information as might enable them to concert and direct the assistance they were disposed to afford, in a manner most agreeable to the Spanish nation, and most conducive to the success of their cause. As it was highly probable that British troops might be needed, they were held in readiness to embark. In short, nothing was wanting, on the part of the ministry or of the nation, to inspirit the patriots, and to convince them that every assistance within the power of Britain would cheerfully be granted.

The great commercial city of Cadiz was one of the first to show its zeal for the patriotic cause. A French squadron of five ships of the line, and two frigates, lying in the harbour, was obliged, on the 14th of June, to surrender to the Spanish arms, under General Morla, after having sustained a cannonade and bombardment from the batteries for three days, while the British fleet, under Admiral Purvis, stationed off that port, prevented its escape.

The importance of preserving the French fleet at Cadiz, and the probability that it would fall into the hands of the Spaniards, had induced Murat to despatch General Dupont from Madrid, with a considerable force, to the south of Spain. Scarcely, however, had this general passed the Sierra Morena, before he heard of the surrender of the French fleet, and the disposition of the people soon convinced him that it would be unsafe to advance farther towards Cadiz. After pushing on to Cordova, of which he obtained a temporary possession, he measured back his steps to Andujar. The Spanish General Castanos, who, at the commencement of the insurrection, was stationed in the camp of St. Roche, marched at the head of the Andalusian army against General Dupont. After several particular actions, in which the Spaniards uniformly succeeded, either in repelling the attacks of the French, or in forcing them to fall back, and by which Castanos had brought his raw troops into habits of activity, firmness, and discipline, it was determined in a council of war, held on the 17th of July, that an attack should be made on the town of Baylen, where the van of the French army was posted. At three o'clock in the morning of the 19th, while the troops of the Spanish General Reding were forming for the march, General Dupont with his army attacked the Spanish camp in the vicinity of Baylen, opening a sudden and tremendous fire with his artillery; and so determined was the resolution of the French general to make a decisive impression on the Spanish line,

that his attacks were renewed till twelve o'clock, with no other interruption or intermission but such as necessarily arose from the occasional recession and formation of new columns. At this period, he seemed disposed to give up the attack; but, before this resolution was taken, one other effort, led by General Dupont himself, and supported by his other generals, was made upon the Spanish lines, but with no better success. During these repeated, impetuous, and almost uninterrupted attacks, the Spanish line had been frequently penetrated in different parts; and the French had more than once succeeded in arriving at their batteries. But the Spanish army, with more coolness, intrepidity, and discipline, than might have been expected from raw and inexperienced levies, formed again with astonishing regularity, dismounted the enemy's artillery, and cut to pieces the attacking columns, at the same time that they varied their own positions and movements, in such a manner as to be constantly in a state of preparation, and able to repel the rapid advances of the enemy. This success of General Reding over the main body of the French army, led on by General Dupont in person, decided the fate of the day, and rendered unavailing the reinforcement of six thousand men despatched from Madrid, under the command of the French General Wedel. Under these circumstances, Dupont proposed to capitulate; and on the 20th, the whole of the French army, comprising the division of Wedel, delivered up their arms, on condition that they should be embarked at Cadiz, and sent to Rochefort. It appeared from the official returns, that the French forces, before the battle of Baylen, and exclusive of the division under General Wedel, consisted of fourteen thousand men, of which number nearly three thousand were killed and wounded. The Spanish army consisted of twenty-five thousand men, one-half of whom were peasantry, and their loss was stated at twelve hundred in killed and wounded. By this capitulation, the army of General Castanos not only freed the province of Andalusia, and the whole of the south-west of Spain, from the presence and devastation of the French, but opened for themselves a ready path to the capital of the kingdom, and to a junction with their companions in arms.

The cause of the patriots in other parts of Spain proceeded in a manner equally favourable and successful. The principal armies which they had formed were placed under the command of generals distinguished for their bravery, and their zealous and unquestionable attachment to the

cause of their country. The defence of Arragon was committed to General Palafox, whose bold and animating addresses had contributed to rouse his countrymen to arms.* Saragossa, the principal city of Arragon, was considered by the French as a place of so much importance, that they made repeated attacks upon that fortress, with all the forces they could spare. But the army of Palafox, animated to the highest degree by the wrongs of their country and the zeal of their leader, was fully adequate to defend the city, and to repel all the attacks with which it was assailed. Perhaps there are few instances in the annals of modern warfare, in which such persevering and successful courage has been displayed, as by the defenders of Saragossa. The city was frequently bombarded in the midst of the night, at the same time that the gates were attempted to be forced under cover of the shells. The French, more than once, obtained possession of some parts of the town; but they were received with so much coolness and bravery, that they were never able to preserve what they had, with so much difficulty and loss, acquired. The women vied with their husbands, sons, and brothers, in the display of patriotism and contempt of danger; regardless of the fire of the enemy, they rushed into the midst of the battle, administering support and refreshment to the exhausted and wounded, and animating, by their exhortations and example, all ranks to such a display of firmness and bravery, as ultimately to secure this important city.

Another object of great importance to both the contending parties, was to obtain possession of the principal road between Bayonne and Madrid. Cuesta was the Spanish general appointed by the junta to command the army destined to secure that important object. This army consisted partly of peasants and partly of regular troops, which had been collected from different parts in the north of Spain. La-soles was the French general despatched by Marshal Bessieres for the same purpose. The hostile armies met on the 14th of July, at Rio Seco, near Valladolid. The French force consisted of ten thousand infantry, two thousand cavalry, and a large portion of cannon: that of the patriots amounted to fourteen thousand infantry, but they were nearly destitute of cavalry: a body of peasantry was also attached to the regular troops, the army

* "*Guerre au couteau*."—War, even to the knife—was the favourite motto of Palafox, and in these words he replied to the summons of the French general to surrender the city.

was supplied with twenty-six pieces of cannon. The new levies, led on by their ardour and impetuosity, were not to be restrained by the command of their general: they rushed forward as soon as they came near the French, and at the first onset drove them back, and took and spiked four pieces of cannon. Unfortunately, however, the nature of the country, which was level and open, and the consequent advantage which the French gained in their superiority in cavalry, prevented the Spanish army from securing and maintaining their advantage, and obliged them to retreat to Benevento under the cover and protection of a regiment of carabineers, leaving behind them thirteen pieces of cannon. On this occasion, the French suffered so severely, that they were not able to pursue the Spanish army, nor even to take possession of Rio Seco, till several hours after the battle.

At the very commencement of the Spanish insurrection, the patriots had gained possession of most of the sea-ports in the bay of Biscay; and the Bishop of St. Andero, not content with the influence of his exhortations, had set them the example of active and vigorous patriotism. By his means, numerous and well-appointed bodies of men were raised, who marched, with the bishop at their head, in search of such divisions of the French army, in that part of Spain, as they might have a reasonable chance of subduing. But, as the French at Bayonne were sensible of the importance of gaining possession of these ports, both for the purpose of keeping the English supplies from reaching the patriots, and of conveying along the coast reinforcements and supplies to their own army, they despatched a considerable body of men, who took possession of St. Andero. Their triumph, however, was of short duration: in consequence of the advance of General De Ponti with a division of ten thousand men from the Asturian army, the French detachment, afraid of having their retreat cut off, evacuated the town precipitately, having previously committed every kind of depredation and outrage.

One of the most formidable and well-appointed corps which Bonaparte had introduced into the interior of Spain, was that which, under the command of Marshal Moncey, directed its march towards the province of Valencia. This province presents strong natural barriers against invasion, which were defended by a body of troops of the line and a considerable number of the inhabitants; but the French marshal, by a rapid movement, and a sudden and impetuous attack, succeeded in

forcing a passage over the mountains, and immediately advanced to the city of Valencia. On the arrival of Moncey in the precincts of the city, he despatched a flag of truce, promising protection to persons and property, provided the French army were permitted quietly to enter and occupy the city. To this summons, the inhabitants replied, that it was their unanimous resolution not to admit the enemy on any terms, but to defend the place to the last extremity. On receiving this answer, the French prepared immediately for the attack; and fortunately for the Spaniards, they directed their first and principal efforts against the gate of Quarte, which had been fortified in the strongest and most careful manner. Anticipating the attack at this place, the military and armed inhabitants of the city were drawn up in a broad street, which runs directly in front of this gate: so favourable an opportunity for throwing the enemy into confusion, and effecting their destruction with little risk or danger, was not to be neglected; the gate was accordingly thrown open, a twenty-four pounder having been previously placed opposite the entrance; the fire of this piece of artillery fully answered the expectations of the gallant Valencians; the French were soon discovered to be in complete confusion, and they were ultimately obliged to relinquish the attack. In the evening, another attempt was made upon a different gate, but here also the enemy were received with so much coolness and bravery, that they were under the necessity of desisting from their purpose, and soon after commenced a precipitate retreat.

Amidst the universal and instantaneous burst of resistance made to the French yoke, through the various provinces of the Spanish empire, it was not to be expected that the capital would remain in a state of tranquil submission. Murat, fully aware of all that had occurred in the different parts of the kingdom, and of the impression which these events had produced on the people of Madrid, thought it prudent to withdraw his forces from the capital, and to station them on the Retiro, an eminence at a little distance, sufficiently elevated to protect him from a sudden attack, and to give him, in some measure, the command of the city.

While the Spanish troops were everywhere successful, and preparing themselves for new victories; while the insurrection was rapidly spreading and organizing itself in every province, Bonaparte remained at Bayonne, directing or receiving the deliberations of the junta which he had convened, and drawing up a con-

stitution for a people who felt so little gratitude for the intended boon, that it every day became more probable that the constitutional statute could not be forced upon their acceptance. In the early part of the month of June, Joseph, the brother of Napoleon, having taken leave of his good subjects of Naples, arrived at Bayonne, and was announced as the future monarch of Spain. Here, he was received with the most abject adulation, by deputations from the grandees of Spain, and from the council of Castile. In the conference held with the deputies of the supreme court of Inquisition, their future monarch assured them, that he considered the worship of God as the basis of all morality, and of the general prosperity; that other countries allowed of different forms of religion, but that he considered it as the felicity of Spain, that she had but one, and that the true one!

As soon as the new constitution had been submitted to the junta assembled at Bayonne, and received the approbation of that body,* Joseph Bonaparte, accompa-

*The Spanish constitution formed at Bayonne is arranged under thirteen titles, and comprises one hundred and seventeen articles: The first title regards the religion of the state, and declares that "the Catholic-apostolic and Romish religion is the predominant and sole religion of Spain and its dominions; none other shall be tolerated." The second, "That Prince Joseph Napoleon, King of Naples and Sicily, is King of Spain and the Indies." The third, fourth, fifth, and sixth relate to the minority of the king—the property of the crown—the officers of the royal household—and the ministerial appointments. The seventh regards the senate, which is composed, 1st, of the infants of Spain, being eighteen years of age: 2d, of twenty-four individuals specially appointed by the king. By title eight, it is provided that the council of state shall consist of not less than thirty, nor more than sixty members. Title nine regards the cortes or juntas of the nation, which are composed of a hundred and fifty members, divided into three states or orders, namely, those of the clergy, nobility, and people, to meet once at least in three years: The order of the clergy to consist of twenty-five archbishops or bishops; the order of the nobility, of twenty-five nobles, who have the title of grandees of the cortes; the order of the people, of forty deputies from the provinces, thirty from the principal cities, fifteen from the merchants, and fifteen from the universities. The deputies from the provinces to be nominated by the same, in the proportion of at least one to three hundred thousand inhabitants: the sittings of the cortes not to be public; their votes to be taken by ballot; neither the opinions or votes to be printed or published; any act of publication in print or in writing, by the assembly of the cortes, or the individual members thereof, to be regarded as an act of insurrection. By title ten, a colonial representation is appointed. The Spanish colonies in America and Asia to have deputies to the seat of government, charged to watch over their particular interests, and to serve as their representatives in the cortes; these

nied by his principal ministers, among whom were some of the most distinguished names in Spain, set out for the capital of his unconquered kingdom; Murat, on the plea of bad health, having previously quitted that city, and arrived at Bayonne. Under the protection of ten thousand men, Joseph arrived in safety, on the evening of the 20th of July, at Madrid, where he was crowned, amidst the gloom and hatred of the inhabitants. On the very day the new king entered the capital, Dupont surrendered himself and his army prisoners to Castanos. As soon as this news reached Madrid, Joseph and his court found themselves compelled to seek their safety in flight, consoling themselves, however, by carrying off the regalia and plate belonging to the crown. No time, indeed, was to be lost; the army of Castanos, after having defeated Dupont, was marching with rapid and unopposed steps towards the capital; and Bessieres, alarmed for the safety of his troops, had given up his intention of proceeding towards Portugal, and was measuring back his steps to the French frontier. In this situation, Joseph Bonaparte, on the 27th of July, found himself under the necessity of quitting the capital, and of pushing forward as rapidly as possible towards Burgos.

Thus, within the space of two months, did the people of Spain behold their country almost entirely free from the presence of the French; and this glorious and happy issue had been accomplished by their own intrepidity, at a time when their situation was most dispiriting and forlorn; when their king had been compelled to forsake them, and to make over his right to the throne to a foreign potentate; when they beheld themselves surrounded on all sides by the troops of the usurper, they rose in arms, and opposed themselves, unskilled as they were in war, and totally unprepared

deputies, which are twenty in number, are to exercise their functions during the period of eight years. The eleventh and twelfth titles relate to the administration of justice; and title thirteen to general regulations. Under this latter head, it is provided, that there shall be a permanent alliance by sea and land, offensive and defensive, between France and Spain; the residence of every inhabitant of the Spanish territory is an inviolable sanctuary; it can be entered only in the day-time, and for a purpose commanded by law, or in execution of an order issued by the public magistracy. A senatorial commission of personal freedom, consisting of five members, to be chosen by the senate from its own body, and to this commission all persons in custody, and not brought to trial within a month from the day of their commitment, may appeal. The freedom of the press to be regulated, by a law passed by the cortes, two years after the constitutional statute shall have been in operation.

for the contest, to a power before which the mightiest empires in Europe had fallen.

As soon as Joseph Bonaparte and the French army had quitted Madrid, the council of Castile resumed the government, with professions of ardent attachment to the cause of their deposed monarch; but these professions were received with distrust by the patriots, and the government of the country still continued to be administered by the junta of Seville. Under their direction, a supreme government was formed from the juntas of the different provinces, and on the 24th of September the solemn installation of this body took place at the palace of Aranjuez. In order to keep the civil concerns of the kingdom distinct and separate from those of a military nature, it was judged expedient to form a military junta at Madrid; this assembly was composed of five generals, including Castanos and Morla, and the public mind was directed to its proceedings, with no inconsiderable degree of expectation and confidence.

Although the defeat of Dupont had been the signal for the general and speedy retreat of the different French corps, yet after having formed themselves into one body, and reached the confines of Navarre, they did not appear disposed to continue their retreat. Joseph Bonaparte remained with the army, but the principal command rested with Marshal Bessieres. About the beginning of September, the French headquarters were at Logrono, while at the same time the different corps of the patriots were advancing in order to unite, and to force the French beyond the Pyrenees. The occupation of the line of the Ebro was of so much importance to each party, that they both approached towards the banks of this river. The French force was rated at about forty thousand men; that of the Spaniards, which was now placed under the command of Palafox, Castanos, and Blake, at about one hundred thousand. Palafox and Blake, who commanded the eastern and western wings, pushed forward so as to throw the whole of the Spanish army into the form of a crescent: the two points of which stretched beyond the flanks of the enemy. While these generals manœuvred on the flanks, they trusted to the main and centre force, under Castanos, succeeding in routing the centre of the French. It was soon, however, discovered that in point of generalship the enemy were much superior to their opponents: notwithstanding the great superiority in the numbers of the patriots, they could not by the most rapid movements or the strongest pressure of their force, either make an impression on the centre of the

French, or outflank them in such a manner as to compel their retreat. The French, indeed, found themselves under the necessity of abandoning Burgos, and of contracting and concentrating their forces between Vittoria and Pampeluna. But within this space, and to the north side of the Ebro, in a country naturally strong, they bade defiance to the superior force and the various manœuvres of the Spanish generals, and the months of September and October passed without any decisive or important operations.

The inactivity of the Spanish armies, which excited alarm and apprehension in the bosom of their most ardent and sincere well-wishers in England, does not appear to have been considered in Spain itself as discouraging or unpropitious. An expedition, which had been fitted out under Sir Arthur Wellesley, for the purpose, it was supposed, of proceeding against Spanish America, was countermanded on the arrival of the news of the insurrection in Spain. This army, consisting originally of about nine thousand men, set sail from Cork on the 12th of July, and arrived at Corunna on the 20th of the same month. The battle of Medina del Rio Seco had taken place a few days before, and the Spaniards were retreating in every direction. In consequence of this intelligence, Sir Arthur Wellesley offered the assistance of the force under his command to the junta of Galicia; but that body, unintimidated by their late reverses, replied that they wished for nothing from the British government except money, arms, and ammunition. They expressed their firm conviction, however, that the army under Sir Arthur Wellesley might be of infinite service, both to the Portuguese and the Spanish nation, if it were employed in driving the French from Lisbon.

The British government, anxious to assist the patriots in every way that would be most congenial to their feelings and beneficial to their cause, next turned its thoughts to the Spanish troops which Bonaparte had drawn, under the pretence of securing Hanover, to the northern parts of Germany. This force, to the amount of eight thousand men, was stationed in the Danish island of Funen. A negotiation being entered into, between their commander, the Marquis de la Romana, and the British Admiral Keats, in order to effect their liberation, the Spaniards seized the vessels and small craft on the coast, by which they were conveyed to Lange-land, where they joined two thousand of their countrymen. Thus, ten thousand Spanish troops were rescued from the power of Bonaparte, and, after being supplied with every thing of which they

stood in need, were landed on the northern coast of Spain, to support the cause of their country.

While Britain was thus forward and zealous in the cause of Spanish independence, the other nations of the continent gave no signs of a disposition to take advantage of the embarrassments of Bonaparte, to rescue themselves from his power, or to recover the territories and honour they had lost in their wars with the French. The well-known character of Bonaparte; the public manner in which he had pledged himself to place his brother on the throne of Spain; and, perhaps above all, the prospect of a war which would employ his soldiers; gave little reason to expect that he would forego his designs upon that country. On the 5th of September, soon after his return from Bayonne to Paris, a *senatus consultum* was adopted unanimously by the French senate, by which one hundred and sixty thousand men were to be raised for the augmentation of the army. This circumstance, combined with the report of the French minister for foreign affairs, in which it was stated that an army of two hundred thousand men was to be placed at the service of the war in Spain, sufficiently indicated that the insurrections in that country had not shaken his purposes. But it was to his troops, assembled at the periodical parade on the Carousel, that Bonaparte expressed his wishes and opened his plans:—"Soldiers!" said he, "after having triumphed on the banks of the Danube and the Vistula, you have passed through Germany by forced marches. I shall now order you to march through France, without a moment's rest. Soldiers! I have occasion for you. The hideous presence of the leopard contaminates the peninsula of Spain and Portugal! Let your aspect terrify and drive him from thence. Let us carry our conquering eagles to the Pillars of Hercules: there also we have an injury to avenge. Soldiers! you have exceeded the fame of all modern warriors. You have placed yourselves upon a level with the Roman legions, who, in one campaign, were conquerors on the Rhine, on the Euphrates, in Illyria, and on the Tagus. A durable peace and permanent prosperity shall be the fruits of your exertions."

Soon after Napoleon had arranged his military operations, he set out from Paris, to meet his confederates, the dependent German princes and the Emperor Alexander, at Erfurth. The proceedings of this meeting were never suffered to transpire, but it cannot be doubted that one of its objects was to overawe Austria, and to arrange the co-operation of Russia and the

confederate states of the Rhine against her, if she attempted to avail herself of the war in Spain. Another determination and consequence of the conference at Erfurth was soon apparent. On the 21st of October, a Russian officer and a French messenger arrived in England, with proposals from the two emperors to enter into a negotiation for a general peace.* The king of England, while he professed his readiness and his desire to negotiate a peace, declared, that, though he was bound to Spain by no formal instrument, yet that he had in the face of the world contracted engagements with that nation, not less sacred than the most solemn treaties, and that the government acting on the part of his Catholic Majesty, Ferdinand VII., must be a party to any negotiations in which he might engage. To this, the Russian minister† replied, that the Emperor Alexander could by no means admit the plenipotentiaries of the Spanish insurgents. He had already acknowledged King Joseph Napoleon; the union of the two emperors was beyond the reach of all change, and was formed for peace as well as for war. The reply of the French minister,‡ as far as regarded the exclusion of Spain, was equally decisive, but his tone and manner were less decorous; it was impossible, he said, to entertain the proposal which had been made to admit to the negotiation the Spanish insurgents; and he inquired what the

* LETTER from the Emperors Alexander and Napoleon to the King of England:

"SIR,—The present circumstances of Europe have brought us together at Erfurth. Our first thought is to yield to the wish and wants of every people, and to seek, in a speedy pacification with your majesty, the most efficacious remedy for the miseries which oppress all nations. We make known to your majesty our sincere desire in this respect by the present letter.

"The long and bloody war which has torn the continent is at an end, without the possibility of being renewed. Many changes have taken place in Europe; many states have been overthrown. The cause is to be found in the state of agitation and misery in which the stagnation of maritime commerce has placed the greatest nations. Still greater changes may yet take place, and all of them contrary to the policy of the English nation. Peace, then, is at once the interest of the people of the continent, as it is the interest of the people of Great Britain.

"We unite in entreating your majesty to listen to the voice of humanity, silencing that of the passions; to seek, with the intention of arriving at that object, to conciliate all interests, and by that means to preserve all the powers which exist, and to ensure the happiness of Europe, and of the generation at the head of which Providence has placed us.

(Signed)

"ALEXANDER,
"NAPOLEON."

Dated Erfurth, October 12, 1808.

† Count N. de Romanzoff. ‡ M. de Champagny.

English government would have said, had it been proposed to them to admit the Catholic insurgents of Ireland, with whom France, without having any treaties with them, had been in communication, to whom she had made promises, and had frequently sent succours. The British minister,* in reply, without condescending to notice the topics and expressions insulting to his majesty and his allies, declared it to be his majesty's determination not to abandon the cause of the Spanish nation, and of the legitimate monarchy of Spain; to do which, would be to acquiesce in a usurpation without a parallel in the history of the world. To this note, dated the 9th of December, no official answer was returned, either by the Emperor of France or Russia, and upon this point the negotiation terminated.

While the intercourse was carried on between the court of St. James's and the ministers of the two emperors, Bonaparte was by no means inattentive to the means of prosecuting the war in Spain with his utmost strength and energy. Before he left Paris for Erfurth, the march of his troops towards that country had begun, and it was continued without intermission during his absence. On his return, he addressed the legislative body, in a speech filled with his plans and expectations. He made known to them the perfect union of sentiment between himself and the Emperor of Russia, with respect both to peace and to war; and he assured them that they had determined to make sacrifices, in order to procure for the hundred millions of men whom they represented, an early enjoyment of the commerce of the seas. That the relinquishment of his designs upon Spain was not one of the sacrifices intended to be made by Bonaparte, was announced in his resolution to depart in a few days, for the purpose of putting himself at the head of his armies; and by their means to crown the King of Spain at Madrid, and to plant his eagles on the forts of Lisbon.

In the beginning of November, the centre army of Spain, commanded by Castanos, quitted its position on the line of the Ebro, and concentrated itself on the left bank of the Aragon, occupying a line from Villa Franca to Sanguessa. The army of Blake in Biscay was stationed on the right wing of the French. The army of Estramadura, under the command of Count Belveder, which was placed at Burgos, expected to be joined by British reinforcements to the amount of twenty-nine thousand men, who were advancing from Portugal and Coruna, under Generals Sir John Moore and

Sir David Baird. The force under the Marquis de la Romana had joined General Blake, and swelled his army to more than thirty thousand men. The united army of Castanos and Palafox was estimated at sixty thousand, and the army of Estramadura at twenty thousand men. In the beginning of the same month, the headquarters of the French army were removed to Vittoria; and on the 8th, the Emperor Napoleon, accompanied by a reinforcement of twelve thousand men, arrived in that city. The corps of the Duke of Cornegliano was posted at Kafalla, the left of his army having its position along the banks of the Aragon and the Ebro; the division of the Duke of Echlingen was at Guarda; the Duke of Istria was at Muanda, while part of his corps formed the garrison of Port Pancuba. The heights of Durango were occupied by the division of General Merlin, who guarded the heights of Mondragon from the threatened attack of the Spaniards.

As the army under the command of General Blake, was at some distance from the united force of Palafox and Castanos, the first offensive operation of the French was to interpose their force between the Spanish armies, and if possible to break into pieces the army of General Blake. On the 31st of October, the French commenced the attack on the Spaniards at Lornosa; after a long and well-contested action, General Blake was obliged to fall back, with the intention of forming a junction with the Asturian army; and his retreat was conducted in the best possible order, without the loss of either cannon, colours, or prisoners. In his march, he was joined by the Asturians, the troops of the north, and the fourth division of Galicia. The French pursued them with great speed; and on the 3d of November, they took possession of Bilbao. General Blake had scarcely taken up his position, and concentrated his army at Valmaseda, when he received information that a division of the French army, amounting to ten thousand men, were proceeding along the heights of Ontara, in order to take by surprise and cut off a part of his force, which occupied that place. For the purpose of protecting this body, and turning the manœuvre of the French against themselves, he left his position at Valmaseda at break of day on the 5th of November, and by one o'clock came up with and attacked the enemy. This battle, which equalled in obstinacy and perseverance that of the 31st of October, terminated in the complete defeat of the French, who were routed with great slaughter, and lost a considerable number of prisoners. On the 11th, the

* Mr. Canning.

battle was renewed; when unfortunately the left wing of General Blake's army, which was composed of the Asturians, sustained a complete rout, and a general retreat became unavoidable. The consequence of this disaster was fatal to the Spaniards; they were thrown into extreme confusion, and a large portion of the army began to disperse. On the following day, General Blake fell back on Reynosa, one of the strongest positions in the chain of mountains which stretch from east to west, along the boundary of the province of Biscay. There he intended to concentrate his forces, and to make a stand against the enemy. But it was the plan of the French to allow him no respite or intermission, until they had succeeded in rendering his army ineffectual, by dispersion or slaughter; and they did not quit the attack, or give up their pursuit, till they had disqualified the Spanish general for taking any formidable share in the subsequent operations of the campaign.

At the time that one part of the French army was attacking General Blake in Biscay, another part of the enemy's force directed its course towards the city of Burgos. The Duke of Istria led on the cavalry, and the Duke of Dalmatia, the infantry, which Bonaparte despatched to the attack of the Estramaduran army at that place. Three attacks were made on the city. In the first two, the French were repulsed with considerable loss; at the third attack, which took place on the 10th of November, the issue was for a long time doubtful; the Spanish forces bravely resisted, and for thirteen hours repelled the assailants; but at last, by the great superiority of their numbers in point of cavalry, the French succeeded in compelling them to leave Burgos, and to retreat to Lerma. The enemy continued the pursuit with undiminished vigour, and the remains of the Estramaduran army, after undergoing many hardships, at last formed its head-quarters at Segovia.

Bonaparte, having thus succeeded against the patriotic armies in the north-west of Spain, suddenly and unexpectedly directed his efforts against the forces under Castanos, on the Ebro. For this purpose, the divisions of Ney and Victor were despatched with a celerity unusual even in the movements of the French army, from Burgos towards Villa Franca. The first advances of the enemy against Castanos, were made on the 21st of November, with twelve thousand infantry, and four thousand cavalry, on the lines of Coma. In consequence of this movement, the Spanish general fell immediately back, and occupied a position from Tarragona to Tudela,

the troops of the army of Arragon resting upon the latter place. On the 23d, three columns of the enemy were perceived marching in the direction of Tudela, and by eight o'clock in the morning he had occupied all the points of attack. Part of the field of battle was commanded by heights, which Castanos had neglected to occupy. Of this oversight, the French took advantage, and at the same time penetrating the centre of the Spaniards, they completely decided the fortune of the day. One division of the Spanish army was successful, and compelled the enemy to retreat; but, following the pursuit too far, they were taken in the rear by a party of the French army, which had penetrated through Tudela to the right. The Spaniards, thus broken into separate divisions, could not support each other, and a retreat became unavoidable. It is difficult to ascertain the exact loss sustained by Castanos in this engagement; but the French assert that the fruits of their victory were five thousand prisoners; and that four thousand Spaniards were left dead upon the field.

Thus, in the short space of three weeks, were the grand armies of Blake, Castanos, and Count Belveder, on which the principal hopes of the Spanish nation rested for the defence of the capital and the north of Spain, defeated, and in a great measure dispersed. In this, as in all his other campaigns, Bonaparte acted upon one simple principle; he brought his whole force to bear upon one well-chosen point; forced his way through the line in that quarter, and after having defeated one of his adversaries, directed his attention towards the weakened, alarmed, and dispirited remainder. This system, so much resembling Lord Nelson's naval tactics, he found equally successful, whether directed to the attack of a post, or the combination of entire campaigns. During these disasters of the Spanish army, the troops which had been sent by Great Britain to the aid of the patriots, were not far enough advanced, either to support their allies, or to oppose any efficient check to the progress of the enemy. Sir John Moore, with about fifteen thousand men, arrived at Salamanca on the 14th of November. Sir David Baird was at Astorga at the same time, with about fourteen thousand men; and a brigade of ten thousand men, under General Hope, were on their route towards Madrid. In consequence of the rapid advances and successes of the French, General Hope, after having reached the Escorial, found it expedient to retreat, and form a junction with Sir John Moore; and upon the latter receiving

intelligence of the defeat of the army of Castanos, all the British forces began their retreat, but the two divisions soon after resumed their respective positions at Astorga and Salamanca.

On the 29d of November, eleven days after the battle of Tudela, the emperor removed his head-quarters from Burgos, and marched against Madrid, by the direct road of the Castiles. The van-guard of the emperor's army arrived at daybreak on the 30th at the foot of the Somo Sierra. The Puerto, a passage of this mountain, was defended by a division of from twelve to fifteen thousand Spaniards, and by a battery of sixteen pieces of cannon. After an animated resistance, the Spaniards, finding themselves too weak to withstand the powerful army to which they were opposed, sought safety in flight, leaving their cannon in the hands of the enemy. On the 3d of December, Bonaparte, preceding the main body of his army, arrived, with his cavalry only, on the heights that overlook the capital of Spain. Instead of the order generally perceived on approaching fortified towns, where all the circumstances of the war are foreseen; instead of that silence, which is interrupted only by the deep and lengthened call of "*Sentry, take heed*," the bells of the six hundred churches of Madrid were heard ringing in continued peals, interrupted only by the piercing cries of the populace, and the quick roll of the drum. The inhabitants of Madrid had thought of their defence only eight days before the arrival of the French armies, and all their preparations were marked by precipitation and inexperience. One of Marshal Bessieres' aides-de-camp was sent in the morning to summon Madrid; but when it was known that he was the bearer of a proposal for the city to submit to the French, he narrowly escaped being torn to pieces by the enraged inhabitants, and owed his life to the protection of the Spanish troops of the line. At nine o'clock in the morning of the 3d, the cannonade commenced. Thirty pieces of cannon, under the command of General Cernamont, battered the walls of the Retiro, while twenty other pieces, and some light troops, made a false attack in another quarter, for the purpose of distracting the attention of the patriots, and obliging them to divide their forces. In less than an hour, the four thousand Spanish regulars who defended the gardens of the Retiro, were overthrown; and at eleven o'clock the French soldiers occupied the important posts of the Observatory, the China Manufactory, the great barracks, and the palace of Medina Cœli. The cannonade then ceased, and another envoy

was sent into the city, to demand its surrender. At five o'clock in the afternoon, General Morla, chief of the military junta, and Don B. Yriarte, deputed from the city, departed for the head-quarters of the emperor with the French envoy, and were conducted to the tent of the Prince of Neufchatel. In the mean time, the inhabitants refused to lay down their arms, and continued to fire upon the French from the windows of the houses surrounding the public walk of the Prado. Fifty thousand armed inhabitants, without any discipline, ran about the streets, vociferating for orders, and accusing their leaders of treason. The captain-general, Marquis of Castellar, and other military men of rank, quitted Madrid during the night of the 3d, with the regular troops, and sixteen pieces of cannon. On the 4th of December, at six o'clock in the morning, another deputation was despatched from the city to the tent of the Prince of Neufchatel, and at ten o'clock the French troops took possession of Madrid. (64)

It is impossible to review the affairs of Spain, without lamenting the contrast which they exhibited in the months of August and December. At the former period, every thing connected with the cause of the patriots was bright and cheering: the French armies were flying in every direction, defeated by raw and undisciplined levies, or reduced to the necessity of submitting to capitulation. The sovereign, who had been placed on the throne of Spain, after the nominal occupation of Madrid for a few days, fled in the most precipitate manner at the approach of the Spanish armies. At that period, the whole kingdom of Spain, with the exception of the frontier provinces of the north, was freed from the presence of French troops; and those which remained, reduced in numbers, and dispirited by their flight and defeats, were under the necessity of acting solely on the defensive. In the month of December, what a reverse does the picture present! The armies of Blake, Castanos, and Belveder, had been

(64) At Madrid, on the 4th of December, the famous decree of Napoleon was issued, by which the tribunal of the Inquisition was abolished, the convents in Spain reduced to one-third their former number, and the council of Castile dissolved. In this step, he does not appear to have displayed his usual clear-sightedness and wisdom. The overthrow of priestly influence was, in the abstract, a very laudable measure, but its consequences were very injurious to his interests: and he had sufficient opportunity afterwards to discover the incorrectness of the remark he is said to have made to M. d'Escoiquiz. "*Croyez moi, charoite, les pays ou il y a beaucoup des moines, sont faciles a subjuguier: j'en ai l'experience.*"

defeated and dispersed; the capital was again in the possession of the enemy; his immense armies, constantly increasing, spread themselves over the whole of the north and the centre of Spain; while the whole remaining hope of the patriots rested with the southern provinces, and with the troops that might be able to collect and rally in the other parts of the kingdom.

While Bonaparte was carrying on his schemes against Spain, he was not inattentive to her valuable possessions in America. No sooner had he procured from Charles and Ferdinand the abdication of the throne in his favour, than he sent despatches by different fast-sailing vessels to their principal settlements. Fortunately, most of these vessels were taken by the British cruisers, so that before the despatches of Bonaparte appeared, the inhabitants of Spanish America were accurately informed of the events which had occurred in the mother country; of the treachery and violence which had been employed against the sovereign and his family; and of the insurrection of the "universal Spanish nation" against the French invaders. On the arrival of such of the vessels as had escaped the British cruisers, the crews were seized and imprisoned. Hostilities were declared against France in the Spanish West Indies, and in many parts of the main. Ferdinand VII. was proclaimed; the English were received and treated as friends, and voluntary contributions in aid of the patriots were raised and transmitted to Europe.

Two grand objects occupied the mind of Bonaparte, and gave birth to most of his acts of atrocity and violence in the peninsula of Spain and Portugal; the aggrandizement of his own family, and the exclusion of British commerce from the continent; in order to further the accomplishment of these objects, Spain was deprived of her legitimate monarch, and made the seat of a sanguinary war; and the Prince-regent of Portugal was driven to seek a safer throne in the Brazils, while Portugal was overrun by the army of Junot, Duke of Abrantes.* From the deep-rooted aversion of the Portuguese to the French, Junot soon discovered that his situation in Lisbon was by no means desirable, and that all his exertions would be required to preserve the public tranquillity. By the constant and vigorous blockade of the port, the inhabitants began to experience much inconvenience, and were threatened with all the horrors and calamities of famine. Trade was entirely destroyed; money was so scarce, that there was no

sale for any goods except those of the most pressing necessity; scarcely any merchants paid their bills, or accepted those which were drawn upon them; the India House was shut up; and every thing bore the appearance of gloom and despondency. From all these causes, the minds of the people were excited to an extreme state of irritation; disturbances frequently occurred in the city; and in the surrounding country assassinations were daily committed.* The hoisting of the French colours aroused the populace against their invaders; and the soldiers were obliged to fire repeatedly upon them, before they could be compelled to disperse.

It is highly probable, however, that the French force would have eventually brought the inhabitants of Lisbon under complete subjection, notwithstanding the pressure of the calamities from inadequate and dear provisions, and from the total stagnation of trade under which they laboured, had not the Spaniards armed themselves in so general and determined a manner against the tyranny and the designs of Bonaparte. The news of this insurrection soon reached Portugal; the inhabitants of Lisbon, kept in awe and subjection by the army of Junot, were prevented at first from manifesting their joy at the intelligence. At Oporto, however, circumstances were more favourable to the wishes and the efforts of the Portuguese. A considerable body of Spanish troops occupied that city; as soon as they were made acquainted with the occurrences in their own country, and had learned that their services were required to avenge the captivity of their monarch, and to regain the independence and tranquillity of Spain, they determined to quit Oporto, for the purpose of swelling the patriotic ranks of their countrymen. But, before their departure, they took the French general and all his staff prisoners, and delivered up the government of the city to Louise D'Oliveira, who had filled that office before the arrival of the French. As soon as the governor had resumed his functions, he ordered the Portuguese flag to be hoisted, and opened a friendly communication with the captain of an English frigate, which was cruising off that port.

The conduct of Oporto served as an example for the other parts of Portugal, and nearly the whole of the north of that kingdom rose in arms against the French. The inhabitants of the south do not appear to have come forward so generally, nor in so open and determined a manner, being

* See book iv. chap. v. p. 43.

* General Junot's proclamation prohibiting the use of fire-arms.

kept back, in some measure, from their vicinity to the army of Junot, and by a strong and numerous French party among themselves. No sooner were the French expelled from the northern provinces of Portugal, and the authority of the prince-regent re-established, than provincial juntas, similar in their character and functions to those in Spain, were formed. Of these assemblies, that which met at Oporto exerted itself with the greatest zeal and effect in increasing and directing the enthusiasm and patriotism of the people, and in the establishment of such regulations and orders as the peculiar circumstances of the country demanded. After having taken the necessary steps for raising and supporting their army, the junta of Oporto turned their attention towards England for assistance and support; and the army of Sir Arthur Wellesley, which had, in the first instance, been offered to the Spaniards, ultimately disembarked in Portugal. Destined to the profession of arms, and educated in the military academy at Angers, the commander of this expedition, now in the 40th year of his age, had served at Ostend, in Holland, and in Denmark; but he had particularly distinguished himself in India, in the Mahratta war with Scindiah,* while his brother, the Marquis of Wellesley, was governor-general, and had exhibited indications of those talents, by which, in the subsequent prosecution of his military career, the sceptre of Charlemagne was to be wrested from the grasp of its possessor, and Europe was to be liberated from a military despotism, extending its power or influence from the Tagus to the Baltic Sea.

The force sent to Portugal under Sir Arthur Wellesley, consisted of nearly nine thousand men, and was subsequently augmented by reinforcements from the south of Spain, under General Spencer; from England, under Generals Anstruther and Ackland; and from the Baltic, under Sir John Moore. On the arrival of the expedition at Oporto, on the 24th of July, the commander-in-chief was informed by the bishop, that the Portuguese force in that quarter was sufficient to repel the attacks of the enemy; and, after a consultation with Sir Charles Cotton, the British admiral stationed off the Tagus, Sir Arthur Wellesley determined to effect a landing in the bay of Mondego, having previously given orders to General Spencer to join him at that place. It was at the same time determined, in concert with the junta of Oporto, that five thousand Portuguese troops should co-operate with the British army against the enemy, while the re-

mainder of the native forces continued in the neighbourhood of Oporto. Before the disembarkation of the troops, the British general received advice from government, that five thousand men, under Generals Anstruther and Ackland, were proceeding to join him, and that about eleven thousand more, under Sir John Moore, lately returned from the Baltic, would speedily be despatched for the same purpose. About the same time, he received information that the army of General Junot, consisting of about twenty thousand men, had been considerably weakened, owing to that general having found it necessary to despatch General Loison with about six thousand troops into the province of Montejo, to quell an insurrection in the south of Portugal. This information induced Sir Arthur Wellesley to commence the disembarkation of the troops without delay; soon after they had landed, the force under General Spencer arrived, and on the 9th of August, advanced with the main body from Mondego bay on the road to Lisbon.*

Unfortunately, a coolness arose between the Portuguese and the English generals, owing to a demand made by the former for a supply of provisions from the British stores, with which it was found impossible to comply, without exposing the British

* ENGLISH AND FRENCH FORCE, employed in PORTUGAL.

(From an Official Return made in July, 1808.)

ENGLISH.

<i>Sir Arthur Wellesley</i> —5th foot, 1st bat. 990; 9th regt. 833; 38th regt. 957; 40th regt. 843; 60th regt. 936; 71st regt. 903; 91st regt. 917; 95th regt. four companies, 400; royal veteran battalion, 4 bats. 737; 36th foot, 1st bat. 647; 45th regt. 599. Also a detachment of the 20th light dragoons, about 300	9,062
<i>General Spencer</i> —Artillery 269; royal staff corps, 48; 6th regt. 1st. bat. 1,020; 29th regt. 863; 32d regt. 941; 50th regt. 1,019; 82d regt. 991	5,151
<i>General Anstruther's Brigade</i> —9th regt. foot, 2d bat. 675; 43d regt. 861; 52d regt. 858; 97th regt. 769	3,163
<i>General Ackland's Brigade</i> —Queen's, 913; 20th regt. 689; 95th regt. two companies, 180	1,782
<i>Sir John Moore</i> —(English)—4th foot, 1st bat. 1,006; 28th regt. 1,067; 79th regt. 913; 92d regt. 927; 95th regt. two companies, 300	4,233
(Germans)—3d light dragoons, 597; 1st bat. light infantry, 930; 2d bat. 916; 1st bat. line, 942; 2d bat. 770; 5th regt. 779; 7th regt. 697; 52d, 1st bat. 1,000; 18th light dragoons (to join), 640	7,371
One regt. under the command of Major-general Borenford (to join from Madeira).	

Total British force (of which 1,637 were cavalry, and 29,086 infantry) . . . 30,663

* See vol. i. book iii. chap. iii. page 477.

troops to insufficient and precarious sustenance. In consequence of this difference, the Portuguese troops separated from the English, but on the urgent representation of Sir Arthur Wellesley, and a promise on his part to supply them with provisions, one thousand regular infantry, four hundred light troops, and two hundred and fifty cavalry, joined the British army at Alcobaca, on the evening of the 14th, with Colonel Trant, and continued with him during the remainder of the operations. On the 15th, the advanced guard of the British army came up for the first time with a party of the French at Ovidas, when a slight action took place, occasioned principally by the eagerness of the British to attack and pursue the enemy. On the 16th, the army halted, and the next day Sir Arthur Wellesley formed the determination to attack General Laborde at Roleia. This place is situated on an eminence, with a plain at the end of a valley on its front. On the hills, on both sides of this valley, the enemy had stationed his force; his right resting on the hills, the left on an eminence, and the whole covering and protecting the passes of the mountains which lay in his rear. The French force, thus strongly and advantageously posted, consisted of about six thousand men, with five pieces of cannon; and the British general, having reason to believe that the right of the enemy would be strengthened by the arrival of a fresh force in the course of the night, under Loison, formed his plan of attack accordingly; the right, consisting of the few Portuguese auxiliaries, was appointed to turn the left of the enemy; the left, under the command of General Ferguson, was destined to ascend the hills, in order to turn the enemy's posts on the left of the valley; and the centre columns of the English army were ordered to act against the front of the enemy. By this judicious and skilful plan of attack, carried into execution on all sides with the utmost exactness and bravery, the French were soon driven from their position, and compelled to retire by the passes into the

mountains; their retreat they effected with great celerity, and without the least confusion or disorder. The British infantry in vain endeavoured to overtake them, and to complete the discomfiture which they had so successfully begun. As soon as the French reached the mountains, they occupied a very formidable position. All the passes were defended by the enemy, particularly that which was attacked by the 9th and 29th regiments. These regiments had advanced with so much rapidity, that they reached the front of the enemy's line before the arrival of the corps which had been despatched to attack the flanks; a most desperate battle ensued, attended with very considerable loss on the side of the British; but at the close of the day the enemy was driven from all the passes of the mountains, which he had previously occupied, and part of the British troops reached the plains on their summit. The enemy, in order to cover the retreat of his defeated army, made three distinct, desperate, and gallant attacks upon the two regiments which first reached the mountains; in all of which, he was completely repulsed; and his retreat might have been cut off, had the British army been supplied with the usual proportion of cavalry. The loss of the enemy in this action was very considerable, and three pieces of artillery fell into the hands of the British. Our loss in killed, wounded, and missing, amounted to nearly five hundred.

On the 18th, the British army moved to Lourinha, in order to cover the debarkation of the troops under Generals Anstruther and Ackland, which took place on the 20th; and on the 21st they resumed their march towards Lisbon. Junot, having been informed of the reinforcements which the British army expected under the command of Sir John Moore, resolved, notwithstanding the defeat of his troops at Roleia on the 17th, to attack the British before their reinforcements arrived; for this purpose, he left Lisbon with nearly the whole of his disposable force, amounting to about fourteen thousand men, and on the morning of the 21st came up with the army under Sir Arthur Wellesley, at Vimiera. This village stands in a valley, through which runs the river Maceira; on the west and north of the village, is a mountain, the western point of which touches the sea, and the eastern is separated by a deep ravine from the heights, over which passes the road from Lourinha. The greater part of the British infantry, with eight pieces of artillery, were posted on this mountain, under Generals Hill and Ferguson. The riflemen, under General Fane, and the brigade of General Anstru-

FRENCH.

In Lisbon and the neighbour-	Infantry	9,000
hood,	Cavalry	2,000
In forts south of the Tagus,		1,600
Troops marched to the eastern frontier of Portugal,		1,700
Foreign infantry,		3,200
In other parts of Portugal,		3,000
One hundred and fifty Russians landed from each ship, and on duty at Lisbon.		
Very little French artillery in Portugal.		

Total French force, 20,500

(Signed) G. W. TUCKER, Lieut.-colonel.

ther, were posted on a hill to the south-west of the village, which is entirely commanded by the mountain on which the troops under Generals Hill and Ferguson were stationed. The cavalry and reserve of artillery were placed in the valley between the hills. Soon after the enemy appeared, it became obvious that his intention was to attack the advanced guard on the left wing; and the positions of the British army were immediately changed, in order to repel the threatened attack. The French army, formed into several columns, began their attack upon the whole of the troops on the heights in the south-east quarter, and they advanced on the left, notwithstanding the fire of the riflemen, close to the fiftieth regiment; but they were checked and driven back by the bayonets of that corps. The 43d regiment, forming the second battalion, was likewise closely engaged with them in the road which leads to Vimiera, a part of that corps having been placed in the churchyard, in order to prevent them penetrating into the town: here also the engagement commenced early in the day, and here again the enemy was repulsed by the bayonets of the 97th regiment, supported by the 52d regiment, which, by an advance in column, took the enemy in flank. On these points, the British army had acted merely on the defensive; but General Anstruther, advancing for the purpose of occupying his position on the left, attacked their flank, which suffered severely from his fire, combined with the fire of the artillery, which was placed on the same heights as this brigade. The engagement on this eminence was long and obstinately contested; but at length the French were repulsed and thrown into complete confusion, leaving behind them in their flight seven pieces of cannon, and a great number of killed, wounded, and prisoners. A detachment of the 20th light dragoons pursued the retreating enemy, but owing to their superiority in cavalry, this detachment suffered much, and Lieutenant-colonel Taylor was unfortunately killed. Nearly at the same time, the enemy commenced an attack upon the heights on the road to Lourinha: a large body of cavalry supported this operation, which was begun with their usual impetuosity; Major-general Ferguson's brigade, consisting of the 36th, 40th, and 71st regiments, received this attack with steadiness. As soon as the enemy approached, they charged him in their turn, and again he gave way before the rampart of British bayonets with which he was resisted. As the enemy retreated, the British troops advanced, and in their victorious career, took six pieces of cannon, and a great number of prisoners. The last

effort of the French was directed to the recovery of part of their artillery: for this purpose, they attacked the 71st and 82d regiments, which had halted in the valley, where the captured artillery lay. The attack was so impetuous, as to oblige the British regiments to retire from the low ground to the heights, which they had no sooner attained, than they faced about and fired upon the enemy, and ultimately compelled him to retire from the valley with great loss, and without having accomplished the object of his enterprise.

In this action, in which the whole of the French force in Portugal was employed, under the command of the Duke of Abrantes in person; in which the enemy was certainly superior in cavalry and artillery, and in which not more than half of the British army was actually engaged,* the French sustained a signal defeat, and lost thirteen pieces of cannon, twenty-three ammunition wagons, and twenty thousand rounds of musket ammunition, with about three thousand men, killed, wounded, and prisoners; while the total loss of the British did not exceed eight hundred. The great superiority of the British troops, in that most essential quality of a soldier—cool, steady, and persevering courage, was decisively and gloriously displayed throughout the whole of this memorable battle. The celebrated manœuvre, to which Bonaparte is indebted for all his victories—that of attacking by column, and endeavouring to break the line of his opponents, was attempted to be put in practice by Junot on the present occasion; but the attempt, though made with all the characteristic impetuosity of French tactics, completely failed. The British line remained firm and unbroken; and when they, in their turn, charged with the bayonet, they proved themselves as much superior to the French in attack, as they were in defence. The enemy fled from the charge in dismay; and this, as well as every other battle in which the British have had recourse to the bayonet, proves that with that weapon they are irresistible.†(65)

* Sir Arthur Wellesley's despatches, dated Vimiera, August 22d, 1808.

† Of the many anecdotes relative to the battle of Vimiera, that prove and illustrate the honourable disposition, as well as the personal courage of the British soldiery, two are especially worthy of being recorded. The French General Bernier, who was wounded and made prisoner, was rescued from the hands of the infuriated Portuguese by a Highland corporal, of the name of Mackay, in the 71st regiment; the general, under an impulse of gratitude, presented Mackay with his watch and purse, but the gallant Caledonian declined to accept any remuneration from the hands of a fallen enemy, asserting that he had only done his duty. The other

Sir Harry Burrard had joined the British army on the morning of the battle of Vimiera, after the dispositions had been made, but before the action begun : with a feel-

ing of delicacy towards Sir Arthur Wellesley, honourable to himself, he declined assuming the command, till that general should have completed the operation which

hero was a Highland piper in the same regiment ; early in the action he received a desperate wound in the thigh, which prevented him from marching, but placing himself on the ground, he began to play his pipes with more than usual energy, exclaiming, " Weel, my bra' lads, I can gang nee farther wi' ye a-fighting ; but deel hae me if ye aal want music : " and so saying, he continued, during the engagement, to animate the men with his martial music. Both these heroes were rewarded, the corporal with a commission, and the piper, whose name was Stewart, with a handsome stand of Highland pipes.

(65) This effusion of national vanity will cause a smile in those who remember the campaigns of the British in Holland and America. As it is impossible, however, to arrive at any degree of certainty with respect to military operations, without hearing the statements of both sides, we annex a brief account of this engagement, and the subsequent convention, extracted from the " *Campagne de l'Armée Française, en Portugal*," by an officer of the état-major of that army.

"The retreat of the French from Madrid upon the Ebro, by depriving the little army of Portugal of all support and succour, seemed to render its destruction certain. The vicinity of an English fleet, the expectation of an approaching debarkation, the facility with which a communication was kept up on a coast of so great an extent, three-fourths of which could not be guarded, the intelligence of what was passing in Spain at the moment ; in a word, all the steps of a conspiracy, taken openly and without its being possible to prevent them, prepared the people daily for a general revolt. The insurrection soon broke out in all quarters, and large multitudes began to threaten the capital in different directions. Subsequently to the month of June, the army was kept constantly occupied in a series of engagements with the peasantry, which took place in a radius of two leagues around Lisbon ; but when, in the course of July, the English army landed at the mouth of the Mondego, the prospect of being able to make head against so many enemies at once appeared hopeless. The French, however, did not suffer themselves to be discouraged by these gloomy prospects, but resolved to maintain their ground to the last extremity, without regard to the number of their enemies. They were at this period reduced to 18,000 combatants. After the formation of several detachments for the purpose of dispersing the numerous corps of insurgents, who were advancing by both the banks of the Tagus, and were already masters of Abrantes, of maintaining tranquillity among the immense population of Lisbon, of putting the neighbouring coast in security against an attack from the English fleet, and of occupying the forts which defended the entrance of the harbour, there remained only 8,500 men in a condition to march against the English army. It is worthy of remark, that if the English had pushed on with less caution (*attonnement*) and timidity, they might have arrived several days earlier in the neighbourhood of the Tagus, have prevented the junction of these forces, and presented themselves, almost without striking a blow, before the capital, the inhabitants of which, restrained until then, would have immediately declared in their favour.

"It was with forces so greatly inferior, that the French ventured to encounter the English army. The latter was found occupying a strong position near to Vimiera, resting against the sea, and protected by the fire of several vessels of war. It was computed at 22,000 men, although the division of General Moore had not yet debarked. This last body had come directly from Stockholm, without stopping in England, and was composed of 10,000 men, whose discipline and the talents of their commander were the constant theme of conversation in the British army. The French, anxious to meet their enemies, began the attack with too much precipitation and impetuosity, before even the field of battle had been sufficiently reconnoitred. The consequence was, that nothing was done systematically ; and that this engagement had more the appearance of a brisk and sanguinary skirmish, than a regular battle. After a three hours conflict, equally bloody for both parties, the French returned to the ground they had occupied previous to the affair, and reformed their ranks before the eyes, and under the cannon of the enemy, without the slightest molestation from the latter ; and, in the course of the same evening, passed quietly through a dangerous defile in their rear, and took up a position near to Torres Vedras. During the night, General Kellerman, who had been sent to the English headquarters under different pretexts, signed the preliminaries of a convention with Sir Arthur Wellesley, now Lord Wellington, who commanded in chief, *par interim*, during the action. It was provided by this treaty, that the French army, with all the foreigners and Portuguese who wished to partake of its fortunes, should be transported to France in English vessels ; the army with its artillery, its munitions, its arms, its horses, and its baggage ; the other individuals with their property, or a guarantee that what they left behind should be respected. There were at that time in the Tagus, six Russian ships of the line, and some smaller vessels, which the French wished to associate with their own destinies, in conformity to the treaties which united the two nations ; but in consequence of some perfidious insinuations, Admiral Sinavin persisted in wishing to treat on his own account, and he was, contrary to his expectation, forced to subscribe to humiliating conditions. Such was the issue of the first expedition of the French into Portugal, of the battle of Vimiera, and the convention of Cintra, about which so much noise has been made in England, and all the odium of which has been very unjustly thrown upon General Dalrymple, the commander-in-chief of the land forces. It is certain that considerable boldness and address were displayed by the French in extricating themselves from so awkward a situation, and that the British pride must have been grievously wounded at seeing a handful of French, without hopes of success, overpowered by numbers, and in the midst of an irritated population, treating on a footing of equality with forces so superior by land and sea, and even requiring to be comfortably conveyed to France in the vessels of the enemy, without, on their part, having made the slightest sacrifice. Scarcely had these troops been debarked upon the coasts of Brittany, before they again took the road to Portugal."—p. x. xiv. &c.

he had so well arranged. On the 23d, the day after the battle, Sir Hew Dalrymple, who had been ordered from his situation as Lieutenant-governor of Gibraltar, for the purpose of taking the command of all the different corps sent by the British government into Portugal, reached Cintra, the place to which the British army had moved. A very few hours after his arrival, a flag of truce came in from Junot, with a proposal for a cessation of hostilities, in order that a convention, by which the French should evacuate Portugal, might be settled and agreed upon. An armistice was accordingly signed by General Kellerman, on the part of the French, and Sir Arthur Wellesley on behalf of the English, the principal articles of which formed the basis of the convention of Cintra. By the definitive convention, so extraordinary in all its articles, it was agreed, that the English government should be at the expense of transporting the whole of the French army to any of the ports in France, between Rochefort and L'Orient. When the army arrived in France, they were to be at liberty to serve again immediately. All the property of the French army, as well as the property of the individuals, was to be sacred and untouched, and might either be sold in Portugal, or carried off into France. The embarkation was to take place in three divisions; the first to sail within seven days from the date of the ratification of the convention. No native of Portugal was to be molested, or considered accountable for his political conduct, during the time the French had occupied that country; and such of them as were desirous of withdrawing into France, were to have full liberty to dispose of their property. When the insurrection in Spain first broke out, Junot had ordered a number of the Spanish troops, serving in his army, into confinement in the ships in the harbour, and in return for the delivering up of these Spaniards, the commander-in-chief of the British army engaged to obtain, from the Spanish juntas, the release or restoration of such French subjects, either military or civil, as might have been detained in Spain, in consequence of the events that occurred about the end of May and the beginning of June. Respecting the Russian fleet, which, by the articles of the armistice was to be allowed to depart from the Tagus without molestation, a convention was agreed to by Sir Charles Cotton and Admiral Siniavin, the Russian admiral, by which the ships and stores were to be delivered up immediately, and sent to England; there to be held as a deposit, and not to be restored till six months after the

conclusion of a peace between Russia and Great Britain. The Russian admiral, officers, seamen, and marines, were to be allowed to return to Russia, at the expense of the British government, without any stipulation with regard to their future services.

Had not the battle of Vimiera exhibited the most decisive evidence that the British army were victorious on that memorable day, the fact would scarcely have been deduced from the convention of Cintra. In Portugal, as well as in England, the terms of the convention produced loud murmurs and universal discontent. General BERNARDIN FREIRE, commander of the Portuguese troops, entered a formal protest against the convention; and the coolness and alienation which had already so unfortunately taken place, were, by this means, aggravated to a degree nearly approaching to open hostility. On the 15th of September, the French troops completed their embarkation, after a variety of discussions upon the execution of the convention; and on that day the kingdom of Portugal was completely freed from the presence of an enemy, who, for ten months, had inflicted upon the country the most severe calamities and privations.*

That the state and disposition of Portugal did not realize the public expectation, after the expulsion of the French, is evident, from the large portion of the British army which remained in that country, at a time when their services were imperiously demanded by the situation of Spain. As the defeat of Junot and the liberation of Portugal were only mediate, and not the final objects of the British expedition, as soon as that service was accomplished, the troops ought to have proceeded, without delay, to the assistance of the Spanish patriots. By sea, they could not be sent, the transports being all occupied in restoring the conquered French army to their country. Instead, however, of compensating in some measure for the great length of time which a march by land would necessarily occupy, the troops did not begin their march towards Spain till two months after the ratification of the convention of Cintra, and even then upwards of ten thousand men were left behind.

The fatal treaty by which the campaign in Portugal was terminated, drew after it a long train of disaster and disgrace. One of its first effects, was to suspend all the

* The total number of French troops, &c. embarked from Portugal in virtue of the convention of Cintra, including the garrisons of Almeida and Elvas, amounted, according to the official returns made to the British government, to 24,735 men, 213 women, 116 children, and 759 horses.

operations of the army, and Sir Hew Dalrymple, Sir Harry Burrard, and Sir Arthur Wellesley, were all summoned to England, in consequence of the inquiry which it was seen proper to institute into that proceeding. The command of the British army was now vested in Sir John Moore—a general who had distinguished himself in the West Indies, in Holland, and in Egypt, and who had recently returned from Sweden, where he had been employed as commander-in-chief. No sooner had the command devolved upon Sir John, than the utmost activity was exerted to forward the expedition to Spain. The British army destined to act in favour of the Spaniards, and to assist in expelling the French invaders from that country, consisted of the troops which marched from Lisbon, on the 27th of October, under the command of Sir John Moore,* and those which were sent from England, under the command of Sir David Baird.† The latter arrived at Corunna on the 13th of October, and Sir David Baird was astonished and disappointed to find that the junta of Galicia at first refused him permission to land his troops; and when their tardy acquiescence was at length obtained, his reception was so extremely cold and dispiriting, that he was disposed to doubt whether the reluctance of the Spanish government, expressed in the first stages of their resistance to the French oppression, had yet been overcome. The same impression was made on Sir John Moore, when he arrived at Salamanca, on the 13th of November; and this officer wrote from that place to the British minister at Madrid, desiring him frankly to inform the Spanish government, that if they expected his army to advance, they must prepare themselves to pay more attention to its wants. The further Sir John Moore advanced into Spain, the more strongly was he impressed with the conviction, that the information upon the faith of which he had crossed the frontiers of Portugal, was utterly destitute of founda-

* Effective strength of the force which marched from Portugal under the command of Sir John Moore:

Artillery	686
Cavalry	913
Infantry	17,745
	—19,343

† Effective strength of the troops that marched from Corunna under Sir David Baird:

Artillery	611
Cavalry	1,538
Infantry	8,573
	—10,722

Total, as stated in the adjutant-general's report—30,065.

Of this force, 715 men were left, to keep open the communication with Portugal.

tion. He had been officially informed that his entry into Spain would be covered by between sixty and seventy thousand men;* but so far was this from being the fact, that he had now advanced within three days' march of the French army, and not even a Spanish picket had appeared to protect his front. All the principal Spanish armies were beaten and dispersed; Burgos was in possession of the French; and even Valladolid had been entered and occupied by their cavalry. Under these circumstances, Sir John Moore determined to retreat; but, before he could put his determination into effect, he received a communication from Mr. Frere, the British ambassador at Madrid, strongly urging him to advance to that capital, and presenting a highly-coloured picture of the enthusiastic and determined spirit of the people, as well as of the ample resources of the country. This communication was speedily followed by a messenger, sent expressly by the Prince of Castelfranca and General Morla, the Governors of Madrid, with a paper, dated September 2d, bearing their signatures, as the organ of the supreme junta. This paper was still more flattering in its representations of the zeal and resources of the Spaniards, than even Mr. Frere's letter; and in an evil hour, the British general suffered his judgment to give way to the representations of the Spanish government and the English minister. Under this influence, he was induced to suspend his retreat, and to order Sir David Baird to advance. After the main body of the army had been joined by General Hope's division, they advanced towards Valladolid, with the corps under Sir David Baird in their rear. Before they had proceeded a day's march on their route, Sir John Moore learned by an intercepted despatch, that Bonaparte, who had entered Madrid on the 4th of December, was advancing towards Lisbon, and that a body of eighteen thousand men, under Soult, was posted at Saldana, on the banks of the Carrion. Sir John, anxious to meet the wishes of his troops, by leading them against the enemy, and willing to embrace any opportunity of benefiting the Spanish cause, quitted his route towards Valladolid, and by a movement on the left, having effected his junction with Sir David Baird, advanced by rapid marches to the Carrion. Here, the advanced posts of the two armies first met, and the superiority of the British cavalry, under Lord Paget, was eminently displayed in a most brilliant and successful skirmish. But just as

* Lord Castlereagh's despatch of the 30th of September, 1808.

Sir John Moore had issued his orders for the main body of the army to commence a general attack, and had requested the Marquis of Romana to co-operate with his forces, he received from different quarters, information on which he could confidently rely, that Bonaparte in person was advancing with his army, in order to get into the rear of the British; that the army which had been stationed at Talavera had moved forward to Salamanca; and that Soult himself had received strong reinforcements. There was now no alternative; a retreat had become indispensable, and the only difficulty lay in the route that ought to be pursued.

The numbers of the French army that were now despatched against Sir John Moore, amounted to upwards of seventy thousand. The corps of Soult, before it was reinforced, consisted of eighteen thousand men; the right flank of the British was threatened by Junot, who, liberated by the convention of Cintra from his perilous situation in Portugal, had now again advanced into Spain with fifteen thousand men; while Bonaparte, who had quitted Madrid on the 18th, with forty thousand troops, was at this moment advancing, with his usual rapidity, upon the British force. So rapid was the march of the main body of the French army under Bonaparte, and so closely did they pursue Sir John Moore, that the advanced guard of the enemy reached Tordesillas on the same day that the British began to retreat from Sahagun. At Benevente, the cavalry and part of the artillery of Bonaparte's army came up with the rear of the British, and another skirmish took place, which terminated greatly to the glory and honour of the British cavalry, and in which the French General Lefevre, at the head of his chasseurs, was taken prisoner. This check served to convince Bonaparte that his main force could not overtake Sir John Moore before he had quitted Benevente; and the presence of the emperor being required in France, he committed the further prosecution of the pursuit to Marshal Soult, the Duke of Dalmatia, who, with three divisions under his command, was ordered to follow the British without intermission, and to effect their destruction.

The situation of the British army was at this time dispiriting in the extreme. In the midst of winter, in a dreary and desolate country, the soldiers, chilled and drenched by deluges of rain, and wearied by long and rapid marches, were almost destitute of fuel to cook their victuals, and it was with extreme difficulty that they procured shelter. Their provisions were scanty, irregular, and difficult of attain-

ment; the wagons, in which were their magazines, baggage, and stores, were often deserted in the night by the Spanish drivers, terrified by the approach of the French. Thus, baggage, ammunition, stores, and even money, were frequently obliged to be destroyed, to prevent them falling into the hands of the enemy; and the weak, the sick, and the wounded, were necessarily left behind.* In the midst of these distresses, the Spanish peasantry offered no assistance, and showed no sympathy: on the contrary, though armed, they fled at the approach of the English, carrying with them every thing that could alleviate their distress, or contribute to their preservation or comfort. Neither money nor threats could induce them to afford any relief or assistance. In short, the whole behaviour of the Spaniards, during the retreat of Sir John Moore's army, was calculated to add, in no trifling degree, to the dissatisfaction of the British, who saw themselves exposed to a superior force, and suffering under the most cruel privations, in the cause of men, who would neither stir in their own behalf, nor assist those who, on their account, were encountering these accumulated evils.

The difficulties and anxiety of the British commander were increased by the relaxation which took place in the discipline of his army. The disappointment which they experienced, in not being allowed to measure their strength with the enemy; the privations and distresses under which they laboured, in a retreat which they considered as a disgraceful and unnecessary flight; and, above all, the indifference to their sufferings which the Spaniards uniformly manifested; contributed to weaken their habits of order and subordination. Sir John Moore, well aware of the consequences to which this want of discipline might lead, found himself reluctantly compelled to issue such orders as might unequivocally point out his sense of so great an evil; and, at the same time, express his unalterable determination to punish, in the most severe and exemplary manner, every future offender.

The French army was now pressing hard upon the British; and Sir John Moore, having previously despatched General Crawford's division, consisting of three thousand men, to Vigo, came to the determination to halt at Lugo, at which place he arrived on the 5th of January, 1809, and to offer them battle; but Marshal Soult did not think it prudent to attack the British, in the strong and judicious

* Sir John Moore's last despatch, dated Corunna, January 13th, 1809.

position which they had taken up near this place. Sir John Moore, not judging it safe, either to act offensively, or to delay his retreat any longer, quitted his ground in the night of the 9th, leaving his fires burning, to deceive the enemy. On the 11th, the whole of the British army reached Corunna, with the exception of General Crawford's division, which had embarked at Vigo; but unfortunately, the transports had not yet arrived, and the next morning, the French army, under the Duke of Dalmatia, were seen approaching Corunna. The British troops were now put into quarters, and their leader awaited the progress of events. Three divisions occupied the town and suburbs, the reserve was posted with its left at the village of El Burgo, and its right on the road of St. Jago de Compostella. For twelve days, these hardy soldiers had covered the retreat, during which time they had traversed eighty miles of road in two marches, passed several nights under arms in the snow of the mountains, were seven times engaged with the enemy, and they now assembled at the outposts, having fewer men missing from their ranks (including those who had fallen in battle) than any other division of the army; an admirable instance of the value of good discipline, and a manifest proof of the malignant injustice with which Sir John Moore has been accused of precipitating his retreat beyond the measure of human strength.

The bridge of El Burgo was immediately destroyed, and an engineer was sent to blow up that of Cambria, situated a few miles up the Mero river. This officer was mortified at the former failures, and so anxious to perform his duty in an effectual manner, that he remained too near the mine, and was killed by the explosion; but there was also a bridge at Celas, two leagues higher up, and at that place Franceschi's cavalry crossed on the 12th, intercepted some stores coming from St. Jago, and made a few prisoners.

The town of Corunna, although sufficiently strong to compel an enemy to break ground before it, was weakly fortified, and to the southward commanded by some heights close to the walls. Sir John Moore caused the land-front to be repaired and strengthened, and also disarmed the sea-face of the works, and occupied the citadel. The inhabitants cheerfully and honourably joined in the labour, although they were fully aware that the English intended to embark, and that they compromised their own safety by aiding the operation. Such flashes of light from the dark cloud which at this moment covered

Spain, may startle the mind of the reader, and make him doubt if the Spaniards could have been so insufficient to their own defence, as they have been represented in the course of this history. "I can only answer," says a highly esteemed authority,* "that the facts were as I have told them, and that it was such paradoxical indications of character that deceived the world at this time, and induced men to believe that the reckless daring defiance of the power of France, so loudly proclaimed by the patriots, would be strenuously supported. Of proverbially vivid imagination and quick resentments, the Spaniards feel an act individually rather than nationally; and during this war, that which appeared to be in them constancy of purpose, was in reality a repetition of momentary fury, a succession of electric sparks generated by a constant collision with the French army, and daily becoming fainter, as custom reconciled them to those injuries and insults which are commonly the attendants of war."

Procrastination and improvidence are the besetting sins of the nation. At this moment, a large magazine of arms and ammunition was in Corunna: these stores had been sent in the early part of the preceding year from England, and they were still unappropriated and unregarded by a nation infested with three hundred thousand enemies, and possessing a hundred thousand soldiers unclothed, and without weapons.

Three miles from the town, four thousand barrels of powder were piled in a magazine built upon a hill; a smaller quantity, collected in another store-house, was at some distance from the first: to prevent these magazines from falling a prey to the enemy, they were both exploded on the 13th. The smaller magazine blew up with a terrible noise, and shook the houses in the town; but when the train reached the great store, there ensued a crash like the bursting forth of a volcano; the earth trembled for miles, the rocks were torn from their bases; and the agitated waters rolled the vessels, as in a storm; a vast column of smoke and dust shooting out fiery sparks from its sides, arose perpendicularly and slowly to a great height, and then a shower of stones, and fragments of all kinds, bursting out of it with a roaring sound, killed several persons who remained too near the spot. A stillness, interrupted only by the lashing of the waves on the shore, succeeded, and the business of the war went on.

The ground in front of Corunna is im-

* Colonel Napier, vol. i. p. 499.

practicable for cavalry, and as the horses still left alive were generally foundered, and it was impossible to embark them all in the face of an enemy, a great number were reluctantly ordered to be shot. These poor animals, already worn down and feet-broken, would otherwise have been distributed amongst the French cavalry or used as draft cattle, until, by procrastinating sufferings of the nature which they had already endured, they should be killed.

On examining the different positions in the neighbourhood, Sir John Moore determined to occupy a range of hills near the town, and on the 13th he made the following arrangement of his army.—One division under General Hope occupied a hill on the left, commanding the road to Betanzos; the division under Sir David Baird extended from this village, and bending to the right, the whole formed a crescent; the rifle corps on the side of Sir David Baird formed a chain across a valley, and communicated with General Fraser's division, which was drawn up near the road to Vigo, about half a mile from Corunna; and the reserve, under Major-general Paget, occupied a village on the Betanzos road, about half a mile in the rear of General Hope. On the 14th, in the evening, the transports, appointed to convey the British army to their native shores, hove in sight. On the 15th the enemy advanced to the height opposite the British position. About noon, on the 16th, he began to place some guns in the front of the right and left of his line, and followed up this preparatory movement by a rapid attack upon the division of General Baird. When the enemy's line first began to assume a hostile attitude, Sir John Moore was employed in visiting the outposts, and in explaining to the general officers his plans for conducting the embarkation. Surprised, but by no means disconcerted by this intelligence, he flew to the field of battle, expressing his regret that the advanced hour of the day would not allow the British army to reap all the advantages of that victory which he felt assured now awaited them.

The first attack of the enemy was directed against the right wing of the British, and Sir John Moore, well aware that this was his vulnerable point, placed himself in front of the position, in order to animate and to direct the operations of his troops. Early in the engagement, Sir David Baird, the second in command, while leading his division, had his arm dreadfully shattered by grape-shot, and was in consequence obliged to quit the field. An attempt was now made by the French to turn the right flank of the British line; but this maneu-

vre was completely defeated by the 4th regiment falling back, and opening a flanking fire upon the assailants. Sir John Moore, after exclaiming, "That is exactly what I wished," rode up to the 50th regiment, and directed them to charge the enemy; this order they obeyed, notwithstanding the intervention of an enclosure in front, and the enemy was driven out of the village of Elvina, with great slaughter. The general next proceeded to the 42d, who being addressed by him in the flattering and proud words, "Highlanders, remember Egypt!" charged the French with irresistible impetuosity, and forced their ranks to retreat. The career of this gallant officer was now drawing to a close; and at the moment when Captain Hardinge was reporting to him that the guards were advancing to the assistance of the 42d, a cannon-ball from the enemy's battery struck Sir John Moore, and carrying away his left shoulder and part of the collar bone, left his arm hanging to his body by the flesh. The violence of the stroke brought him to the ground; but so composed and unaltered was his countenance, and so intently was his mind fixed upon the advancing Highlanders, that for a few moments it was hoped that he was rather stunned than materially hurt by the shot. It was soon, however, discovered that the wound was mortal, and the expiring hero was prevailed upon to suffer himself to be removed to the rear. On his way from the field, he ordered Captain Hardinge to report his wound to General Hope, who now assumed the command.* The soldiers,

* The particulars of the last moments of General Sir John Moore are thus related by his friend, Colonel Anderson:—"I met the general in the evening of the 16th of January, conveyed off the field in a blanket and ashes. He knew me immediately, though it was almost dark, squeezed me by the hand, and said, 'Anderson, don't leave me.' He spoke to the surgeons on their examining his wounds, but was in such pain that he could say little. After some time he seemed very anxious to speak to me, and, at intervals, got out as follows: 'Anderson, you know that I have always wished to die this way.' He then asked, 'Are the French beaten?' which he repeated to every one he knew as they came in. 'I hope the people of England will be satisfied!—I hope my country will do me justice!—Anderson, you will see my friends as soon as you can—Tell them—every thing—Say to my mother,'—Here his voice quite failed him, and he was excessively agitated—'Hope—Hope—I have much to say to him,—but cannot get it out—are Colonel Graham—and all my aides-de-camp, well—I have made my will, and have remembered my servants—Colborne has my will,—and all my papers.'

"Major Colborne then came into the room. He spoke most kindly to him, and then said to me, 'Anderson, remember you go to —, and tell him it is my request, and that I expect he will give Major Colborne a lieutenant-colonelcy.—He has

although aware of the situation of their chiefs, continued to support the contest with undiminished constancy. The attack of the French upon the right of the British line was completely repulsed; and they were, in their turn, obliged to draw back their left flank, to prevent it from being turned. Their next attempt was against the centre: but here they were successfully resisted by Generals Manningham and Leigh. The last effort of the enemy was directed against the left of the British army, but they were almost instantly driven back with loss; and although the discharge of cannon, and the report of musketry, continued till night put an end to the operations, yet at four o'clock in the afternoon, the English had taken up a position in advance, and victory was no longer doubtful.

When all the disadvantages under which this complete and brilliant victory was achieved, are taken into consideration, the honour which it reflects on the British arms will be duly appreciated. Exhausted and worn out by rapid marches over a country two hundred and fifty miles in extent, in the most inclement season of the year, destitute of food and shelter, and deprived by sickness and the casualties of war of ten thousand of their companions in arms, fifteen thousand British troops resisted and successfully repelled the attacks of an enemy amounting to at least twenty thousand men: * and while the loss of the British in the battle of Corunna amounted to from seven to eight hundred, the loss of the French is estimated at two thousand.

General Hope, aware of the approaching succours of the French army, and of the circumstances under which the British troops were placed, judged it advisable to proceed in the embarkation, for which in-

been long with me,—and I know him most worthy of it.' He then asked Major Colborne, 'if the French were beaten?' and on being told they were on every point, he said 'It's a great satisfaction to me to know we have beaten the French.—Is Paget in the room?' On my telling him, no; he said, 'Remember me to him.—It's General Paget I mean—he is a fine fellow.—I feel myself so strong—I fear I shall be long dying.—It is great uneasiness.—It is great pain.' He thanked the surgeons for their trouble. Captains Percy and Stanhope, two of his aides-de-camp, then came into the room. He spoke kindly to both, and asked Percy, 'if all his aides-de-camp were well?' After some interval he said, '(Stanhope,)—remember me to your sister.' He pressed my hand close to his body, and in a few minutes died without a struggle.

* Narrative of the Campaign of the British army in Spain, by James Moore, Esq.

† The Honourable Captain Percy, son of Lord Beverley.

‡ The Honourable Captain Stanhope, third son of Earl Stanhope, and nephew of the late Mr. Pitt.

deed the preparatory measures had been taken by Sir John Moore. Accordingly, about ten o'clock on the night of the 16th, the troops quitted their position, and marched into Corunna, where the embarkation for England immediately commenced; and so well concerted were the arrangements, that during the night, and in the course of the following day, the whole army, including the sick and wounded, were placed on board the transports without molestation from the enemy.

When the morning dawned, the French, observing that the British had abandoned their position, pushed forward some battalions to the heights of St. Lucie, and about noon succeeded in establishing a battery, which, playing upon the shipping in the harbour, caused a great deal of disorder amongst the transports. Several masters cut their cables, and four vessels went ashore; but the troops being immediately removed by the men-of-war's boats, the stranded vessels were burned, and the whole fleet at last got out of harbour. General Hill's brigade then embarked from the citadel; but General Beresford, with a rear-guard, kept possession of that work till the 18th, when the wounded being all put on board, his troops likewise embarked.* The inhabitants faithfully maintained the town against the French, and the fleet sailed for England.

As it had always been the wish of Sir John Moore to die on the field of battle, so it had been his earnest request that he should be buried where he fell. This request, so congenial to the mind of a general whose distinguishing characteristic it was to have "spent his life among his troops," was strictly complied with. At the solemn hour of midnight, the corps was carried to the citadel of Corunna by Colonel Graham, Major Colborne, and the aides-de-camp, and deposited in Colonel Graham's quarters. A grave was dug on the ramparts by a party of the 9th regiment, the aides-de-camp attending by turns. No

* "The loss of the English army was never sufficiently returned, but was estimated by Sir John Hope at about eight hundred. The French loss, I have no accurate account of. I have heard from French officers that it was above three thousand men: this number, I confess, appears to me exaggerated; but that it was very great, I can readily believe. The arms of the British were all new, the ammunition quite fresh, and it is well known that, whether from the peculiarity of our muskets, the physical strength and coolness of the men, or both combined, the fire of an English line is at all times the most destructive known. The nature of the ground, also, prevented the movement of the artillery on either side; hence, the French columns, in their attacks, were exposed to a fire of grape which they could not return, because of the distance of their batteries."—Napier, vol. i. p. 499.—W. G.

coffin could be procured, and the body was never undressed, but wrapped up by the officers of his staff in a military cloak and blankets. At eight o'clock in the morning of the 17th, the interment took place; the officers of his family bore the body to the grave; the funeral service was read by the chaplain; and the earth received the remains of the departed hero.

The benefits derived to an army from the example of a distinguished commander, do not terminate at his death; his virtues live in the recollection of his associates, and his fame remains the strongest incentive to great and glorious actions. Educated in the school of regimental duty, Sir John Moore at an early period obtained, with general approbation, that conspicuous station in which he gloriously terminated his honourable life. His country, the object of his latest solicitude, has reared a monument to his lamented memory, and at his death the commander-in-

chief held him forth as an example to the British army.*

This first campaign in Spain was disastrous in the extreme; the object of the enterprise, which was to drive the French from that country, entirely failed, and the apathy of the Spanish government, and of the native armies, favoured the supposition, that the first burst of patriotism, which had astonished all Europe, was merely a momentary ebullition. The British troops lost much in their retreat, but in battle they lost nothing. The battle of Corunna, which closed the glorious career of the commander-in-chief, and the suffering of his followers, will for ever live in the recollection of his grateful country. Like Wolfe, Sir John Moore fell in the meridian of life, and in the moment of victory: and like that general, his memory will never cease to hold a distinguished place in the military annals of his country.

CHAPTER VII.

FOREIGN HISTORY: Mediation of Austria—Perilous Situation of Sweden—Subsidiary Treaty between Great Britain and Sweden—Invasion of Finland by the Russians, under Count Burghoven—Surrender of Åbo and Björneborg to the Russians—Fall of Sveaborg—Armistice between the Russian and Swedish Forces—Unsuccessful Efforts of Sweden against Norway—English Army despatched to the Baltic—Operations of the Squadron under Sir Samuel Hood—Predominant Influence of French Politics at the Court of St. Petersburg—Expulsion of the Swedes from England—Death of Christian VII. King of Denmark—Changes in Italy—Establishment of an Order of hereditary Nobility in France—Nomenclature of the Court of the Emperor Napoleon (note)—French Annual Exposé—Relations between the United States of America and the belligerent Powers of Europe.

THE year 1808 was ushered in by an offer from the Emperor of Austria to become the mediator of a general peace.* A similar offer had been made in the spring of the preceding year,† when the emperor proposed his amicable mediation to the courts of London, Paris, Berlin, and St. Petersburg, and invited them to open a negotiation for peace; intimating that any place in his dominions, remote from the seat of war, might be fixed upon for assembling the congress. To this proposal, the British government acceded, provided that the proffered mediation was accepted by the other belligerents.‡ The affairs of the continent at this period were, however, such as to afford little expectation of the return of tranquillity, and seven months elapsed before any thing more was

heard on the subject. The Prince de Stahremberg, the Austrian envoy extraordinary to the court of London, then transmitted another note to the secretary of state for foreign affairs,† announcing that he had received positive orders from his court, to make the most earnest representations on the importance of putting an end to the struggle which still existed between England and France, the effects of which might produce to the rest of Europe the most fatal consequences; and the emperor, therefore, officially and earnestly requested a formal assurance from the British government, of its readiness to enter into a negotiation for a maritime peace. To this proposal, Mr. Canning replied,‡ that his majesty was now, as he had at all times been, prepared to enter into a negotiation for the conclusion of such a peace as should be consistent with his fidelity to

* Note from Count Stahremberg to Mr. Secretary Canning, dated London, January 1, 1808.

† Note from the same to the same, dated London, April 18, 1807.

‡ Note from Mr. Canning to Count Stahremberg, dated April 25, 1807.

* See General Orders, dated Horse-Guards, February 1, 1809.

† Dated November 20, 1807.

‡ Dated November 23, 1807.

his allies, and should provide for the tranquillity and security of Europe. On the 1st of January, the Austrian ambassador transmitted another note, stating, that he was charged by his court to propose to the British ministry to send plenipotentiaries immediately to Paris, for the purpose of treating for peace with all the powers at war with England; and, in order to avoid every species of delay, he was authorized by France to give passports to the ministers who might be appointed to that mission. Mr. Canning, in reply, expressed the regret of his majesty, that, after the correspondence in the month of April last, the present overture did not notify the acceptance of the conditions then stated, as indispensable preliminaries to a negotiation; and extended only to the powers combined with France in the war against Great Britain, and not to the allies of Great Britain in the war with France. It was further urged, that the Austrian ambassador had omitted to explain from whom he received his commission to propose that plenipotentiaries should be sent to Paris, whether from his imperial master, or from the government of France, and that no intimation was given of the basis on which it was proposed to treat; his majesty, therefore, could only repeat, that he was willing to enter into negotiations with France on a footing of perfect equality, embracing the interests of the allies of both powers; but under such circumstances, his majesty did not think it expedient to give the Austrian ambassador any authority to speak in his majesty's name to the government of France: as soon as the basis was settled, his majesty would be prepared to name plenipotentiaries, but he would not again consent to send them to a hostile capital. Four days after the date of this answer, the Prince de Stahremberg demanded his passports. At the same time, Mr. Adair, the British envoy at Vienna, quitted that capital, in consequence of an intimation from the Austrian government; and in a declaration of war, issued by the Emperor Francis against England, on the 18th of February, 1808, it was asserted, "that it was impossible not to perceive, in the course pursued by the British ministry, a disposition to remove the possibility of peace to a greater distance, and not to listen to whatever had any tendency to restore the tranquillity of Europe." Thus was the house of Austria added to the number of the enemies of Great Britain; but the local circumstances of the two countries, and their mutual apprehension of the power and influence of France, served to give to the contest the character rather of nominal than of real hostility.

The influence of the treaty of Tilsit upon the affairs of the north of Europe, soon began to unfold itself; and Russia, now become the willing instrument of French policy, not only withdrew from her alliance with Sweden, but prepared to attack that country as soon as the season of the year would admit of hostile operations. Denmark, which, by the bombardment of her capital, and the seizure of her fleet, had been thrown completely into the arms of France, viewed Sweden as the ally of England, with feelings of hostility and disgust. These feelings were increased and exasperated by the suspicion that Sweden had approved of the attack on Copenhagen, and had been by no means indisposed to occupy the island of Zealand, when it was left by the English. In this perilous situation, the King of Sweden, threatened with an invasion of the southern part of his dominions, by the joint forces of Denmark and France, and with an attack on Finland by his powerful neighbour, the Emperor of Russia, it became the evident duty, as well as the interest of Great Britain, to assist her weak but firm ally by every means in her power. Accordingly, on the 8th of February, 1808, a convention was entered into between his Britannic majesty and the King of Sweden. By this subsidiary treaty, it was mutually agreed, that Great Britain should pay to the King of Sweden the sum of twelve hundred thousand pounds sterling, in equal instalments of one hundred thousand pounds a month; this sum was to be employed by Sweden in putting in motion all her land forces, with her flotilla, and such part of her fleet as might be deemed necessary. By a separate article, the respective sovereigns agreed to arrange and concert, as speedily as circumstances would allow, the measures which ought to be adopted, and the auxiliary forces which Great Britain should send into the Baltic, whenever the war between Sweden and Russia, or Denmark, should actually take place.

A very short time after this treaty was entered into, and before the rigours of a northern winter had subsided, the Russian troops, to the amount of forty thousand, crossed the frontier of Finland, and proceeded without interruption as far as Helsingfors; and this hostile measure, which was undertaken without the previous formality of a declaration of war, the Emperor of Russia attempted to justify on the ground that Sweden had refused to co-operate with him in a war against England, provoked by the hostile aggression committed by that power against the King of Denmark. This charge was not denied

by Gustavus Adolphus, who admitted that, by the terms of the treaties existing between Sweden and Russia, he was bound to avenge the violation of the Baltic in the attack on Copenhagen; but, before he co-operated for this purpose, he called upon the Emperor of Russia to procure the liberation of the coast of that sea from the presence of the French army, and to open the German harbours to English vessels.

The declaration of Denmark against Sweden, which was issued on the 29th of February, dwelt a great length, and in very emphatic language, on the attack upon Copenhagen. While all the rest of Europe resounded with cries of indignation at this atrocious crime, committed against a neutral and unoffending state, Sweden alone preserved a total silence; and had actually renewed her alliance with a power which threatened the neutrality of the Baltic and the ports of Zealand with her armaments. Under these circumstances, Denmark found herself compelled to adopt entirely the resolutions of Russia in respect to Sweden, and to declare that she would not separate her cause from that of her august and faithful ally. The answer of the King of Sweden to the Danish declaration of war, was simple and satisfactory. The relations of the two countries were merely those of peace; they were not united for war. When, therefore, in 1806, Sweden, Russia, and Prussia were leagued against France, Denmark preserved her neutrality without being called upon by Sweden to assist her in the war. From this circumstance, the King of Sweden was persuaded that the naval force of Denmark would not be employed for the interest of his kingdom; and after the treaty of Tilsit, he had every reason to fear that Denmark, overawed or persuaded by Russia and France, would direct her fleet against him. With these impressions and apprehensions, the King of Sweden did not think himself called upon to interfere when England attacked Copenhagen.

Count Buxhovden, to whom the chief command of the Russian army in Finland was confided, had scarcely crossed the frontiers, before he issued a proclamation to the inhabitants, assuring them that the Russian army did not enter their country as enemies, but as friends; and that the object of the emperor was to render Finland more prosperous and happy, by incorporating that state with the Russian empire. The army, sent by the King of Sweden to the defence of Finland, was commanded by Count Klingspor, a general of uncommon talents and skill. On

him, Buxhovden endeavoured to prevail, by means of bribes and promises, to betray the cause of his master; but the Swedish general remained firm and unshaken in his integrity, loyalty, and zeal. But although the Swedes were unassailable by the weapons of corruption, they were by no means in such force as to enable them to oppose, with any prospect of success, the first advances of their enemies; and within a month after the invasion of Swedish Finland, Abo, the capital of that province, fell into the hands of the Russians. Biörneberg soon shared the fate of Abo; and Count Klingspor, finding the Swedish army too weak to sustain the contest, fell back upon his resources. This retreat, continued for more than four hundred English miles, through a country almost without roads, and deeply covered with snow, has been compared to the celebrated retreat of Moreau from Germany; and the Russians, disappointed in their attempt to surround or cut off Klingspor, returned from the pursuit, towards the southern part of Finland.

The next place against which the Russians directed all their means, both of artifice and force, was Sweaborg. This city, from the great strength of its natural position, aided by the works which have been raised for its defence, has justly been called the Gibraltar of the north. The bombardment commenced in the beginning of April, but without much injury, either to the houses or to the forces: few of the garrison were either killed or wounded; and not more than one-third of the ammunition had been expended, when the Swedish governor, not without strong suspicions of treachery, agreed to surrender the place into the hands of the enemy. After the capture of Sweaborg, the Russians advanced into the north of Finland, and in many places, particularly at Wasa, they committed the most atrocious and barbarous cruelties. For a short time, however, the Swedes were enabled to act on the defensive, and to drive the Russians back into the south of Finland, but these successes were only of a temporary nature; the Russian army suffered more from want of provisions, than from the partial victories gained over them; and when, by their vicinity to the more fertile part of the province, which borders on Russia, they had been recruited and supplied, they were again enabled to advance against the Swedes with a very superior force. Klingspor, after having performed the part of an able and skilful general, found himself obliged to conclude an armistice with the enemy, by which it was stipulated, that the operations in Finland should be suspended,

and that they should not be renewed without eight days previous notice.

Gustavus Adolphus was not more successful against Norway. His first efforts against the unprepared Norwegians were attended with some success; but as soon as the peasantry had put themselves in a state of preparation, and obtained the co-operation of the regular forces, they were enabled not only to defend their own territory from the irruptions of the enemy, but also to act offensively and successfully against the Swedes.

Amidst the difficulties with which the King of Sweden was surrounded, Great Britain was not unmindful of the assistance which she had engaged to afford him. An English army, consisting of about twelve thousand men, arrived at Gottenburg on the 17th of May; but after having remained on board the transports for several weeks, the troops returned to England without having been disembarked. The Swedish monarch, enraged at the refusal of Sir John Moore to expose his troops to loss and dishonour, without the smallest probability of benefiting the cause in which they were to be engaged, put the English general under arrest, and it was not without some difficulty that he effected his escape on board the British fleet. The squadron which was sent to the Baltic by the English government, under the command of Sir Samuel Hood, having joined the Swedish Admiral Nauckhoff with the Centaur and Implacable, sailed, on the 25th of August, in quest of the Russian fleet. On the day following, the Russians were discovered off Hango Udd. The British ships outsailed their allies; and about five o'clock on the following morning, the Implacable brought the Sewolod, of seventy-four guns, to close action. In the course of twenty minutes, the enemy's ship was completely silenced, and her colours struck. The British commander used every manoeuvre to bring on a general action, but the Russian admiral, aware of this intention, took refuge in the port of Rogerswick. The Russian ship which had engaged with the Implacable, grounded at the entrance of the harbour, and an attempt was made by Sir Samuel Hood in the Centaur to bring her off, but owing to the shallowness of the water it was found impossible to get her afloat. Sir Samuel Hood, finding all his endeavours fruitless, took the prisoners out of the Russian ship, and set fire to her. As soon as the Russian squadron had entered the port of Rogerswick, the men were employed in fortifying the harbour against the attacks of the combined fleet, and so successful were their exertions, that every

attempt to injure the Russian ships proved ineffectual.

The influence of the French emperor had now become predominant in the court of Russia. Of the nature and extent of that influence, there were many proofs. Caulincourt, the Duke of Vicenza, was sent to St. Petersburg as the French ambassador, and his diplomatic talents were unremittingly exerted to guard the mind of the Emperor Alexander from every consideration which could interfere with the views of his master. Under this influence, the interests of Russia were sacrificed, and, in order to inflict a feeble blow on English commerce, the Russian nobility were deprived of the means of disposing of the produce of their estates. The English merchants who remained at St. Petersburg were continually harassed with new restrictions, and exposed to every indignity and insult which the French ambassador thought proper to suggest. He alone possessed the confidence of Alexander, whom, sometimes by the allurements of pleasure, and at others by obscure threats of his master's vengeance, he managed with that facility which a man of experience and superior mind will always possess over one with less energy of intellect and less stability of character.

The King of Sweden soon became sensible of the influence which Bonaparte had exerted at the famous conference at Erfurth over the mind of Alexander. Scarcely had the emperor returned to St. Petersburg, before orders were sent to his generals to renew the war in Finland, and the Swedes, incapable of withstanding the overwhelming force brought against them, were reduced to the necessity of negotiating a convention, by which they agreed to evacuate Uleaborg, and to retire to the west side of the river Kiemi, the utmost limit of Finland. Thus terminated a campaign, during the whole of which the Swedish army behaved with the greatest bravery, but in which the inferiority of their numbers obliged them finally to succumb to the northern autocrat.

The French, who had passed over to the islands in the Baltic, for the purpose of invading the southern part of Sweden, soon discovered, that while the British and Swedish fleets kept possession of that sea, their project was impracticable. The Danes, however, continued to attack our merchant ships with great success, sometimes from the negligence of the British convoys, but more frequently from the frigates not being able to injure the gunboats. Christian VII., the King of Denmark, died this year, in a fit of apoplexy, and was succeeded by his son, the Prince-

royal, who was immediately proclaimed King of Denmark and Norway, by the name of Frederick VI. The deceased monarch had long laboured under a mental infirmity, which rendered him totally incapable of all public business, and his death neither occasioned any sensation in Denmark, nor produced any change, either in the domestic policy or in the foreign relations of that kingdom.

The same spirit of personal ambition and of implacable hatred towards England, which caused the attack on the independence of Spain, induced Bonaparte, this year, to make considerable changes in the affairs of Italy. Under the plea that the temporal sovereign of Rome, as he styled the pope, had refused to make war against England, and that the two kingdoms of Naples and Italy ought not to be divided by the intervention of a hostile power, he decreed, that the ecclesiastical duchies of "Urbino, Ancona, Macerata, and Comerino, should be for ever united with the kingdom of Italy." The pope, in reply to some former aggressions of France, having appealed to his spiritual power and authority, Napoleon, in the decree of annexation, turned the arguments of his holiness against himself, by resting his own rights on those of his predecessor Charlemagne. At the same time that the territories of Rome were incorporated with the kingdom of Italy, Tuscany, Parma, and Placentia, were annexed to the empire of France. The reasons assigned for this change proceeded on the usual principles of French policy: it was expressly declared that the whole coast of the Mediterranean sea must form a part of the French territory, that the Adriatic ought to be considered as naturally belonging to the kingdom of Italy; while the kingdom of Naples, lying on both sides, must be regarded as a distinct state, subject, however, to the same federative system, and to the same state policy. At the time of making these arrangements, Bonaparte also fixed the settlement of the kingdom of Italy. He adopted his son-in-law, Eugene Beauharnois, as his own son, and settled that kingdom upon him in tail male. It was at the same time expressly stated, that the right which Eugene received by adoption should never in any case authorize him or his descendants to bring forward any claim or pretension to the crown of France, the succession of which was irrevocably fixed. The kingdom of Naples was bestowed upon Joachim Murat, brother-in-law of the French emperor, after Bonaparte had thought proper to call Joseph Napoleon to the throne of Spain.

While these changes were taking place

in Italy, an order of hereditary nobility was created in France; and it was expressly declared that hereditary distinctions are, in some measure, essential to monarchical government. Thus, after all the storms of the revolution, was France rapidly returning to that state in which she was placed before the foundation of the republic.*

* NOMENCLATURE

Of the dignities conferred by Napoleon, Emperor of the French, on his Family, Marshals, Ministers, &c.

KINGS	Joseph Bonaparte,	King of Spain
	Louis,	of Holland
	Jerome,	of Westphalia
	Joachim Murat,	of Naples
	Maximilian, (Elect. of Bav.) of Saxony	
MARSHALS	Augustus, (Elector of Sax.) of Wirtemberg	
	Charles, (Duke of Wir.) of Wirtemberg	
	Augereau,	Duke of Castiglione
	Bonaparte,	of Istria
	Caulincourt,	of Vicenza
MARSHALS	Clark,	of Feltre
	Duroc,	of Friuli
	Grouchy,	Count Grouchy
	Junot,	Duke of Abrantes
	Kellerman,	of Valmy
PRINCES	Lannes,	of Montebello
	Lefebvre,	of Dantzig
	Macdonald,	of Tarento
	Bernadotte,	Prince of Ponte Corvo
	Berthier, (Marshal)	of Neuchâtel
PRINCES	Davoust, (Marshal)	of Eckmühl
	Massena, (Marshal)	of Elchingen
	Ney, (Marshal)	of Moskwa
	Talleyrand,	of Benevento
	Eugene Beauharnois,	Viceroy of Italy
MARSHALS	Maret,	Duke of Bassano
	Marmont,	of Ragusa
	Moncey,	of Cornegiano
	Mortier,	of Treviso
	Oudinot,	of Reggio
MARSHALS	Savary,	of Rovigo
	Soult,	of Dalmatia
	Succhet,	of Albuferra
	Victor,	of Belluno
	Champagny,	of Cadore
MARSHALS	Fouche,	of Otranto

Fourteen of the French marshals either emerged from the ranks, by military merit, or rose from employments in humble life: *Bessieres*, originally a common soldier, became in 1796 a captain of infantry in the army of Italy.—*Brune*, a printer at the commencement of the revolution, a member of the club of Cordeliers, and an intimate friend of Danton, commenced his military career in 1793.—*Augereau*, a private in the Neapolitan service in 1787, became soon afterwards a fencing-master at Naples; in 1792, he entered as a volunteer into the army of Italy; and in 1794 was a general of brigade in the army of the Pyrenees.—*Bernadotte*, at the commencement of the revolution, a sergeant in the regiment of *Royal Marine*; in 1794, a general of division.—*Jourdan* enlisted in 1778, but left the service in 1784; was a shopkeeper at the commencement of the revolution.—*Kellerman* began his career as a simple hussar in the regiment of *Confians*.—*Lannes*, originally a common soldier, became, in 1795, adjutant of division in the national guard of Paris.—*Massena*, a subaltern in the Sardinian service at the begin-

The exposition of the state of the French empire, which was laid before the legislative body in the beginning of November, was distinguished by an annunciation that the trial by jury, on the exact principles of the English law, should, in future, prevail in the French courts. In this *expose*, the privations and distresses to which the French nation had been constrained to submit, in consequence of the operation of the British orders in council, were noticed, but it was principally to extol the resignation with which they were endured, and the genius of invention to which they had given birth. By these edicts, the French nation had been taught, that a country, essentially agricultural, "can, by possessing in abundance all articles of utility, easily forego those which only form certain luxuries or conveniences of life, particularly when its independence and glory are at stake." Under the head of marine, the minister of the interior announced, that at Antwerp, and the other naval arsenals, the building of ships was proceeding with great activity and spirit: twelve sail of the line had been launched within the year, and twenty-five more, with as many frigates, were on the stocks. The statement of the military power and resources of France, sufficiently proved that the views of Bonaparte extended to conquests not yet begun, and created, in the minds of the friends of peace and independence, the most alarming fears for what yet remained of liberty in Europe. The perfection of the military system was evinced by its simplicity and effect; and this system was calculated to raise the country to a height, unknown in the annals of mankind.

The United States of America presented this year a very singular spectacle. By the embargo, they had cut themselves off from the old world; and those who imagined they were well acquainted with the character of the Americans, confidently predicted that this restraint on commerce would soon be withdrawn. These politicians held that the effects of the embargo would

press with a heavy and immediate influence on many classes of the nation: and that, if the pressure were continued, it would extend itself to the majority of the people. These consequences would, as they imagined, compel the American government to yield; or if they ventured to persevere, the union would be dissolved by disaffection and internal commotion. Every account that reached this country seemed to give some countenance to these predictions; many of the American newspapers were filled with the most bitter and violent invectives against the government, and the opposition to the embargo was represented to be so formidable and alarming, that no alternative seemed left but its immediate removal. Still, however, Mr. Jefferson continued firm; while, at the same time, he employed every method to induce the British and French governments to rescind their anti-commercial decrees. It soon appeared, from the result of the elections, that the American newspapers had greatly misrepresented the sense of the nation; and that the predictions, so prevalent in this country, indicated rather the wishes of the commercial and manufacturing part of the community, than the sagacity of those by whom they were hazarded. On the 8th of November, the usual message of the president was read to the senate and the house of representatives. By this document, they were informed, that the president, anxious to remove the evil consequences of the embargo, had authorized the ministers of the United States, in London and in Paris, to propose, that the commerce of America should be exclusively opened to whichever of the belligerent powers should rescind its orders or decrees in relation to the commerce of the United States; and that the ports of America should remain shut to the other power, in case of its refusal to adopt a similar policy. From France, no answer had been received, and Great Britain had rejected this offer. In this state of things, nothing remained for America, but to persevere in a system which, though it subjected her to some evils, was by no means unproductive of advantage. Not the least interesting part of this message related to the new direction which the suspension of commerce had given to the industry, skill, and capital of the United States. The internal manufactures and improvements were carried on with more spirit and success, and to a greater extent than usual. The disadvantages, arising from want of experience, from the comparative inferiority in machinery and capital, were abundantly compensated by cheaper materials and subsistence; by the

ning of the revolution, in 1793, became a general of brigade.—*Mortier*, a captain of a volunteer company in his native province at the same period.—*Ney*, a hussar, an adjutant-general in 1796, after passing through all the inferior grades.—*Lefebvre*, son of a miller of Alsace, became a sergeant of a regiment of French guards before the revolution.—*Soult* was a subaltern, before the revolution, in a regiment of infantry, and an adjutant-general in 1795.—*Murat* served originally in the constitutional guard of Louis XVI.; became afterwards an officer in the 13th regiment of *chasseurs a cheval*.—*Junot* began his career in 1792, as a grenadier in one of the volunteer battalions commanded by General Fille; and, in 1795, was one of the *aides-de-camp* of Bonaparte.

freedom of labour from taxation, and by protecting duties and prohibitions. The embargo, therefore, when viewed as the means of changing the direction of their industry and capital, and of thus rendering them less dependent upon foreign nations, might justly be deemed a benefit, though unavoidably attended with partial and temporary mischief.

In weighing the nature and the amount of the aggressions which had been practised towards America by the belligerent powers at this period of the war, if there were any preponderance, it must be confessed that the balance was against Great Britain. The French decrees were indeed as obnoxious in their formation and designs, as the British orders in council; but the government of France claimed and exor-

cised no right of impressment, and the maritime spoiliations of France were comparatively restricted, not only by her own weakness on the ocean, but by the constant and pervading vigilance of the fleets of her enemy. But on which side soever the balance of injustice was to be found, the crisis had arrived, when the United States were compelled, either to adhere to a system of commercial interdiction, or to engage in open and active war; and if the act of embargo fell with a more severe pressure upon Great Britain than upon her enemy, this circumstance was to be imputed rather to the superiority of her commerce, and the extent of her former dealings with America, than to any undue partiality shown towards France by the government of that republic.

CHAPTER VIII.

BARRISH HISTORY: Meeting of the Parliament of 1808—Debates on the Bombardment of Copenhagen and the Seizure of the Danish Fleet—Petitions for Peace—Mr. Whitbread's Motion of Censure for the Rejection of the proffered Mediation of Russia and Austria—Bill for the Prevention of Reversionary Grants—Sir Francis Burdett's Motion on the Appropriation of the Droits of Admiralty—Lord Castlereagh's Proposal for reviving the Practice of Enlistment for Life—for the Formation of a Local Militia—National Finances—Sir Samuel Romilly's Bill for ameliorating the Criminal Code—Mr. Sheridan's Appeal in favour of the Spanish Patriots—Rejection of a Bill for fixing a *minimum* Price on Labour—The Session of Parliament closed by a solemn Pledge to support the Cause of the Spanish Patriots.

THE parliament of Great Britain assembled in the year 1808 under the most portentous circumstances. On the meeting of this assembly in former years, it had been the happiness of the sovereign to dwell upon the fidelity of his allies, and to animate the hopes of the national council with assurances of the cordial co-operation of the coalesced sovereigns of Europe against the common enemy; but on the present occasion, it was the painful duty of the commissioners, as the organ of their sovereign, to declare, that the determination of France to excite hostilities between Great Britain and her former allies had been but too successful, and that the ministers of the Emperors of Russia and Austria, and the King of Prussia, had all demanded and received their passports from his majesty's government. The speech from the throne, which represented the country as "in the crisis of its fate," embraced the great public questions that afterwards engaged the attention of parliament; and the expedition to Copenhagen, the relations of England with foreign states, and the orders which his majesty had issued in council, retaliating upon France her decrees against the commerce of Great Britain; formed prominent features in that document. In the lords, the

usual address to the throne was moved by the Earl of Galloway, seconded by Lord Kenyon; and in the commons by Lord Hamilton, seconded by Mr. C. Ellis, and was in both houses carried without a division.

On the 3d of February, the subject of the late attack upon the capital of Denmark was brought under the consideration of parliament. The advocates of that measure contended,

1. That it was clearly the design of the French emperor to draw the court of Denmark into his plan of maritime confederacy against England.

2. That he had the means of carrying this design into effect.

3. That the accomplishment of this object would have been most disastrous, if not fatal to Great Britain, and that the necessity of self-defence conferred the right to depart from the ordinary rules of procedure, in order to avert an evil of such magnitude.

In support of the first of these propositions, it was said, that his majesty's government had learned, that there were secret engagements in the treaty of Tilseit: that the views of the parties were to confederate all the powers of Europe, and particularly to engage or seize on the fleets of Denmark and Portugal. This information was derived from his majesty's minis-

ters abroad, and from their faithful ally the Prince-regent of Portugal. They had received information of the hostile intention of Denmark, from a quarter to which they had often been indebted for the first knowledge of the designs of Bonaparte; from, or rather through, the disaffected in Ireland! They learned through this medium that Ireland was to be attacked from two points, Lisbon and Copenhagen; and they had never found the information of these persons, however it was obtained, incorrect. Finally, ministers had received a confidential communication, that the question had been recently discussed in the council of the highest authorities in Copenhagen, whether they should, in case of the alternative, join England or France—on which occasion it was ultimately determined to unite themselves with the enemies of this country. With this information, ministers would have been traitors, had they not secured the Danish fleet.* All Bonaparte's capitulations and decrees served to confirm this information, as far as France was concerned; he had on these occasions frequently and publicly avowed his design, and his firm and irrevocable determination, to combine all the powers of the continent in a general confederacy against the maritime rights and the political existence of Great Britain; and after the confederacies of 1780 and 1802 it was perfectly clear that Denmark waited only for an opportunity to aid this purpose. The crisis had arrived, when Denmark must take part in the war; and her former conduct sufficiently indicated to which party she would attach herself. In fact, the heart of the Danes was not with us; it was with our enemy.† That the conference at Tilsit had produced resolutions inimical to the naval superiority of Great Britain, was perfectly manifest, for the moment the Emperor Alexander arrived at St. Petersburg, after signing the treaty with France, the first person he visited was the minister of marine, and the first order he gave was to repair the batteries at Cronstadt. It was the policy of France and Russia to make the Danish government a party to their designs; and even if the expedition against Copenhagen had never taken place, we should at this moment have been at war with Denmark, who had neither the strength nor the resolution to resist these powers.‡ The Prince-regent of Portugal, whom it was intended to make a party to this "Continental League," had been driven from his dominions, because he would not join France,

Russia, and Denmark, in the confederacy against England.

To show that Bonaparte had the means of accomplishing his object, it was stated by his majesty's ministers, that Denmark was on the point of being invaded at the time the expedition to Copenhagen was undertaken: French troops had assembled at Hamburg; the Danish army in Holstein had taken no steps to retreat into Zealand; they had no transports for that purpose; and upon the first approach of the enemy, they must have laid down their arms, and surrendered at discretion. That no disposition was felt on the part of the Danes to abandon their continental possessions, was evident from the fact, that the Danish fleet was not in a state of preparation to oppose the passage of the French from the continent. They had indeed at one time exhibited indications of such an intention, but they had soon afterwards abandoned their preparations, and when the moment of danger arrived, Denmark was totally unprepared, and ready to throw herself into the arms of France.* Various endeavours had been made by the British government, to bring the court of Denmark to an explanation of its views before the expedition was overtaken, but without effect; and the natural conclusion was, that the crown-prince, in the whole of his conduct, had secretly favoured the views of France.†

The danger of the country, and a right to depart from the ordinary rules of procedure in so great an emergency, were insisted upon from the circumstance of France having issued her decree over the continent, "that the house of Brunswick had ceased to reign." The possession of the Danish fleet would have been one great step towards the accomplishment of this denunciation; and the combined navy of France, Spain, Russia, Holland, and Denmark, directed against the independence and the very existence of Great Britain, would have placed this country in a state of imminent peril. To prove that the conduct pursued towards Denmark, was consonant with the law of nations, it was argued, that the first law of nature, the foundation of the law of nations, is the preservation of man. It is on the knowledge of his nature, that the science of his duty must be founded. When his feelings point out to him a mighty danger, and his reason suggests the means of avoiding it, he must despise the sophistical trifler who tells him it is a moral duty he owes to others, to wait till the danger bursts upon his foolish head, lest he should hurt the

* Lord Hawkesbury. † Mr. Canning.

‡ Lord G. L. Gower.

* Sir James Pulteney. † Lord Castlereagh.

meditated instrument of his destruction. And upon the general principle of the law of nations, the morality and the necessity of the expedition to Copenhagen were manifest.* As to the morality of the measure, ministers had a moral duty to perform to their own, as well as to other countries, which was to vindicate its rights, and to watch over its security and independence. Much was said on the law of nations, but there was no nation on the continent of Europe but one; they had all been swallowed up in the vortex of France; Russia, Germany, and Denmark, were only other names for France.† It had been laid down as a principle by a high authority, that when one nation was menaced by another, and a third power had resources that might be seized by the second to annoy the first, the nation thus threatened had a right, in self-defence, to take possession of these resources.‡ The success of the expedition against Copenhagen, was the greatest disaster that Bonaparte had suffered since the beginning of his reign. It had disappointed his scheme of subjugating England; it had augmented our maritime power, and it had secured the means of universal deliverance from his yoke, for it had frustrated the project of annihilating the intercourse of nations.§ So far from censuring his majesty's ministers for the conduct they had pursued towards Denmark, their prompt and vigorous measures for preventing the Danish navy from falling into the hands of the enemy, entitled them to the gratitude of their country.||

It was on the other hand contended, that the conduct pursued by the British government towards Denmark, was marked with features of peculiar atrocity; that it was repugnant to the obligations of justice, and at variance with the principles of a liberal and enlightened policy. That Denmark had no intention to abandon the system of neutrality, from which she had derived so many advantages, was self-evident; and it was a matter of doubt, whether France would have so far committed herself, as to throw Denmark into the hands of Great Britain by an attack on Zealand. But supposing this attempt had been made, the questions then arose, whether the crown-prince had the disposition to resist, and the power to give efficacy to his resistance. That Denmark was disposed to defend her insular territory, was obvious from the despatches of Mr. Garlick, the British envoy at Copenhagen; who had

officially declared, in his communications with his own government, that the crown-prince and his ministers had a spirit that would reject with disdain every demand on the part of France to surrender their fleet;* and this opinion was corroborated by the positive assertion of the crown-prince himself. The British ministers had indeed held a different language; but, instead of proving, from the documents they had thought proper to lay before parliament, that secret fraud or direct hostility had been intended against this country, it was manifest that the force of Denmark, in reliance upon the good faith of Great Britain, was actually employed in Holstein, to resist any attempt that might be made by Bonaparte, and that Zealand, drained of its military force, was exposed to our attack.† As to the previous hostile mind of Denmark, as evinced in the years 1780 and 1802, it was totally out of the question; and if this principle were to be acted upon, Sweden ought also to have been visited with the thunders of our navy, for she, as well as her neighbour, had proclaimed, "that free bottoms make free goods."‡

In judging of the justice and policy of the expedition against Copenhagen, it was not enough to prove that France meditated the seizure of the Danish fleet; it should also be shown that she had the means of executing her design. Was it to be supposed that Denmark would risk her most valuable colonies, her commerce, her ships, and every thing else dear to her existence, merely to gratify the wishes of the French ruler? She was not, as had been represented, unprepared; she had a force of thirty-five thousand men in Zealand, and thirty thousand men in Holstein, to resist any attack that might be made by France; and with such a force for her defence, and protected as Zealand was by two branches of the sea, Denmark might and would have bid defiance to the armies of France:§ it was, in fact, easier to invade Great Britain from Boulogne, than Zealand from Funen.||

As to the evidence of a hostile disposition on the part of Denmark, so much insisted on by ministers, it was nowhere to be discovered: on the contrary, all the evidence was on the other side; and it appeared from the papers on the table, that at the time when this unprovoked aggression was committed upon the capital, three hundred and twenty Danish vessels, valued at little short of two millions sterling,

* Mr. Lushington. † Mr. Robert Thornton.

‡ Secretary at war. § Marquis of Wellesley.

|| Mr. Stuart Wortley

* Earl Grey.

† Duke of Norfolk.

‡ Dr. Laurence.

§ Mr. Ponsonby.

|| Earl St. Vincent.

were, in the confidence of friendship, in the ports of Great Britain! But that the whole transaction should exhibit the same character, these vessels were all detained, and, with their cargoes, placed in a state of sequestration.* But the secret articles of Tilsit, and the readiness with which Denmark would have lent herself to the provisions of that treaty, were urged as motives for the attack upon Copenhagen; a reference to dates would show that this was impossible; the battle of Friedland was fought on the 14th of June, the armistice was signed on the 22d, and ratified on the 24th, the conference of the Niemen took place on the 25th, and the treaty was signed on the 7th of July: the king's pleasure on the expedition to Copenhagen was taken the 19th, and on the 26th of July Admiral Gambier sailed for the Baltic; it was therefore quite impossible that any such information as that which was pretended, could at the time have reached ministers from Portugal or Ireland.† In urging this plea, ministers had resorted to a mean, pettyfogging subterfuge. If they had even now the substance of the secret articles of Tilsit, why not give that substance to parliament? Precise legal evidence was not demanded from them, nor was it necessary to divulge the source from which they derived their information.‡ But they could not show that which they never possessed; and the impolicy of the measure under consideration was as obvious as the pleas resorted to in extenuation of its guilt were groundless. So far from the attack on Copenhagen being a measure of wisdom and security, it was the very reverse of those positions, and had plunged us into an unnecessary war with Russia, which, up to that period, was firm in her alliance; but from that moment she resolved on hostilities, and would have instantly declared war, had she not felt it her interest to be silent till she got her fleets into ports of safety. This declaration did not rest on vague information, but upon the authority of the emperor himself, who had repeatedly declared, in the presence of Lord Hutchinson, in the most peremptory language, tone, and manner, that he would have satisfaction for the unprovoked attack on Denmark.§ Any temporary advantage derived from that expedition, was much more than counterbalanced by the consequences of a measure, that had augmented the number of our enemies, countenanced the injurious representations circulated throughout Europe of

our principles and designs, and had inflamed against us the warmest passions of neutral and friendly nations.* We had, indeed, taken from Denmark sixteen hulks; and what had we paid for them? We had given the whole maritime population of Denmark to France; we had given too to the enemy the hearts of the Danes; and much better for this country would it have been, to see the fleet of Denmark in forced hostility against us, manned by her sailors acting under compulsion, than to see them, after what had happened, moored in our own ports.† It was impossible to think so meanly of the power and resources of this empire, of the spirit of the people, or of the valour and discipline of our fleets and armies, as to admit that the seizure of the Danish fleet was necessary for any purpose of self-preservation. England had hitherto been considered as the conservator of the laws of nations; but the character of the country was lost by this act, which had humbled and degraded us in the eyes of Europe; it was an act that could be justified neither by state necessity nor national security, and would probably stand for ever unparalleled for national bad faith, unprovoked violence, and flagrant injustice.‡ Ministers ought to be warned against believing that nations may be absolved from the obligations of morality. France, by interfering between America and the mother country, had overwhelmed her own government, and sent her royal race into exile. Prussia and Austria had been severely punished for the share taken by them in the infamous partition of Poland; and so also was Russia, who was the third in that act of spoliation, and who was even reduced to the humiliating situation of an obsequious suitor of the victor Napoleon.§ Ministers, to show their energies, were running a race of injustice with the enemy; and how did they acquit themselves? Why, France had slain a giant and England had fallen upon a helpless child. In such a case as this, the voice of the dead ought to be heard, if the admonitions of the living were disregarded, and the planners of the expedition against Denmark might be reminded of the words of a deceased statesman and patriot,|| who had declared, that "whatever was morally wrong, could not be politically right;" and of the recorded declaration of one of the most eloquent and enlightened senators that ever occupied a seat in the British senate,¶ who had held, "that justice

* Lord Sidmouth.

† Mr. Whitbread.

‡ Mr. Sheridan.

§ Lord Hutchinson.

* Earl Darnley.

† Mr. Whitbread.

‡ Lord Erskine

§ Mr. Ponsonby.

|| Mr. Fox.

¶ Mr. Burke.

is the standing policy of society, and that any flagrant departure from its changeless principles would be ultimately found to be bad policy."

To whatever attention these arguments, which were urged with great animation and perseverance, might be entitled, every attempt to censure the conduct of ministers was overruled, and the thanks of both houses of parliament were awarded, by large majorities, "to his majesty's ministers, for the prompt and vigorous measures adopted for the purpose of removing out of the reach of the enemies, the fleet and naval resources of Denmark."

Few subjects have been debated in parliament with more animation and pertinacity than the orders in council, issued during the recess; but as the views of the members on both sides of the question, have already been stated,* the necessity for entering into the particulars of the debates originating in this new code of commercial warfare, is superseded. During the present session of parliament, the opposition to members was unusually keen, vigilant, and persevering; but, though the superiority of powers in reasoning and in oratory was on the left side of the speaker's chair, the majorities were generally found on the right; and the orders in council were pronounced, by the repeated votes of the senate, to be conformable to the laws of nations, justly retaliatory towards our enemies, and indispensably necessary for the maintenance of British commerce and British rights.

During the present year, when every port in Europe, with the exception of those of Sweden, was shut against British commerce, and when our relations with America were in a most precarious situation, the pressure of distress was felt with extreme severity by the manufacturing interest; and on the 29d of February, Colonel Stanley, one of the members for the county of Lancaster, presented a petition to the house of commons, from certain inhabitants of Great and Little Bolton, in that county, the prayer of which was, that no opportunity should be neglected for entering upon negotiations for the restoration of peace upon honourable terms. The petition in substance stated,

"That thousands of the petitioners were reduced to great distress by the stagnation of trade, and the cessation of the customary demand for labour. That in the opinion of the petitioners, this arose from the present situation of the continent, occasioned by the continuance of war; that great numbers of the petitioners had been reduced to poverty, and that they were threatened with still greater distress; that their petition did not spring

from any dread of the enemy; that all they asked was, that no opportunity for negotiation should be let slip; and that if the ambition of the enemy should lead him to insist upon demands incompatible with an honourable peace, the petitioners would with one heart suffer much greater privations, rather than see the security and honour of their country compromised."

The petition was ordered to lie upon the table.

On the 29th, Mr. Whitbread rose to propose certain resolutions of censure against ministers for their rejection of the proffered mediation of Russia and Austria, accompanied by a declaration, that there was nothing in the present circumstances of the war which ought to preclude his majesty from entering into a negotiation with the enemy for the termination of hostilities. The commissioners who were appointed to open the proceedings of the present session of parliament, had, he said, after an awful exposure of our present situation, called this "the crisis of the country's fate;" and it was highly important that no time should be lost in taking such measures as might be deemed necessary to rescue the country from the dangers with which it was environed. These dangers had increased as time rolled on, and now we were told that they had reached their crisis. He had a month ago stated some of the symptoms of the public danger; and since that time several petitions had been presented to the house, of which the statements were most distressing, the prayer most moderate, and the general tone most patriotic.* He hoped the people would continue to express their feelings and their wishes, till they made an impression upon ministers and upon that house; and till the problem was solved, whether it were possible or not to conclude a peace with the French government. All that could be expected or wished for, was peace on honourable terms; and such a peace, he maintained, was better calculated to establish our security as a nation, than a prolongation of the contest. In this speech of his majesty's commissioners, parliament was told that the war was now purely defensive on the part of this country; all the brilliant visions which had so long been presented to our imaginations, and had so unfortunately biased our judg-

* These petitions were chiefly from the counties of York and Lancaster. To the petition from Leeds, voted unanimously by a meeting supposed to consist of ten thousand persons, held in the yard of the Coloured Cloth Hall, on the 19th of January, 28,628 signatures were affixed. The Stockport petition was signed by 12,000 persons. A petition from Manchester by 47,000; and similar documents, very numerous, signed, were sent from Bradford, Huddersfield, and Bingley.

* See page 32.

ments, were now given up; indemnity for the past, and the expectation of dictating a constitution to France, or of curbing the power and restraining the ambition of Bonaparte, were no longer insisted upon, and our only aim now was to defend ourselves. This being the case, he would put it to ministers and to the house, whether a more honourable peace was likely to be concluded at a future time, than on the present occasion. Before the treaty of Tilsit was concluded, an offer had been made by Russia to mediate a peace between Great Britain and France; an offer which he had always considered as an effusion of the heart of the Emperor of Russia towards this country. A similar offer had also been made by Austria; and from the documents before the house, he contended that there had been two opportunities wantonly thrown away, of trying, at least, whether it were possible to enter upon negotiation. On each of these points, he had a resolution to propose; but there was another subject, of far greater importance, and which regarded our conduct for the future. The ruler of France had at three distinct periods made offers of peace to this country, in terms unobjectionable. The first was rejected. The second was not absolutely rejected, but Lord Mulgrave wrote a contumelious letter, informing him "that his majesty must consult his allies." We had then an opportunity of selling to Napoleon a recognition of his title; and we might have sold it many times before he had established himself as he now had in defiance of us: his majesty's allies were indeed consulted, not however to see whether they would agree to open a negotiation, but to try whether they would enter into another coalition to destroy the power of France. They did not enter into that coalition, and the event had shown, that instead of crushing, they had increased the power of the enemy. But it was stated in the king's speech, that we were now looking about for an impartial mediator; there was, however, no such power to be found; and nothing remained but a direct communication. Ministers ought to send a direct offer of negotiation to France. This would be no degradation, as such a thing was not unusual. The French emperor had done it; and it had been done three times during the last war by Lord Grenville, who was incapable of compromising the honour of his country. If peace could not be obtained after a fair and candid attempt for that purpose, the knowledge of that circumstance would unite all hands and hearts in the war, which would then be manifestly just and necessary. It was said the French emperor was ambi-

tious, but great as was his ambition, he had it under perfect command; and as it was his interest to make peace with this country, it was probable that he would accede to moderate terms. If the advice of the Archduke Charles had been taken, much of the power of France would have this day been on the side of other nations, who might in that case have been in alliance with us. "If the advice of that immortal statesman, Mr. Fox, had been taken," continued Mr. Whitbread, "who so often urged the policy of peace, and exposed the errors of the system which the government of this country had been so long acting upon; if his advice had been taken, who from this spot where I stand, so often spoke the words of wisdom, and enforced his salutary counsels in a manner so much better, God knows, than I can do; what misfortunes might we not have escaped! how much more elevated would have been our situation!" The honourable gentleman concluded by moving three resolutions; the first and second of which condemned the conduct of his majesty's ministers in not availing themselves of the mediation offered by the Emperors of Russia and Austria; and by the last it was stated, "that this house feels it incumbent on itself to declare, that there is nothing in the present circumstances of the war, which ought to preclude his majesty from embracing any fair opportunity of acceding to, or commencing a negotiation with the enemy, on a footing of equality, for the termination of hostilities on terms of justice and honour."

Mr. Ponsonby, Mr. Wilberforce, and Lord Milton objected to the third resolution proposed by Mr. Whitbread, on the ground, that instead of promoting peace, it might, by inducing the enemy to propose inadmissible terms, have the effect of protracting the war.

Mr. Canning asked, what were the views of the enemy, when he professed his anxiety for peace, and even while at peace with us? Did he not secretly employ every means to exclude our commerce, and to discourage and annihilate our manufactures? Would he allow, if he could help it, the importation of a single yard of cloth, or any other article of our manufactures? If such were his endeavours against the trade of this country at that time, what must they be now, when he had resolved to ruin the nation through the ruin of her commerce? Would the cries of those for peace, whom he had more particularly resolved to undo by war, be a motive with him to listen to any terms of peace? On the contrary, would they not encourage him to persevere in

war, as the surest means of ultimately accomplishing his object? He gave the honourable gentleman full credit for sincerity in the opinion he expressed; but, admitting negotiation to be desirable and good when there was a prospect of its leading to peace, it was, he contended, mischievous when it did not afford that prospect; by tending to excite deceitful hopes, and by paralyzing national exertion. The honourable gentleman was satisfied, that when Russia said we might have peace on honourable terms, the fact was so. But why, in that case, did not Russia state those terms? What Russia might look upon as honourable terms, might not be so esteemed in this country. The conduct of Russia had given reason to suspect that she was not favourably inclined towards this country, and her devotion to France was shown by her disinclination to complete the commercial treaty with Great Britain. The first offer of mediation from Austria was immediately subsequent to the battle of Eylau; and that offer was accepted without any other condition than that it should be agreed to by all the belligerent powers; but before this point could come to issue, the battle of Friedland had totally destroyed the hopes of the allies; and when Lord Pembroke, the British ambassador, mentioned the matter at Vienna, he was told, that things were so changed that nothing could be done. From that time till the 20th of November, 1807, when the communication was made by Prince Stahremberg, the matter was suffered to rest without further notice. The terms and tone of this second offer were different from the former, and bore evident marks of French dictation. Under such circumstances, it became the more necessary to ascertain the basis and the source from which it proceeded; and when Lord Pembroke asked at Vienna for some explanation of certain statements made by Prince Stahremberg, the Austrian government denied having given any authority for such statements. Mr. Canning concluded by giving his negative to the resolutions.

Mr. J. W. Ward, Lord Mahon, and Mr. Sheridan, supported the resolutions. With regard to the petitions for peace, they were decidedly of opinion that the best way to put a stop to them would be to pass the proposed resolutions, which would serve to satisfy the country that the house was strongly disposed to peace, when that object became fairly attainable. Thus alone would the suspicion which prevailed among the people, as to the hostility of ministers to peace, and which suspicion produced these petitions, be effectually removed.

On a division of the house, the first resolution was negatived by a majority of 210 to 70 voices, and the two succeeding resolutions by still larger majorities.

Few internal events have created so strong a sensation of disappointment and alarm, as the rejection in the house of lords of the bill introduced into parliament by Mr. Bankes, as the chairman of the committee of finance, for preventing reversionary grants. The fate of this bill was singular, and of a nature to awaken the jealousy, not only of the friends to economical reform, but also of those who suspected a secret and powerful influence behind the throne. On the 21st of January, Mr. Bankes reminded the house of commons, that a bill for preventing the grant of places in reversion had passed through that house during the last session, and was prevented from going to the lords only by the prerogation of parliament. The house then thought the bill for which he should now move, to be of so important a nature, that they judged it necessary to present a petition to the crown, to which his majesty had been pleased to return a most gracious answer; and he now moved, that leave be given to bring in a bill to prevent the grant of offices and reversions during life, or with benefit of survivorship. This notice gave rise to some discussion, but the bill passed through all its stages in the commons, this year, as it had done in the preceding session, almost without opposition. When the bill reached the house of lords, it was supported by several of his majesty's ministers, and the friends to the measure in the country augured a favourable issue; but on the second reading, on the 1st of March, a strenuous opposition to its further progress was commenced by Lord Arden, the lord chancellor, Lord Redesdale, and the Duke of Montrose; and in a more advanced stage of the proceedings, the bill was thrown out by a majority of eighty voices. The objection to this measure was almost single, and it was urged with a pertinacity and frequency of repetition, that gave a weight to the argument which it would never have derived from its intrinsic strength. The limitation of reversionary grants was held up as an infringement upon the royal prerogative.

It is certainly most consonant to the true and genuine spirit of the British constitution, to maintain that the king can possess no prerogative, which, in its own nature and exercise, has not for its sole object the interest and happiness of his people. To suppose that the King of England can have any interest repugnant to, or separate from the interest of the people over whom he reigns, and that he possesses a prerogative

which secures such an interest, is to disparage that constitution which is so justly the boast of Britons. The king no doubt has prerogatives, but they are possessed by him solely because he can thus better guard the sacred deposit of liberty and happiness which is lodged in his hands. The king's prerogatives may also be attacked or weakened; but the proof that they are so must be derived from a clear and express fact, showing that the means that he possesses through them of guarding the liberties, and securing the interests of his people, are attacked or weakened.

Conceiving that it was incumbent upon the house of commons, as the guardians of the national purse, not to abandon a measure so clearly connected with their public duty, Mr. Bankes, on the 7th of April, introduced another reversionary bill, similar in its object, but limited as to duration. By this modified measure, it was proposed, that the crown should be restricted from granting offices in reversion for one year after the passing of the act, and from the close of that period to the end of six weeks from the commencement of the subsequent session of parliament. This limitation was proposed for the sake of harmony between the two branches of the legislature, and with an understanding, that the friends to economical reform gave up no part of the principle of the bill, but looked forward to the further object of rendering the measure permanent. A long conversation ensued, in which the most distinguished members in the house concurred in opinion with Mr. Bankes; and the bill thus modified was ultimately passed in the upper house of parliament.

The appropriation of the droits of admiralty, a fund arising from the sale of vessels taken at sea, or seized in the ports of this country previous to a declaration of war, was this session brought under discussion in the house of commons by Sir Francis Burdett. On the 9th of February, the honourable baronet observed, that it was stated in some of the newspapers that certain large sums, arising from the droits of admiralty, had been granted by his majesty to several princes of the blood, and particularly that 20,000*l.* arising in this way had lately been granted to the Duke of York. If this were really the case, he wished to ask, on what colour or pretext it was that the king came to seize on that property, and to dispose of it in such a manner!

Mr. Perceval had no difficulty in admitting that the sum of 20,000*l.* had been granted to the Duke of York, being only equal to the sums formerly granted to the other younger male branches of the royal

family from the same fund. The condemnation of the property alluded to, was, he said, a judicial act of the court before which it came to be tried; and the right of his majesty to these droits resolved itself into two distinct parts: the right of the crown, and his right as lord high admiral. As to the appropriation of the fund, a considerable proportion of it had been granted to captors, under various circumstances; many grants had been made for the public service; relief had in some cases been afforded to the sufferers by the sudden breaking out of the war; and the fund being completely under his majesty's control, grants had been occasionally made to the younger branches of the royal family.

Sir Francis Burdett, after observing that the proceeds alluded to amounted to so considerable a sum, that he was convinced parliament could never endure that it should be left as the private property of the king, moved, with a view to an ulterior inquiry, "That there be laid before the house an account of the net proceeds paid out of the court of admiralty to the receiver-general of droits, of all property condemned to his majesty in right of the crown, or in right of the office of lord high admiral, since the 1st of January, 1793, with the balances now remaining;" which motion, after a conversation between a number of members, was carried by a majority of twenty-five voices.

The vacillation in the military system of the country, still continued to prevail; and every new administration produced some important change in the organization of the army. On the 8th of March, when the mutiny bill came under consideration in the house of commons, Lord Castlereagh, referring to Mr. Windham's system, said, he had no objection to limited service, under certain modifications; but he thought that it ought not to be enforced to the exclusion of unlimited service, where men were perfectly satisfied, and desirous to enter without limitation. With these views, the honourable gentleman moved, that a clause should be introduced into the mutiny bill, allowing such men as were inclined to enter the service, a fair option of enlisting for life; and after an animated debate, the proposition of the noble secretary was carried by a majority of one hundred and sixty-nine, to one hundred voices. Another and a more important measure relating to the army and the internal defence of the country, was submitted to the house by Lord Castlereagh on the 12th of April. His object was to create a force subsidiary to the regular militia, amounting to sixty thousand men.

This body he proposed should form a local militia, and should be balloted for in their different counties, in proportion to the deficiency of volunteers of each, from among persons between the ages of eighteen and twenty-five. Volunteer corps might, if they chose, transfer themselves, with the approbation of his majesty, into this local militia. The period of service during the year, to be eight-and-twenty days, for which pay was to be allowed. This measure encountered strenuous opposition in its progress through parliament, but the bill, without any essential alteration, was ultimately passed into a law.

Since the advance of the property-tax to ten per cent. the finances of the country had assumed a more flourishing aspect than usual, and the different taxes had become so productive, that the chancellor of the exchequer did not this year find himself under the necessity of increasing the public burden, except in a very trifling degree. By an arrangement with the Bank of England, half a million of the unclaimed dividends were obtained for immediate use; a reduction in the charges of the bank for superintending the pecuniary concerns of the public was effected to the amount of 64,000*l.*; and a loan of three millions sterling was granted by the directors to government, without interest, till six months after the termination of the war.*

The great blemish in the criminal code of England consists in the numerous crimes for which the punishment of death is ordained; and the most pernicious consequences arise from the punishment appointed by law, and the punishment actually inflicted, being so frequently at variance. It is a sound maxim in criminal

jurisprudence, that the proper end of punishment is much more effectually secured by its certainty, than by its severity.* The English law, in many instances, seems to proceed on the converse of this proposition: it enacts severe punishment, but the execution seldom following the enactment, this object and end are not answered.† Sir Samuel Romilly, in common with many other enlightened men, had long lamented, that in the criminal law of the country, capital punishments were appointed to be inflicted for so many crimes; and on the 18th of May, he obtained permission to introduce a bill into parliament, which subsequently passed into a law, to repeal so much of the act of the 8th Elizabeth, cap. 4, as made private stealing a capital crime, without benefit of clergy. In pursuing the course which he had commenced for the purpose of rendering our criminal jurisprudence more consonant to the present state of society, and more conducive to the true ends of justice, Sir Samuel further proposed to grant a compensation to persons unjustly accused, and who were acquitted of crimes; but this object was not effected. It certainly is extremely desirable, in many instances, that persons in such a situation should be compensated for their sufferings and loss of liberty; but the difficulty of drawing the line, and the extreme liability to the abuse of such a principle, form objections and obstacles to the proposed measure hardly to be overcome.

The cause of the Spanish patriots had awakened the zeal and animated the enthusiasm of the people of this country, to

* FINANCES.

PUBLIC INCOME of Great Britain for the Year ending the 5th of January, 1808.

Branches of Revenue.	Gross Receipts.			Paid into the Excheq.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Customs, . . .	9,573,060	6	3	7,462,380	4	10½
Excise, . . .	19,621,076	15	9	17,896,145	14	2
Stamps, . . .	4,543,971	17	6½	4,458,738	14	0½
Land and Assess- ed Taxes, . . .	6,909,190	12	9½	7,073,530	10	8½
Post Office, . .	1,493,490	11	9	1,277,538	11	4½
Miscella. Perma- nent Tax, . . .	175,247	9	7½	170,818	17	11½
Here. Revenue, Extr. Resources.	57,780	2	3½	91,422	14	7½
Customs, . . .	3,065,904	14	2½	2,730,791	14	6½
Excise, . . .	6,320,553	17	11½	6,273,590	18	10½
Prop. Tax, . . .	10,158,008	19	11	9,890,160	15	0½
Miscel. Income, Loans, inclu- ding 1,500,000 <i>l.</i> for the service of Ireland, . .	2,987,130	5	0½	2,864,315	16	0½
	15,267,211	19	8	15,267,211	19	8
Grand Total, £80,062,607	12	3½		£75,446,626	11	6½

Whitehall, Treasury Cham-
bers, 26th of March, 1808. } (Signed)
W. HUSKISSON.

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE of Great Britain for the Year ending the 5th of January, 1808.

Head of Expenditure.	Sum.		
	£	s.	d.
Interest, . . .	20,701,262	0	4½
Charge of Management, . .	297,757	16	1½
Reduction of National Debt, .	9,479,164	12	3½
Interest on Exchequer Bills, .	1,674,361	18	5
Civil List, . . .	1,694,161	19	9
Civil Government of Scotland, .	85,269	3	3½
Payments in anticipation, &c., .	674,899	3	9
Navy, . . .	16,775,761	9	2
Ordnance, . . .	4,190,748	6	6
Army, . . .	9,966,683	13	5
Extraordinary Services, . . .	5,431,867	0	11
Ireland, . . .	3,681,251	3	4
Miscellaneous Services, . . .	1,227,383	0	8½
Deductions for Sums forming no part of the Expenditure of Great Britain, . . .	75,670,641	8	2
	3,681,251	3	4
Grand Total, . . .	£71,969,390	4	10

Whitehall, Treasury Cham-
bers, 26th March, 1808. } (Signed)
W. HUSKISSON.

* Marquis Beccaria.

† In 1805, three hundred persons were capitally convicted in England and Wales, of whom only sixty-five were executed; and in 1806, three hundred and twenty-five were capitally convicted, of whom fifty-seven only suffered.

a degree almost unexampled; and Mr. Sheridan seemed only to be the organ of the public voice, when he rose in the house of commons, on the 15th of June, to direct the attention of the legislature to the affairs of Spain, and to demand their utmost exertions in favour of the Spaniards. "I am far, sir," said Mr. Sheridan, "from wishing ministers to embark in any rash or romantic enterprise; but if the enthusiasm and animation which now exist in part of Spain, should spread over the whole of that country, I am convinced, that since the first burst of the French revolution, there never existed so happy an opportunity for Great Britain to strike a bold stroke for the rescue of the world. Hitherto, the administration of this country, instead of striking at the core of the evil, have contented themselves with nibbling at the rind; I wish, therefore, sir, to let Spain know, that the conduct we have so long pursued, we will not persevere in, but that we are resolved fairly and fully to stand up for the salvation of Europe. Bonaparte has hitherto run a most victorious race. Hitherto, he has had to contend against princes without dignity, and ministers without wisdom. He has fought against countries in which the people have been indifferent as to his success: he has yet to learn what it is to fight against a country in which the people are animated with one spirit to resist him. Sir, I think this a most important crisis. Never was any thing so brave, so generous, so noble, as the conduct of the Asturians. They have magnanimously avowed their hostility to France; they have declared war against Bonaparte; they have no retreat; they are resolved to conquer or to perish in the grave of the honour and the independence of their country. It is, that the British government may advance to their assistance with a firmer step, and with a bolder mien, that I have been anxious to afford this opportunity to the British parliament, of expressing the feelings which they entertain on the occasion." Mr. Sheridan concluded with moving for copies of documents illustrative of the present situation of Spain.

Mr. Canning declared that his majesty's ministers saw with a deep and lively interest the noble struggle which a part of the Spanish nation was now making to resist the unexampled atrocity of France, and to preserve the independence of their country; and assured the house, that there existed the strongest disposition on the part of the British government to afford every practicable aid in a contest so magnanimous. His majesty's ministers, regardless of the war existing between Spain and

Great Britain, would have three objects in view; first, to direct the united efforts of the country against the common foe; second, to direct those efforts in a way that should be most beneficial to the ally; and third, to give them a direction peculiarly conducive to British interests; though the last of these objects would be left entirely out of the question, when compared with the other two. In this contest, in which Spain was embarked, no interest could be so purely British, as Spanish success; no conquest so advantageous to Britain, as conquering from France.

In the prosecution of all wars, the employment and prosperity of the manufacturers are subject to fluctuations and failure; but in the war by which the world was now agitated, when the belligerent powers of Europe were engaged in a contest of commercial proscription, and when America, to escape the evils of actual hostility, had proclaimed an embargo in all her ports, the interests of the merchants and manufacturers of England were sacrificed to a degree hitherto unexampled. In Yorkshire, this state of depression and suffering began to give way to better hopes and brighter prospects. The Brazils afforded an advantageous market for British woollens, and the manufacturers found their accumulated stocks diminish, and their capitals obtain a more beneficial channel of circulation; but unfortunately the other manufactures of Britain did not equally partake of the renovation of commerce. The cotton trade of Lancashire still continued to labour under severe depression, and the wages of the weaver were insufficient to procure for his family the common necessities of life; while the habits contracted in more prosperous times, unfitted them for that patient endurance to which they were exposed by the pressure of the present crisis. To alleviate the sufferings of the operative workmen engaged in the cotton business, an attempt was made in the house of commons to fix the *minimum* wages of the weaver; but the bill introduced for that purpose was rejected; and soon afterwards, disturbances, rather distressing from their cause, than alarming from their nature and extent, broke out at Stockport, Manchester, and other manufacturing towns in that district. Several expedients and arrangements between the delegates of the weavers and the merchants and master manufacturers, took place, but it was soon discovered, that an increased demand for Manchester goods afforded the only means of bringing the differences to an amicable and permanent arrangement; and this event, happily, soon afterwards occurred. Many of the persons who had most distinguished themselves in the riots,

were apprehended, and brought to trial at the summer assizes for the county of Lancaster; but, as the extreme distress by which they had been driven to their improper and illegal conduct, made its just impression on government, the prosecutions were conducted with lenity, and the punishments inflicted were neither vindictive nor severe.

One of the last objects to which the attention of the session of parliament of 1808 was directed, was the affairs of Spain and Portugal. The Duke of Norfolk, availing himself of his privilege as a peer of parliament, took an opportunity, on the 30th of June, to offer some advice to his majesty's ministers regarding the posture of affairs in the peninsula. The conduct lately displayed towards Spain on the part of the French emperor, was characterized by the duke as an act of the most wanton ambition, of the most foul and flagitious perjury, and of the most cruel and unprovoked oppression, ever recorded in the annals of the world. There was no man but what must wish success to a generous and gallant people, thus struggling in the cause of national independence. He hoped ministers would collect from the delegates of the brave people of Spain, now in England, the best information as to the real state of the country;

but, before they made common cause with the patriots, it was their duty to ascertain the principles on which they were acting, and the end to which their co-operation was to be directed.

Lord Hawkesbury, on the part of his majesty's ministers, declared, that the people of Spain had manifested a spirit and determination which would have done honour to the most glorious periods of their history; and that his majesty's ministers would feel it their duty to do every thing, in support of so glorious a cause, that the most generous heart could wish. On the 4th of July, parliament was prorogued, and the commissioners, speaking in his majesty's name, declared that he would continue to make every exertion in his power for the support of the Spanish cause; guided in the choice and in the direction of his exertions by the wishes of those in whose behalf they were employed. In contributing to the success of this just and magnanimous struggle, the object of his majesty would be to preserve unimpaired the independence and the integrity of the Spanish monarchy; and he trusted that the efforts which were directed to that great object, might, under the blessing of divine Providence, lead to the restoration of the liberties and peace of Europe.

CHAPTER IX.

FOREIGN HISTORY: Military Preparations of the House of Austria—Rupture between France and Austria—Passage of the Inn by the Archduke Charles—Departure of Bonaparte from Paris to place himself at the head of his Army in Germany—Battle of Ebensberg—Fall of Landshut into the hands of the French—Napoleon and the Archduke meet for the first time at Eckmühl, where the Austrians sustain a signal Defeat—Fall of Ratisbon—Advance of the French Army to Vienna—Battle of Essling—Operations in Poland and the North of Germany—Campaign in Italy—Battle of Wagram—Retreat of the Austrian Army—Termination of the Fourth Punic War by an Armistice—Treaty of Peace—Gallant Resistance of the Tyrolese—Annexation of the Papal Territories to France—Excommunication of the Emperor Napoleon—Imperial Divorce—Revolution in Sweden.

At the critical and gloomy moment in which the last hopes of Spain seemed to be extinguished, when her capital was occupied by the invaders, her armies defeated and dispersed, and the troops of her British ally obliged to seek safety on board vessels sent to convey them to their own shores; the important events which occurred in Germany, brightened for a time the political horizon. Austria, whose strength had been broken by the disasters of Ulm and Austerlitz, and whose dominion and resources had been curtailed by the peace of Presburg, resolved to convert to her advantage the war in which France was engaged with Spain, and to make a grand effort to regain her ancient independence and power.

From the period of the conferences at Erfurth, till Bonaparte crossed the Pyrenees for the purpose of putting himself at the head of his armies in Spain, Austria went on completing her military preparations. These advances towards a state of hostility were not viewed by France with indifference, and the watchful jealousy of Bonaparte was expressed by his ministers in reproaches and threats. Austria was charged with having opened the harbour of Trieste to the English; her vessels, loaded with British manufactures or the produce of the English colonies, were protected in the passage from Malta to the Levant by ships of war; an official messenger from the Spanish patriots was per-

mitted to land at Trieste: accident, it was asserted, had put the French government in possession of a formal promise made by the cabinet of Vienna to assist the Spanish junta with one hundred thousand men; and Providence itself had interfered to unveil the hostile intentions of the Emperor Francis, by permitting the king of England to allude to them in no ambiguous language, in the official declaration published by that sovereign on the rupture of the negotiations for peace. From Valladolid, Bonaparte sent his mandate to the princes of the confederation of the Rhine, to furnish their contingents, and to hold themselves in readiness for war; and soon afterwards he left Spain, and returned to Paris.

In the month of March, 1809, the preparations for war were prosecuted by both parties with uncommon vigour and activity. The court of Vienna, as if sensible of the causes to which in a great measure its former misfortunes had been owing, adopted, in almost every respect, a different line of conduct from that which had been pursued in former wars with France: having placed the army, in point of numbers, on what was deemed an adequate establishment, continued and zealous efforts were next made towards the organization and discipline requisite to give efficacy to numerical strength. The blind and ruinous policy which had hitherto made advancement or rank to depend upon antiquity of birth and illustrious descent was in a great measure relaxed. Different officers, who had distinguished themselves in former campaigns by superior skill or courage, were advanced to a higher rank, and placed in a more extensive sphere of action. The Austrian army was divided into nine corps, each consisting of from thirty to forty thousand men. The Archduke Charles, freed from the interference of the aulic council, was appointed generalissimo; and six out of the nine corps were placed under his immediate command; the seventh corps was sent under the Archduke Ferdinand into Poland; and the eighth and ninth to Italy, under the Archduke John. There were also two corps of reserve, one of them consisting of twenty thousand men, commanded by Prince John of Lichtenstein, and the other of ten thousand men, under General Kinmayer; exclusive of the partisan corps and the landwehr, or militia, by which the force at the disposal of the commander-in-chief, was swelled to four hundred thousand men.

The force on which Bonaparte principally relied at the commencement of the war, consisted of the troops of Bavaria, Wirtemberg, Saxony, and the other contin-

gents from the confederation of the Rhine. The Bavarians were formed into three divisions, under the Duke of Dantzic, to whom the temporary command of the allied troops was confided till the arrival of Bonaparte. In the mean time, the whole of the north and west of Germany, and the interior of France, were stripped of troops, which proceeded by rapid marches towards the banks of the Danube. On the other side of Italy, Prince Eugene, the viceroy of that country, had concentrated a formidable army; and the Saxon troops, under the Prince of Ponte Corvo, were stationed in the neighbourhood of Dresden, to protect that capital from the Austrian army in Bohemia.

Before the actual commencement of hostilities, the Archduke Charles issued a proclamation of war, in the form of an address to his soldiers, by which they were informed, that the protection of their country demanded their services, and summoned them to new scenes of honour and glory. On the 9th of April, the archduke, having established his head-quarters at Dintz, in the archduchy of Austria, sent formal notice to the French general commanding in Bavaria that he had received orders from his august brother, the Emperor Francis, to advance with the troops under his command, and to treat as enemies all who should oppose him. This notice served as an intimation to the King of Bavaria, who, quitting his capital, repaired to Augsburg. On the following day, the Austrians threw a bridge of boats over the Inn, between Brannau and Scharding, and after crossing that river, advanced slowly into Bavaria.

On the 13th, Bonaparte learned, by the telegraph, that the Austrians had crossed the Inn; and in the evening of that day he quitted Paris, and arrived at Donawarth on the 17th; from which place he removed his head-quarters to Ingolstadt. On the 19th the Duke of Auerstadt advanced to the village of Pressing, where he met a division of the Austrian army; and an engagement immediately took place, which ended in the defeat of the latter. On the same day, another French corps attacked an Austrian division in front, while the Bavarian troops, under the command of the Duke of Dantzic, fell upon their rear, and completed their rout. These partial and insignificant attacks were made by the French generals, apparently for the purpose of preparing the way for a general engagement, and to try the steadiness and courage of their German allies. Bonaparte, during the few days which he had passed with the army, had made himself completely acquainted with its positions; and had so far ascertained the situation of the coun-

try, as to be able to take advantage of the errors of his enemy. The Archduke Louis and General Keller had very imprudently drawn their divisions to so great a distance from the other corps of the Austrian army, as at once to present a weak point of attack to the French, and to expose the troops under the Archduke Charles to disorder or destruction. Bonaparte, perceiving the mistake, resolved to profit by it, and immediately attacked the archduke in front at Ebensberg. A brigade of light infantry, two battalions of horse artillery, and nearly the whole of the cavalry commenced the attack: the Austrians, having taken up their position on broken and intersected ground, were quickly dislodged; the infantry, composed chiefly of the troops of Wirtemberg and Bavaria, formed in column; and the Austrians, compelled to fall back, retreated in all directions, and in extreme disorder, before the victorious confederates, who, in this battle, took eight standards, twelve pieces of cannon, and eight thousand prisoners.

The flank of the Austrian army having been completely laid open by the battle of Ebensberg, Bonaparte lost not a moment in advancing to Landshut. The Austrian cavalry, which had formed before the city, was attacked and driven back by the Duke of Istria; the same fate awaited the infantry; and the town, with thirty pieces of cannon, nine thousand prisoners, and all the magazines established at that place, fell into the hands of the enemy.

At two o'clock in the afternoon of the 22d, Bonaparte arrived opposite Eckmühl, where four corps of the Austrians, amounting to one hundred and ten thousand men, under the immediate command of the Archduke Charles, were already posted. Never before had these chiefs been opposed to each other, and as neither of them had ever yet experienced a defeat, the utmost confidence reigned in their respective armies. Bonaparte's military eye immediately perceived that the left wing of the Austrian army was disadvantageously posted. This wing, he ordered the Duke of Montebello to attack, while the front of the Austrians was opposed by the main body of the French. The contest was long and obstinate, but at the close of the day, the left wing of the archduke's army was turned, and being driven from all his positions, he was compelled to retreat. A large body of the Austrians, endeavouring to make a stand, under cover of the woods in the neighbourhood of Ratisbon, were driven into the plain, and suffered dreadfully from the French cavalry. An attempt to cover the retreat of the main body of the army by the cavalry, was equally unsuccessful; the covering

corps were attacked on both wings, but after maintaining their ground for a considerable time, they were at length obliged to give way, and to seek their safety in flight. The Archduke Charles narrowly escaped being taken prisoner, and it was entirely owing to the fleetness of his horse, that the Austrian commander in person did not serve to swell the trophies of the enemy.

Under cover of the darkness of the night, the broken and discomfited divisions of the Austrian army collected at Ratisbon. At this place, they endeavoured to make a stand; but after three successive charges, they gave way, leaving the field covered with eight thousand of their slain. The French troops, following up their successes, entered the city through a breach in the fortifications; here, a sanguinary engagement took place, in which six Austrian regiments were either cut to pieces or taken prisoners; and the remainder, not having had time to break down the bridge, were closely pursued to the left bank of the Rhine. In these battles, Bonaparte pursued his usual plan of breaking the enemy's forces into detached parts, and then attacking them separately; and the Austrians, uninstructed by experience, had so disposed their troops as to favour his operations. At Ebensberg, the two divisions of the Archduke Louis and General Keller were beaten separately; at Landshut, Bonaparte broke through the centre of their communications, and took their magazines and artillery; and in the battle of Eckmühl, he defeated the remaining divisions of the Austrian army of the Danube, except that of General Bellegarde, which did not join the archduke till the day after his disaster. In the battles of Eckmühl and Ratisbon, the French army took upwards of twenty thousand prisoners, and the greater part of the Austrian artillery; and in the short space of five days, the Austrians had lost forty thousand men and one hundred pieces of cannon.

The defeat of the Austrian armies had laid open their capital to the invaders, and on the 10th of May, Bonaparte, without encountering any formidable resistance in his way from Ratisbon, appeared before the gates of Vienna. The city of Vienna, properly so called, is surrounded by the ancient fortifications which withstood the siege of the Turks in 1683. The suburbs, which are of great extent, are surrounded by some slighter defences, which could be maintained only by a large army. The Archduke Maximilian, to whom the command of the city was intrusted, animated and encouraged the citizens to resistance, as long as the imperfect nature of the for-

tifications, and their unskilfulness in the art of war, would permit. For four-and-twenty hours, the French howitzers played upon the town; but their fire, though destructive, did not shake the constancy of the inhabitants. The palace of the Emperor of Austria was in the direct front of this terrible fire. The emperor himself, and the greater part of his family, had retired to the city of Buda, in Hungary; but one was left behind, confined by indisposition;—this was Maria Louisa, the young archduchess, who soon afterwards became Empress of France. On intimation of that circumstance being made to Napoleon, the palace was respected, and the storm of these terrible missiles directed to other quarters.

When the enemy had succeeded in crossing smaller branches of the Danube, by means of the numerous craft which are constantly on that river, and when the communication with the left bank was on the point of being cut off, surrender became indispensable, and the regular troops, amounting to about four thousand, effected their retreat by means of the great bridge of Tabau, to which they soon afterwards set fire. After the battle of Eckmühl, the Archduke Charles crossed to the north side of the Danube, and retreating in the direction of Bohemia, attempted to gain the capital by forced marches before the arrival of the French. But the capture of Vienna was an object of too much importance, not to be aimed at by Bonaparte with all his powers; and when the archduke had advanced to Meissau, and before he could form a junction with General Keller, he learned, to his extreme mortification, that the Archduke Maximilian had been obliged to capitulate with the French for the surrender of the city. Deprived by this capture of a point of support for the operations of his army, the archduke fixed his head-quarters on the 16th of May at Enzersdorf, the chain of his outposts extending on the right as far as Krems, while Presburg, lower down the river, was occupied by his left. The advanced guards were at the same time pushed forward on the banks of the Danube, and the cavalry was posted on the margin of a small rivulet, on ground covered and partly concealed by bushes.

Bonaparte lost not a moment in forming the determination to attack the Archduke Charles in his new position, and for this purpose the French army was marched down the south bank of the river to Ebersdorf, where two islands of unequal dimensions divide the river into three branches, of the average breadth of about two hundred yards. On the 19th of May, the

French engineers threw two bridges from the right bank* of the Danube to the smaller island; and on the 20th, two other bridges were erected, from that island to the Isle of In-der-Lobau,† which forms a convenient rendezvous for troops, and where Bonaparte fixed his head-quarters. In three hours, a bridge, consisting of fifteen pontoons, was thrown over that arm of the river which separates Lobau from the Marsh Field, and the archduke having formed the resolution not to interrupt the passage of the enemy, they were permitted to extend themselves along the left bank of the river without molestation. Bonaparte was accordingly left at liberty to fix on the field of battle, and he immediately determined to post the right wing of his army on the village of Essling, and the left on the neighbouring village of Aspern.

On the 21st, at daybreak, the Archduke Charles formed his army in two lines, on the rising ground behind Gerasdorf, near the Bisam-Hill. Between the Austrian army and the Danube, was an extensive plain, which, from the even and unobstructed nature of its surface, appeared destined to become the theatre of a general engagement. The Archduke Charles, having duly considered the advantageous position of the French army, and the difficulties he had to surmount, ordered the attack to be made in five columns.

The 1st col. consisted of 19 batt. and 22 squadrons			
2d,	-	20	- 16
3d,	-	22	- 8
4th,	-	13	- 8
5th,	-	13	- 6
The corps of cavalry, — - 78			
of grenadiers, 16 - —			

103 battal. 138 squadrons.
Constituting a force of 75,000 effective men. Of artillery, there were eighteen batteries of brigade, thirteen of position, and eleven of horse artillery; in the aggregate, two hundred and eighty pieces of ordnance of different calibres.

The possession of Aspern was essentially necessary, in order to enable the Austrian artillery to play with effect upon the centre of the enemy's lines; and the army being put into motion exactly at twelve o'clock, the first and second columns were ordered to attack that village. The contest here was most obstinate and murderous: in every street, every house, and every outbuilding, the battle raged with

* It will always be understood that the right of a river is the bank to the right of any body floating down its stream; and as the Danube rises in Suabia, and, passing Vienna eastward, empties itself into the Black Sea, the bank occupied at this time by the French was the right, and that occupied by the Austrians the left of the river.

† In-der-Lobau is about eight English miles in length, and four in breadth.

unexampled fury; every wall was an impediment to the assailants, and a rampart for the attacked; the steeple, attics, and cellars, were to be conquered before either party could style himself master of the place; and for seven hours the conflict continued, each army rivalling the other in courage and perseverance. Scarcely had the Austrians succeeded in gaining possession of one part of the village, when the French poured in strong reinforcements, and dislodged them at another; at length, the second column, combining its movements and attacks with those of the first, made itself master of the upper part of the village, and maintained its position during the whole of the first day's combat. In the mean time, the enemy, having formed his left towards Aspern, and his right towards Essling, advanced in columns upon the main body of the Austrian army, supported by a heavy cannonade. The cavalry, unable to withstand the impetuosity of this shock, fell back in disorder; but the infantry, having reserved their fire till the French had advanced within ten paces, opened upon them with so much effect, as to put them completely to rout. The Austrian line, thus disengaged from the enemy, obtained possession of the remainder of the village of Aspern, and maintained their ground in the face of all opposition.

The third column endeavoured to take advantage of the rout of the enemy, by advancing against them in close battalion, supported by their artillery; but the French cavalry, commanded by Lassalle, suddenly rushed forward, in so great numbers, and with so much rapidity, that the Austrian artillery narrowly escaped falling into their hands, and the battalions were left to defend themselves by their own unsupported exertions. The enemy's cavalry had succeeded in turning both the wings of this column, and in the confidence of victory had summoned them to lay down their arms. This degrading proposal was answered by a steady and well-directed fire, and the enemy was ultimately compelled to abandon his object, leaving the field covered with his slain.

The fourth and fifth columns of the Austrian army were directed to drive the French out of the village of Essling, a position of as much importance to the right of the enemy, as Aspern was to his left. Here, the French fought with still greater obstinacy and courage, than they had displayed in the defence of Aspern; the safety of their retreat depended upon the possession of this village, and although the Austrians succeeded in driving back the corps which were posted in front of the

enemy's position, all their efforts to dislodge them proved ineffectual, and at the close of this day's engagement, the village of Essling remained in possession of the French. The battle of the 21st was terminated only by the night: the French had been driven from Aspern, but they still retained possession of Essling. New efforts were to be expected the following day; Napoleon's glory, as well as the existence of his army, was at stake, and the fate of the Austrian monarchy was suspended upon the success of the army under the archduke. All the disposable troops at Vienna, under General Oudinot, were, during the night, transported across the Danube, in order to reinforce the French army; while the grenadier corps, which had not had any share in the first day's engagement, was ordered to advance from its position near Gerasdorf, to reinforce the Austrians; and the night was too short to complete their respective preparations for the second day's tragedy. The character of Bonaparte left no doubt, that on the morrow all his military talents would be stretched to retrieve the glory he had lost, and to compensate for the disappointment he had sustained. During the battle of the 21st, the archduke had ordered fire-ships to be sent down the river, and these vessels had been so well managed and directed, that the two bridges which connected the island of Lobau with the small island, and that island with the southern bank of the Danube, were destroyed. By the destruction of the bridges, Bonaparte was rendered less able to repair the disasters and losses he had sustained: and in case the battle of the succeeding day should prove decidedly adverse, his retreat, it was apprehended, would be completely cut off. In this point of view, the burning down of the bridges might justly be considered as highly advantageous to the Austrians; but, on the other hand, it led the archduke to expect a most obstinate defence from an army placed in such a situation of peril.

At four o'clock in the morning of the 22d, the battle recommenced, and the Duke of Rivoli again possessed himself of the village of Aspern. The regiments of Klebeck were now directed to make another effort to regain the village; but after a desperate contest, carried on for upwards of an hour in the midst of conflagrations, the Austrians were at length obliged to give way. The regiment of Benyowsky now rushed in, and at the first onset gained possession of the churchyard, the walls of which were immediately destroyed, by order of General Hiller, and the church, and the parsonage-house, soon afterwards

shared the same fate. This regiment, supported by some battalions under General Bianchi, succeeded in establishing itself at the entrance of the village, and maintained this position against the repeated attacks of the flower of the French army. The Archduke Charles was now enabled to act on the offensive; the corps of the Austrian General Bellegarde, having its right wing resting on Aspern, and its centre and left towards Essling, by degrees gained the right flank of the enemy; while the artillery, stationed near the former village in such a manner as to command the intervening space, was brought to bear on his left flank; thus attacked and exposed, the French army was compelled to give way, and retire towards the Danube. While the division of Count Bellegarde was engaged at Aspern, the French cavalry, by a desperate effort, endeavoured to break in between the Austrian cavalry, commanded by Prince Lichtenstein, and the left wing of the Prince of Hohenzollern. Here, the Archduke Charles particularly distinguished himself: the battalion of Zach seeming disposed to give way, he seized its colours, placed himself at its head, and inspired the whole army with the same enthusiasm with which he himself was animated. In the midst of this attack by the French cavalry, the Prince Hohenzollern, perceived on his left wing, near Essling, an opening in the French line, formed during the heat of the engagement; of this circumstance, he immediately took advantage, by ordering thither a regiment in three divisions, which succeeded in gaining and maintaining their position till the arrival of the grenadiers of reserve, by whose co-operation they were enabled to turn and attack the centre of the enemy. The only post which the French were now able to maintain, was the village of Essling, which was attacked by Prince Rosenberg, and defended by the Duke of Montebello. The attack was made with redoubled bravery, and the Austrians pushed into the village with irresistible impetuosity; still, however, they found it impossible to maintain this post. Five times did these gallant troops rush up to the houses burning within, and placed in a state of defence; but all their efforts were fruitless, for their antagonists fought the fight of despair.

In the night between the 22d and the 23d, the French accomplished their retreat to Lobau, and at three o'clock in the morning their rear-guard evacuated Essling, and all the positions they had held on the left bank of the Danube. Thus, terminated a conflict of two days, which will ever be memorable in the military

annals of the world. In this dreadful battle, the loss of the enemy was prodigious; it can be accounted for only by the effect of the concentric fire on an exceedingly confined field of battle, where two hundred pieces of cannon crossed one another; and calculated by the following authentic data: the Duke of Montebello, Generals d'Espagne, St. Hilaire, and Albuquerque, were killed; Massena, Bessieres, Molitor, Boudet, Legrand, Lassalle, and the two brothers Legrange, were wounded; and Generals Durosnel and Foulcr made prisoners. Upwards of 7000 men, and an immense number of horses, were buried on the field of battle; upwards of 5000 were conveyed to the Austrian hospitals; and in Vienna and the suburbs there were 29,773 wounded, exclusive of 2300 who were taken prisoners. The burying of the sufferers was continued for several days, and in the figurative language of the Austrian gazette, "a pestilential air was wafted down the theatre of death."* The loss of the Austrians also was very great: their official accounts acknowledged the death of eighty-seven superior officers, and of more than four thousand subalterns and privates; and twelve of their generals, six hundred and sixty-three officers, and fifteen thousand six hundred subalterns and privates, were wounded.

In detailing the events of the battle of Aspern, and in estimating the loss of the respective armies, our information has been drawn principally from the official documents published by the Austrian government; but candour demands the acknowledgment, that these accounts are at variance with the French bulletins, in many important particulars. According to the tenth bulletin, "the Austrian army, having sustained a defeat on the 21st, was on the point of being destroyed, when, at seven o'clock in the morning of the 22d, an aide-de-camp of the Emperor Napoleon came to inform him, that a sudden rise in the Danube had set afloat a great number of trees, which were cut down during the late events at Vienna, and that the bridges, which formed the communication between the right bank and the little island and that of In-der-Lobau, had thereby been carried away. All the reserve park of artillery, which were advancing, were, by the loss of the bridges, detained on the right bank of the river, as was also a part of the heavy cavalry, and the whole of the Duke of Auerstadt's corps. This dreadful accident induced the emperor to put a stop to the movements in advance."—"The

* Supplement to the London Gazette of the 11th of July, 1809.

Austrians, having learned that the bridges were thrown down, recovered from the frightful state of disorder into which they had been thrown; and from nine o'clock in the morning till seven in the evening they made the most astonishing exertions, supported by the fire of two hundred pieces of cannon, to throw the French army into disorder; but all their efforts tended to their own disgrace; and after discharging forty thousand cannon shot, they were obliged to return to their old position, leaving the French masters of the field. The loss of the Austrians was very great; it was estimated that they left more than twelve thousand dead upon the field. The French loss was also considerable, they had eleven hundred killed, and three thousand wounded."*

It is difficult to decide, between the conflicting statements, at what period, or by what means the bridges were thrown down; but it is perfectly clear, from their own accounts, that the loss of the French was infinitely greater than they acknowledged. For ten hours, the French army was retreating, and consequently in a disadvantageous situation, and during this time they were exposed to the fire of two hundred cannon, from which forty thousand shot were discharged, and by which an immense slaughter must have been inflicted. In the short demi-official accounts published by the Austrians immediately after the battle of Aspern, it was unequivocally and triumphantly declared, that the ruin of Bonaparte was complete; but the event proved the fallacy of these expectations; and the state of inaction into which the army of the archduke was suffered to fall after the 22d, too plainly indicated, that he had failed in his "principal object," which was to drive back the enemy entirely over the first arms of the Danube, destroy the bridges he had thrown over them, and occupy the bank of the Lobau with a numerous artillery."†

While the hostile armies are reposing after their sanguinary labours, busied in repairing their mutual losses, and in preparing for future combats, the attention of the reader may with propriety be directed to the operations of the subordinate armies in other parts of Germany, and in Poland and Italy. On the 15th of April, the Archduke Ferdinand, who commanded the Austrian army in Poland, crossed the *Petrica*, and entered the dutchy of Warsaw.

The Polish General Prince Poniatowski, being much inferior in strength, retreated before the archduke, and Warsaw was occupied by the Austrians. This city they continued to occupy, as well as the surrounding dutchy, till the disasters experienced by the main army, under the Archduke Charles, rendered it expedient, that foregoing all subordinate objects, they should march to join their countrymen on the Danube, and contribute, if possible, to sustain the declining interests of the monarchy. In the beginning of the month of June, the grand dutchy was accordingly abandoned by the Austrians, while the Russian and Polish armies, in the service of France, occupied nearly the whole of Galicia.

The King of Saxony, having been compelled, like the other tributary princes of Bonaparte, to take up arms against Austria, soon found himself stripped of a great part of his dominions, and forced to abandon his capital. The Austrians, possessing a powerful army in that quarter—more powerful indeed than appeared either necessary or advisable, when it is considered that the main prize was to be contended for on the banks of the Danube, not only obtained possession of Dresden and Leipsic, but even threatened the newly-formed kingdom of Westphalia. The war in this part of Germany was attended with various success, but the operations do not, from their general character, claim any particular or detailed narration. A most formidable insurrection sprang up in Saxony, Westphalia, and Hanover, which, if it had been cherished and directed by the support and skill either of the British or the Austrians, would have rendered the situation of Bonaparte dangerous and critical in the extreme. Unfortunately, however, no such aid was afforded to the insurgents, so that, after having harassed the French, and prevented the march of troops to the Danube, they were at last crushed by superior numbers and discipline. At the head of these partisans, appeared two men, well calculated by their characters, their talents, and their influence, to collect and to animate their followers. Schill, a major in the Prussian service, filled with a strong and influential detestation of Bonaparte, found no difficulty in rousing the inhabitants of a conquered country; and although it does not appear that the corps which this officer commanded was at any time very numerous, yet it was formidable to the enemy by the rapidity of its movements, by its sudden and unexpected appearance, and by the countenance which it afforded to the discontented inhabitants. After traversing the whole of the north of

* Tenth bulletin of the French army, dated Ebersdorf, May 23d, 1809.

† See the plan of the attack published by the Archduke Charles on the morning of the 21st of May.

Germany in different directions, and perplexing and defeating the troops that were opposed to him, Schill was at length compelled, from the want of co-operation, and the pressure of superior numbers, to take shelter in Stralsund. Before he had recourse to this measure, he had made himself master of the whole of Mecklenburg, where he had levied very heavy contributions, and raised a great number of recruits. A strong body of Dutch troops, with a column of fifteen hundred Danes, pursued him to Stralsund: in this place, although deprived of its fortifications, Schill had, with incredible industry, perseverance, and skill, made very formidable preparations to defend himself, and resist the attacks of his enemies; but after an obstinate resistance the town was forced; the insurgents were driven from their guns, and the enemy gained possession of streets, filled with the bodies of dead men, who merited a better fate. Schill, and twenty of his officers, were killed; and such of his officers as were taken prisoners were tried and executed as deserters from the service of the King of Prussia. The Duke of Brunswick Oels, though in his own person less unfortunate than Schill, did not effect by his army any thing more decisively or permanently beneficial to the cause of Germany. The duke did, indeed, for some time distract the attention of the French, and occupy some of the troops destined to reinforce the army under Bonaparte; but he was at length compelled to seek for safety in flight, and succeeded in embarking with his little corps for England.

The operations and movements of the hostile armies in Italy, were more important than those of the armies in Poland or in the north of Germany. At the beginning of the campaign in Italy, the Austrians were eminently successful: they soon made themselves masters of Padua and Vicenza, crossed the Adige, and threatened Venice itself. But the victories of Bonaparte in Bavaria rendered it advisable for the Archduke John, who commanded the Austrian army in Italy, to measure back his steps. To this determination, he was also probably in some degree led, by the reinforcement of ten thousand men, which the Viceroy of Italy, Prince Eugene, received from Tuscany. Thus reinforced, the French army of Italy retook Padua and Vicenza, and attacked and overthrew the Austrians beyond the Piave, with the loss of sixteen pieces of cannon, and four thousand prisoners. A few days after this engagement, the French crossed the Tagliamento, and after a few partial skirmishes, inflicted another defeat

upon the Austrian army at Tarvis. Advancing towards Vienna in their victorious career, the French were enabled, on the anniversary of the battle of Marengo, to bring the Archduke John to another engagement at Raab. Victory was for a long time doubtful, but that part of the archduke's army which consisted of the raw and undisciplined troops of the Hungarian insurrection, at length gave way, and six pieces of cannon, four standards, and three thousand prisoners, fell into the hands of the French. After this engagement, the Archduke John retreated with considerable rapidity, and in some disorder, towards Pest, for the purpose of forming a junction with the main Austrian army. After the battle of Raab, the Viceroy of Italy advanced without impediment to the Austrian capital, and by the addition of the force under his command, served to swell the number of combatants in the approaching great and decisive battle of Wagram.

From the day of the battle of Aspern, till the end of the first week in July, Bonaparte continued stationary on the south bank of the Danube; but though stationary, he was by no means inactive. That he was alarmed, both for his own situation, and the effects which his repulse might have on the continent, was abundantly evident. Scarcely a day passed, without producing a bulletin, the ostensible object of which was to register the rise and the fall of the Danube, and to congratulate his army on the approach of the Russians, and the junction of the troops under the Viceroy of Italy. But amidst all this seeming trifling and gasconade, Bonaparte was making the most formidable preparations, not merely to protect himself against an attack from the Archduke Charles, but also to enable him to resume offensive operations in such a manner as might secure success. The construction of the bridges over the Danube was intrusted to General Count Bertrand. In the short space of a fortnight, this engineer raised a bridge of sixty arches to In-der-Lobau, so broad that three carriages could pass abreast, over four hundred fathoms of a rapid river. A second bridge, eight feet broad, was constructed for infantry. These bridges were secured against the effects of fire-ships by stuccadoes, raised on piles between the islands in different directions, and an armed flotilla cruised upon the river, to defend these various and copious sources of communication. Each of the bridges was covered and protected by a *tete-du-pont*, a hundred and sixty fathoms long, surrounded by palisades, frizes, and ditches, filled with water and magazines of provisions,

a hundred pieces of cannon, and twenty mortars, were stationed on the island. Opposite Essling, on the left arm of the Danube, another bridge was formed by the Duke of Rivoli, guarded in like manner by a *tete-da-pont*. At this time, the Austrian army was strongly intrenched on the north bank of the Danube; the left wing stretching towards Enzersdorf, and the right resting on the village of Aspern, which was surrounded with field fortifications, for the purpose of opposing the passage of the river.

While Bonaparte was thus engaged in fortifying his positions, and in preparing such stupendous means for crossing the Danube, the Archduke Charles had not only raised works and planted cannon to secure himself against an attack, but he had also drawn from Germany, Poland, and Hungary, immense reinforcements. It is not easy to calculate exactly the number of troops in either of the armies, but at a fair estimation they may be taken at 150,000 men each. As the principal means of passing the Danube had been formed directly opposite to the Austrian redoubts, between Aspern and Essling, the attention of the Archduke Charles was in a great measure confined to this point. But the object of Bonaparte in making so much parade about this bridge, was to divert the attention of the archduke, and by no means to cross the river in the face of the enemy's most formidable position. On the 4th of July, at ten o'clock at night, General Oudinot, with 1500 voltigeurs, embarked in ten gunboats on the great arm of the Danube, and crossed the river opposite Muhl-leiten. During the night, four new bridges were completed; one of them, in a single piece, eighty toises long, was fixed in less than five minutes, and the three others consisted of boats and rafts thrown over the river. The night was unusually dark, the rain fell in torrents, and the violence of the storm favoured the operations of the enemy. At two o'clock in the morning of the 5th, the whole French army had crossed the Danube, the corps of the Duke of Rivoli forming the left; that of Count Oudinot the centre; and that of the Duke of Auerstadt the right. At day-break, they were arranged in order of battle, at the extremity of the left flank of the Austrians. The Archduke Charles was thus completely out-generalled; his works were rendered useless, and he was compelled to abandon his positions, and to fight the enemy on the spot chosen by themselves. At five o'clock, three bodies of the French cavalry, and as many of infantry, with an immense quantity of ordnance, were seen debelling near Wittau. At

six o'clock, the enemy had surrounded and taken all the Austrian fortifications between Essling and Enzersdorf, the garrisons of which were almost all either killed or wounded. The whole of the 5th was spent in manœuvring; and during the night, Bonaparte attempted to gain possession of the village of Wagram, but owing to the gallant resistance of the Austrians, and to a column of Saxons and a column of French mistaking each other in the dark, the operation failed.

A general engagement had now become inevitable, and at the dawn of the morning of the 6th, the two armies, each provided with upwards of five hundred pieces of cannon, were drawn out for battle. The right of the Austrian army, under Marshal Klenau, consisting of the third and sixth grenadier corps, extended from Sussenbrunn to the Danube; the left, commanded by Prince Rosenberg, supported by Prince Hohenzollern, was stationed in the neighbourhood of Wagram; and the centre, commanded by Count Bellegarde, and supported by the reserve cavalry, under Prince Lichtenstein, was posted in front of Aderklaa. The left of the French army was commanded by the Prince of Ponte Corvo; the right, by the Duke of Auerstadt; and the centre, by Bonaparte in person.

The arrangements of the two hostile commanders were directly at variance with each other. Napoleon had passed the night in accumulating a force to strengthen his centre, where he placed himself in person, within cannon-shot of Wagram. The Archduke Charles, who was with the corps of Bellegarde, had on the contrary extended his flanks and weakened his centre. The corps of Prince Rosenberg, and that of the Duke of Auerstadt, moving in opposite directions, encountered each other in the morning, and gave the signal of battle. At this time, the Austrians were preparing to make a storming attack upon Ober Siebenbrunn, when the Archduke Charles, perceiving that the right wing had not arrived, ordered the prince to halt, and he was ultimately compelled to retire under a galling fire to his former position. This inauspicious commencement of the battle was succeeded by a vigorous attempt on the centre of the French lines at Raschdorf, where Napoleon, surrounded by sixty thousand men in close order, stood directing the operations of his army. The attempt to penetrate the French lines proving unsuccessful, two columns of infantry, protected by a body of cavalry, advanced towards Aderklaa; here the quantity of grape-shot poured in upon the Austrians became overwhelming, and a momentary panic seized the battalions under Marshal Belle-

garde; but, at length, the heroism and energy of the field officers succeeded in restoring order, and the enemy was driven at the point of the bayonet towards Aderklaa. The cannonade now became general along the whole line, and the effect of the injudicious dispositions of the Austrian general, in weakening his centre, every moment manifested itself. Bonaparte, surprised at this manœuvre, at first suspected some stratagem, but he was soon convinced that the Archduke Charles had committed a fatal error, of which he hastened to take advantage. With this view, the Duke of Rivoli was ordered to attack the Austrians at the extremity of the centre, while the Duke of Auerstadt was directed first to turn the position of Mark Grafen Neusiedel, and then to push upon Wagram. The attack upon Mark Grafen was vigorous in the extreme, and Prince Rosenberg after a desperate resistance was forced to evacuate that village. The success of the enemy in outflanking the Austrians continued to increase; and five battalions and one regiment of cavalry, sent by Prince Hohenzollern, were found incapable of arresting his operations. The tower of Neusiedel, built in ancient times to check the incursions of the Hungarians, formed the key of this position, and was defended by Prince Rosenberg, with great gallantry and perseverance; but a concentric discharge of grape-shot mowed down his ranks with so much rapidity, that he was at length obliged to give way, and to leave the French general in possession of the eminence. At the same moment that the attack upon Mark Grafen was taking place, a furious effort was directed against the Austrian centre. Napoleon, acting upon the principle of all his former campaigns, ordered the centre of his army to form in two columns, supported by two batteries consisting of one hundred and sixty pieces of artillery. As soon as these columns were formed, General Macdonald advanced at their head at the *pas de charge*; General Reille, with the brigade of fusileers and sharp-shooters, supported Macdonald; and to render the attack irresistible, the guards at the same time made an advance in front. The Austrian centre, incapable of withstanding this tremendous onset, fell back a league. The right, perceiving the dangerous position in which it was now placed, retreated along with the centre; and the left, being outflanked by the Duke of Auerstadt, fell back upon Wagram. At ten o'clock in the morning, it was clear, to a military eye, that the fate of the day was decided, and from that moment the Austrians fought only to secure their retreat. At noon, the important position of Wagram was carried;

and the Archduke Charles, finding himself cut off from Hungary and Moravia, fell back upon Bohemia. At four o'clock in the afternoon, the Archduke John, at the head of his corps, arrived on the field of battle from Presburg, but the battle was then decided, and in the evening he retreated in the same direction in which he had advanced.

This battle, fought in the vicinity of the Austrian capital, by three hundred thousand warriors, in the view of an equal number of spectators, decided the fate of Germany. The number of the slain was immense; and ten pair of colours, forty pieces of cannon, and twenty thousand prisoners, formed the trophies of the victory.* The French, in estimating the loss of the Austrians, stated that the battle of Wagram had deprived them of sixty thousand soldiers; and the Austrians, in their official returns, admit a loss, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, of upwards of thirty thousand men.† The loss of the French was considerable; in their own bulletins it was stated at fifteen hundred killed, and four thousand wounded; but the Austrian accounts swell that number to twenty thousand.

One of the disastrous consequences of this sanguinary day, was the destruction of twelve of the most considerable villages in the beautiful plain of Vienna; and Bonaparte, with his usual address, imputed these conflagrations to the guilty men who had drawn down upon their country all these calamities.

The French, who lost no time in pursuing the Austrians, came up with the retreating army on the 10th of July at Znaim; here, another battle was fought, which was terminated by a proposal from the Emperor Francis to conclude an armistice. On the 12th, the armistice was signed, and the terms of this document too plainly indicate the extent of the Austrian losses, and the exhausted state of their resources. From causes which at the time were not understood, but which a subsequent matrimonial alliance tended in some degree to explain, the negotiation for a definitive treaty of peace between France and Austria proceeded very slowly, and were not finally closed till the month of October. When the terms of peace were made known, they were generally regarded as by no means unfavourable to Austria. The cessions made by the Emperor Francis, were, however, very considerable, and may be comprised under three heads: first, those to the sovereigns forming the Rhenish league generally; secondly, those to the French emperor; and thirdly, those to

* Twenty-fifth French bulletin.

† Muller's Relation of the Operations of the Austrian and French Armies in 1809.

the King of Saxony. To the King of Bavaria, were ceded Salzburg, and a portion of territory extending along the banks of the Danube, from Passau to the vicinity of Lintz. To France, Austria gave up Fiume and Trieste, with the whole of the country to the south of the Saave, till that river enters Bosnia. The King of Saxony obtained several villages in Bohemia; and in Poland, the whole of Western Galicia, from the frontiers of Silesia to the Bog, together with the city of Cracow, and a district round it in Eastern Galicia. Russia obtained so much of this latter province as should contain four hundred thousand souls. With respect to external politics, the Emperor Francis agreed to acknowledge Joseph Bonaparte King of Spain; to accede to the continental system; and to break off all intercourse with Great Britain. But the most mortifying and humiliating condition of this treaty, was that by which the Austrian monarch gave up the inhabitants of the Tyrol to Bavaria, with a provision indeed that Bonaparte should procure for them a complete and full pardon.

In every part of Germany, peace was now established, except in the Tyrol: the inhabitants of this country, though deserted and given up by that government in whose favour they had risen in arms, and to whom they had manifested an attachment unbroken by the most dreadful sacrifices and sufferings, still refused submission to the conquerors. Their resistance was most formidable: some of the most experienced generals of Bonaparte, at the head of his best troops, were repeatedly defeated, and driven back with great loss, even after they had penetrated into the centre of the Tyrol. At the head of the mountaineers, appeared a man worthy of being a leader among a nation of heroes. The brave Hoffer animated and directed the actions of his countrymen; and before him, untutored as he was in the art of war, the experienced troops of Europe fled in dismay. In vain, did Bonaparte pour in fresh forces, block up the passes of the mountains, and forbid all communication between the inhabitants and the neighbouring countries. All his schemes were foiled; and if for a short time the Tyrolese fled before his armies, or appeared not to oppose their progress, it was only to attack them to more advantage in the passes of the mountains, or to fall upon them when they were unprepared. On the conquest of the country, however, Bonaparte was determined, and at length he effected his purpose, by pouring in continued reinforcements, and by the capture and infamous execution of the gallant Hoffer.

While Bonaparte was at Vienna, and within a few days of the great battle of Aspern, when a less ambitious mind would have been solely fixed on military preparations, he caused proclamations to be made in the public squares and market-place of that city, that from the 1st of June the papal territory should be united with the French empire; and that Rome should at the same time be declared a free and imperial city. This decree, which fixed the annual revenue of the pope at two millions of francs, was grounded on three propositions; first, that the territories of Rome were fiefs bestowed by the Emperor Charlemagne, the predecessor of the Emperor Napoleon, on the Bishops of Rome, to maintain the peace of his subjects; second, that ever since that time the union of temporal and spiritual power has been, and still is, the source of dissension; and third, that the temporal pretensions of the pope are irreconcilable with the security of the French army, the repose and prosperity of the nations subject to the sway of Napoleon, and the dignity and inviolability of his empire. The pope solemnly protested against the violence and injustice by which he had been stripped of his temporal sovereignty; and at the same time issued an act of excommunication against the French emperor, and all his co-operators in this act of unprovoked spoliation. But the thunders of the Vatican had lost their terrors; and an act, which three centuries ago would have roused to arms all the states of Europe, was now witnessed without one single effort on the part of the surrounding sovereigns to pluck the prey from the hands of the spoiler.*

A rumour had for a long time prevailed, which, though it occasionally died away, was always revived after a short interval, that Napoleon meant to divorce Josephine,

* ACT OF EXCOMMUNICATION.

"By the authority of God Almighty, and of St. Paul and St. Peter, we declare you (Napoleon Bonaparte, Emperor of France,) and all your co-operators in the act of violence which you are executing, to have incurred the same excommunication, which we, in our apostolic letters, contemporaneously affixing in the usual places of this city, declare to have been incurred by all those who, on the violent invasion of this city on the 2d of February, last year, were guilty of the acts of violence against which we have protested, as well really in so many declarations, that by our order have been issued by our successive secretaries of state, as also in two consistorial colloquations, of the 16th of March, and the 11th of July, 1808, in common with all their agents, abettors, advisers, and whoever else may have been accessory to, or himself been engaged in, the execution of those attempts.

"Given at Rome, Santa Maria Maggiore, June 10th, in the 10th year of our pontificate
(*Locus Signi*) "PIUS PAPA VII."

for the purpose of uniting himself with a younger and more noble bride. On the 16th of December, this design to dissolve his marriage was formally announced to the conservative senate; and on the same day, the project of a decree was submitted to that assembly, and before the sitting terminated, the law authorizing the divorce was enacted. To witness these proceedings, most of the relations of the emperor and empress were summoned to Paris. The arch-chancellor was ordered to attend in the grand cabinet of Napoleon, where the empress, the Kings of Holland, Westphalia, and Naples; the Viceroy of Italy; the Queens of Holland, Westphalia, and Spain; Madame the mother of Bonaparte; and the Princess Pauline, were assembled. The emperor explained to the assembly his views, and the motives by which he was actuated: and the empress declared that she willingly consented to the divorce, in order to further the policy of the emperor and the interests of France. A process verbal was then drawn up, which was signed by the kings, queens, princes, and princesses, present, as well as by the emperor and empress, and to which was annexed a decree, pronouncing the marriage contract between the Emperor Napoleon and the Empress Josephine to be dissolved.* This extraordinary act, which was conducted with all the dignity and solemnity

of which such a ceremony was capable, served to elicit a secret article in the late treaty at Vienna, and paved the way to that imperial alliance, which, by raising Napoleon to a giddy eminence, laid the foundation of his final ruin.

The affairs of Sweden had now become desperate; Gustavus Adolphus IV. whose romantic character set at defiance all the ordinary calculations of prudence, had embarked his country in a war to which its resources were totally inadequate. At the commencement of the contest with Russia, the Swedes had displayed traits of heroism that would have reflected honour on the army of Charles XII. But notwithstanding the liberal subsidy granted by Great Britain, and the gallant exploits of the English fleet in the Baltic, under Sir James Saumarez, neither the population nor the finances of Sweden were equal to the exigency of their present situation. The progress of the Russians in Finland, and the increasing calamities of the war, aggravated by the ravages of a contagious distemper, and the knowledge of the army that it was the fixed purpose of the king again to measure his strength against the empires of Russia and France, excited universal discontent; and a confederacy was formed against Gustavus, which terminated in his expulsion from the throne of his ancestors. This bloodless revolution, which took place on the 13th of March, 1809, was effected without commotion, and the diet being assembled at Stockholm, the Duke of Sudermania, uncle to the king, was declared regent, and was afterwards chosen king, to the exclusion of his nephew.

Charles XIII. on ascending the throne

The emperor having ended, her majesty the empress spoke as follows:—

*IMPERIAL DIVORCE.
Extract from the Register of the Conservative Senate of Saturday, the 16th of December, 1809.

His majesty the emperor and king addressed the personages assembled to witness the ceremony in these terms:—

"The politics of my monarchy, the interests and wants of my people, which have constantly guided all my actions, require, that after me I should leave to children, inheritors of my love to my people, that throne on which Providence has placed me; but for several years past I have lost the hope of having children by my marriage with my well-beloved consort the Empress Josephine. This it is, which induces me to sacrifice the sweetest affections of my heart, to attend to nothing but the good of the state, and to wish the dissolution of my marriage. Arrived at the age of forty years, I may indulge the hope of living long enough to educate, in my views and sentiments, the children which it may please Providence to give me. God knows how much such a resolution has cost my heart; but there is no sacrifice that my courage will not surmount, when it is proved to me to be necessary for the welfare of France. I shall add, that far from ever having had reason to complain, on the contrary, I have been fully satisfied with the attachment and affection of my well beloved consort. She has adorned fifteen years of my life, the remembrance of which will ever remain engraven on my heart. She was crowned by my hand. I wish her to preserve the rank and title of empress; but above all, that she should never doubt my sentiments, and that she should ever regard me as her best and dearest friend."

"By the permission of our dear and august consort, I ought to declare, that not preserving any hope of having children, which may fulfil the wants of his policy, and the interests of France, I am pleased to give the greatest proof of attachment and devotion that has ever been given on earth. I possess all from his bounty, it was his hand that crowned me, and from the height of his throne I have received nothing but proofs of affection and love from the French people. I think I prove myself grateful in consenting to the dissolution of a marriage which heretofore has been an obstacle to the welfare of France, which deprived it of the happiness of being one day governed by the descendant of a great man evidently raised up by Providence to efface the evils of a terrible revolution, to re-establish the altar, the throne, and social order. But the dissolution of my marriage will in no degree change the sentiments of my heart; the emperor will ever have in me his best friend. I know how much this act, demanded by policy, and by so great an interest, has chilled his heart; but both of us exult in the sacrifice which we make for the good of the country."

of Sweden, professed his determination not to consent to any peace with Russia that should be disgraceful to his country, or that should oblige her to take up arms against her faithful ally Great Britain. The war between Russia and Sweden was accordingly renewed, but misfortune still attended the Swedish armies, and peace was at length purchased by the sacrifice of Finland. Soon after the conclusion of the treaty of peace with Russia, negotiations were opened between Sweden and France, and on the 6th of January a treaty was concluded, by which Swedish Pomerania, with the principality of Rugen, was restored to Sweden; the former commercial relations between the two countries were revived; and the Emperor Napoleon acting upon his usual policy, prevailed upon his new ally to adopt the continental

system, and to exclude British commerce from the ports of the Baltic.

The time had now arrived, when the efficacy of this system was to be fairly submitted to the test of experience; the ports of France, Italy, Holland, Russia, Germany, Denmark, and Sweden, were all closed by law against the introduction of English manufactures and merchandise; the continental system had become the law of the continent; but the spirit of British enterprise, co-operating with the wants of the various states of Europe, and assisted by the connivance of several of the involuntary auxiliaries of France, relaxed the rigours of commercial interdiction, and served to prove the futility of all attempts to destroy an intercourse grounded on the necessities and benefits of surrounding nations.

CHAPTER X.

BRITISH HISTORY: Meeting of the Parliament of 1809—Monument voted to the Memory of Sir John Moore—Thanks of Parliament voted to Sir Arthur Wellesley, and the Officers and Troops under his command—Augmentation of the Military Force of the Country—Discussions on the Convention of Cintra—Charges exhibited against his Royal Highness the Duke of York—Nature of the Evidence—Decision of the House of Commons at variance with the Public Voice—Resignation of the Commander-in-chief—Expressions of Public Gratitude to Colonel Wardle—Abuse of India Patronage—Charges against Lord Castlereagh of trafficking in Seats in Parliament—Public Finances—Extortionate Conduct of the Dutch Commissioners—Charge of Corrupt Practices preferred by Mr. Madocks against Lord Castlereagh and Mr. Spencer Perceval—Sir Francis Burdett's Plan of Parliamentary Reform—Mr. Wardle's Motion relative to the Public Expenditure—Prorogation of Parliament—Destruction of the French Fleet in Basque Roads—Naval Operations in the Mediterranean—Colonial Conquests—Relations between Great Britain and the United States—Disastrous Expedition to the Scheldt—Dissensions in the Cabinet—Duel between Lord Castlereagh and Mr. Canning—Dissolution of the Ministry—Ministerial Arrangements—The Jubilee.

THE parliamentary session of 1809 was more distinguished for discussions regarding the domestic concerns of the country, than for the agitation of those topics which concerned its foreign relations; and the charges against the commander-in-chief, grounded on an abuse of patronage in his official situation, and against his majesty's ministers, arising out of the corrupt disposal of high offices and seats in the commons house of parliament, occupied a large portion of the session, and imparted to its proceedings an unusual degree of interest and animation. On the 19th of January, parliament assembled, when his majesty's speech was delivered by commission. This document, which related principally to the peninsula of Spain and Portugal, strongly recommended an augmentation of the regular army, in order that his majesty might be the better enabled, without impairing the means of defence at home, to avail himself of the military power of his dominions to conduct the great contest in which he was engaged, to a conclusion

compatible with the honour of his majesty's crown, and with the interests of his allies, of Europe, and of the world.

The usual address to his majesty, which was moved in the house of lords by the Earl of Bridgewater, seconded by Lord Sheffield; and in the house of commons by the honourable Frederick Robinson, seconded by Mr. S. B. Lushington; was carried in both houses without a division, but not without several strong and pointed animadversions on the manner in which the war had been conducted, and on the general policy of his majesty's government.

One of the first subjects that engaged the attention of parliament, was the expression of the feelings of the country towards those distinguished characters whose services had tended in so eminent a degree to support its military renown; and on the 25th of January, the Earl of Liverpool, in the house of peers, and Lord Castlereagh, in the house of commons, moved the thanks of parliament

to the officers and men under Sir John Moore, by whose gallantry and good conduct the victory of Corunna was achieved. The battle of Corunna, it was observed, was never surpassed in the annals of military fame. The engagement took place under the most adverse circumstances; and yet so complete was the victory, that the army, after remaining unmolested for the whole night on the field of battle, were on the following day able to embark in the presence of a superior force, and without leaving a wounded soldier, a piece of artillery, or any thing which the enemy could boast of as a trophy. The triumph was indeed damped by the death of the hero who achieved the victory. It was unnecessary to expatiate on the merits of Sir John Moore; they were fresh in the memory of his country; during the two last wars, there was scarcely an important service in which he was not engaged; he had indeed devoted the whole of his life to the public service, and his memory would live for ever in the gratitude of his country.* That country would cheerfully concur in handing down to posterity an expression of its gratitude for his eminent and illustrious deeds in arms, and devote to the memory of General Moore a lasting mark of national estimation, by erecting to him a monument, as a just trophy to his fame, and an excitement to those he had left behind him to imitate his example.

In every tribute to the memory of Sir John Moore, and in every eulogium upon his character, the opposition side of the house fully concurred. It was a mark of duty and of gratitude due from the house and from the country, to that immortal commander, to perpetuate his memory.† It was owing to the talents of Sir John Moore, that any part of his army was brought away; and the conduct of the troops, like that of the commander, was above all praise. The failure and slaughter through which they had passed to the glorious exhibition of their valour, they owed solely to the disastrous councils which employed that valour upon a frantic and impracticable object.‡ For what purpose was so much precious blood shed? Did it produce any advantage to the country? Were the troops sent to Spain to escape from it?§ Their lives had been squandered as little to the advantage of the country, as if they had been shot on the parade of St. James's Park.|| The hand of Providence was upon us. Within three years, we had lost two of the greatest

statesmen the country ever saw; within the same time, we had lost a naval hero of transcendent talents and courage; and now we had to regret the loss of a military chief, who, if it had pleased Providence to spare him to us, would have equally upheld the power and increased the glory of the country.

The motion for the thanks of parliament was carried unanimously in both houses, and a monument was voted to the memory of Lieutenant-general Sir John Moore.

These proceedings were succeeded by a motion for thanks to Sir Arthur Wellesley, and the officers and men under his command, for the brilliant victory obtained at the battle of Vimiera. In proposing this vote of thanks, Lord Castlereagh observed, that it was impossible to find in the military annals of Great Britain, a more glorious instance of the superiority of her arms, than had been displayed on that occasion. We had had our victories of Egypt and of Maida; but none of these triumphs ever exceeded the victory of Vimiera, which had afforded a further striking and unquestionable proof, that whenever or wherever British troops were brought into action with the French, they were greatly their superior in courage, hardihood, and discipline.

Lord Folkestone was very ready to admit all the courage and gallantry which attached to the character of Sir Arthur Wellesley, and also the enthusiasm of the army under his command, but he objected to the vote of thanks for the battle of Vimiera, because he did not think it of that brilliant description to demand such a tribute from parliament, and because it fell short of those good consequences which ought to result from victory, and ended in a manner disgraceful to the country.

A long and animated debate ensued; after which the vote of thanks was carried with the sole dissentient voice of Lord Folkestone.

In the speech by his majesty's commissioners, at the opening of the present session of parliament, an augmentation of the disposable force of the country had been strongly recommended; and so early as the 2d of February a bill was introduced into the house of commons, by Lord Castlereagh, for that purpose. His lordship, in submitting this measure to the consideration of parliament, observed, that it had now been ascertained, that in every extraordinary crisis, a considerable supply of troops could be had for the regular army, by availing ourselves of the zeal and spirit which were always manifested on such occasions by the militia, who were ever willing to volunteer their services when

* Lord Liverpool.

† Lord Henry Petty.

‡ Lord Grenville.

§ Lord Moira.

|| Lord Erskine.

there was a great and pressing necessity for increasing the disposable force; and out of twenty-eight thousand men, permitted on a late occasion to volunteer from the militia into the line, twenty-seven thousand did actually enter within the space of twelve months. The extent to which he now proposed to limit the volunteering into the line, would be, that no regiment of militia should be reduced to less than three-fifths of its present force; and instead of thirty-six thousand men, to be raised in England, to supply the deficiency, he should now propose only twenty-four thousand. In order to relieve the counties from the great pressure of the ballot, he should propose, that the expense of raising the men to fill up the vacancies in the militia, should be defrayed, not by the counties, but by the public. The bounty to recruits, he should fix at ten guineas; and if the voluntary enlistment for the militia did not succeed, and it was found necessary to resort to a ballot, it was his intention, in that case, to propose, that the bounty of ten guineas should be given to the ballotted man to assist him in procuring a substitute. In the progress of this measure through parliament, it was stated by the Earl of Liverpool, that the regular army at the present moment consisted of more than two hundred and ten thousand infantry, and twenty-seven thousand cavalry. The infantry was disposed into one hundred and twenty-six first battalions, averaging nine hundred men each, and fifty-six second battalions, of which the average number was about four hundred men, and the object of this bill was to render the second battalions complete.

The inroad made by the army augmentation bill upon the constitution of the militia, and the uncertainty to what service this additional force was to be applied, called forth a very animated opposition, but the measure ultimately passed into a law, by large majorities.

The terms of the convention of Cintra, and the circumstances which led to the conclusion of that treaty, were, on the 21st of February, brought under the consideration of parliament by Lord Henry Petty, who concluded a long and eloquent speech by moving the two following resolutions:—

1. "That the convention concluded at Cintra, on the 30th of August, 1808, and the maritime convention concluded off the Tagus on the 3d of September, in the same year, appear to this house to have disappointed the hopes and expectations of the country.

2. That the causes and circumstances which immediately led to the conclusion of those conventions, appear to this house, in a great measure, to have arisen from the misconduct and neglect of his majesty's ministers."

This motion was strenuously opposed by ministers, who contended that it was a brilliant addition to the military glory of the country, to have expelled, in the course of a short campaign of three weeks, an army of twenty-five thousand French from Portugal; and on the motion of Lord Castlereagh, the previous question was put, and carried by a majority of 203 to 152 voices.

The proposed vote of censure on ministers for the unfortunate termination of the campaign in Portugal was succeeded by a motion introduced into the house of commons, three days afterwards, by Mr. Ponsonby, for the institution of an inquiry into the causes, consequences, and events of the late disasters in Spain. This inquiry ministers judged it proper to resist, and a majority of the house confirmed their decision.

Amidst the momentous events which presented themselves on the continent, and the weighty deliberations which occupied the councils of the British nation, an inquiry was instituted in the house of commons, which for a time seemed to cast into the shade every other public consideration, and which in its consequences involved the character of the commander-in-chief, the discipline of the army, and the future estimation of parliament. On the 27th of January, Colonel Wardle* rose in his place in the house of commons, to submit to that assembly a motion respecting certain abuses which had prevailed in the British army. In bringing forward this subject, he was impelled by no other motive than a sense of public duty, and he should make no assertions that were not supported by positive facts. The power of disposing of commissions in the military service of the empire, had been placed in the hands of a person of high birth and extensive influence; and he was sorry to say that this power had been exercised to the worst of purposes. The disposal of commissions in the army had been placed in the hands of the commander-in-chief for the purpose of defraying the charges of the half-pay list, for the support of veteran officers, and for increasing the compassionate fund for the aid of officers' widows and orphans; but he could bring positive proof that such commissions had been sold, and the money applied to very different purposes; and this duty, so essential to the rights of the army and the interests of his country, he should discharge without dismay. For this purpose, it was absolutely necessary to call the attention of the house to an establishment

* Gwyllym Lloyd Wardle, member for Oakhampton, and lieutenant-colonel of the Ancient British Light Dragoons.

of the commander-in-chief in Gloucester-Place; this establishment, which consisted of a splendid house, a variety of carriages, and a long retinue of servants, commenced in the year 1803, and at the head of it was placed a lady of the name of Clarke. Of that lady's name, he should have occasion to make frequent mention, in connexion with a number of names and facts, to show the house that he had not taken up this subject on light grounds.

The first case which he should state was that of Captain Tonyn: this officer, who held his captaincy in the 48th regiment of foot, received his commission as a captain on the 2d of August, 1803, and was promoted to a majority in the 31st regiment, in August, 1804. He was indebted for his promotion to the influence of Mrs. Clarke. Captain Tonyn was introduced to that lady by Captain Huxley Sandon, of the royal wagon train; the terms of agreement were, that Mrs. Clarke should be paid five hundred pounds upon his majority being gazetted, and this sum was, in the mean time, lodged in the hands of Mr. Jeremiah Donovan, a surgeon, of Charles-street, St. James's Square. This Mr. Donovan was appointed a lieutenant in the 4th royal garrison battalion, in 1802, and was afterwards promoted to the 11th battalion, but since the day of his appointment he had never joined his regiment, and seemed to have leave of perpetual absence. Major Tonyn was gazetted, and the money, which had been lodged in Mr. Donovan's hands, was then paid to Mrs. Clarke, by Captain Huxley Sandon. The regulated difference between a company and a majority was 1100*l.*; but in this instance Mrs. Clarke gained 500*l.*, and the 1100*l.* was lost to the half-pay fund. This sum of 500*l.* was paid by Mrs. Clarke to Mr. Birkett, a silversmith, in part payment for a service of plate for the establishment in Gloucester-Place, the balance for which plate was afterwards paid by the Duke of York. "From this case," said Colonel Wardle, "it is clearly deducible, that Mrs. Clarke possessed the power of military promotion; that she received pecuniary consideration for such promotion; and that the commander-in-chief was a partaker in the benefit arising from such pecuniary consideration."

The second case was an exchange, concluded on the 25th of July, 1805, through the influence of Mrs. Clarke, between Lieutenant-colonel Brooke, of the 56th regiment of infantry, and Lieutenant-colonel Knight, of the 5th dragoon guards. It was agreed that Mrs. Clarke should receive 200*l.* on this exchange being gazetted, and as the lady wanted some money to defray the expenses of an excursion into the country, she urged the commander-in-chief to expedite this exchange; her request was made on Thursday, the exchange was gazetted upon the Saturday following, and Mrs. Clarke received in consequence the 200*l.* from Dr. Thynne, a physician, who negotiated the transaction. Here then was a case which proved that exchanges, as well as promotions, were at the disposal of Mrs. Clarke, and that the purse of the commander-in-chief was saved by the supply which his mistress derived from such sources.

The next was the case of Major Shaw, appointed deputy barrack-master-general at the Cape of Good Hope. It appeared that the commander-in-chief had no favourable opinion of Major Shaw; but Mrs. Clarke interposed: he consents to pay

her 1000*l.* Of this money, he immediately paid 200*l.*; shortly afterwards, he paid her 300*l.* more: when she finding he was backward in the payment, sent to demand the remainder; but seeing no chance of receiving it, she complains to the commander-in-chief, who immediately put Major Shaw upon the half-pay list. The honourable gentleman said, he had a letter from Major Shaw himself, stating the fact, and he never knew but one other instance of an officer being thus put on the half-pay list. Here then was a further proof, to show that Mrs. Clarke's influence extended to the army in general, and that it operated to put any officer on the half-pay list, and that the commander-in-chief was a direct party in her authority.

The next case to which he should advert, of the lady's influence, was that of Colonel French, of the horse guards. This gentleman was appointed to a commission for raising new levies in 1804, and the business was set on foot by Mrs. Clarke. He was introduced to her by Captain Huxley Sandon, and she was to have a certain sum out of the bounty for every recruit raised, and a certain portion of patronage in the nomination of the officers. She was waited on by Colonel French, of the first troop of horse guards, and as the levy went on, she received various sums of money by Colonel French, Captain Huxley Sandon, Mr. Corri, and Mr. Cockayne, an eminent solicitor in London. To so great a height had the practice of selling commissions in this disreputable manner arisen, that a written scale of Mrs. Clarke's prices, as contrasted with the regulated price of commissions, was sent by Mr. Donovan to Captain Tuck, to whom he very strongly recommended this path to promotion.

<i>Mrs. Clarke's Prices.</i>	<i>Regulated Prices</i>
A Majority, 1900 . . .	12,600
A Company, 700 . . .	1,500
A Lieutenantcy, 400 . . .	550
An Ensigncy, 200 . . .	400

From this scale, it appeared that all this was lost to the half-pay compassionate fund, to put money into Mrs. Clarke's pocket.

The next instance was one in which the commander-in-chief himself was a direct partaker in the advantages of this traffic, by a loan to be furnished through Colonel French, the writings for which were drawn by a Mr. Grant, an eminent solicitor of Barnard's Inn, for the purpose of raising 3000*l.*; but he did not receive it, because a sum of 3000*l.* was due from government to Colonel French. Hence then it was obvious that Mrs. Clarke exercised an influence in raising the military force of the country, in disposing of commands in that force, and in converting the purchase of commissions to her own private advantage.

The honourable gentleman next alluded to the case of Captain May, of the African corps, who had attained promotion in the army over the heads of all the subalterns, though he had never joined his regiment; and was in fact still a clerk in the office of Mr. Greenwood, the army agent.

There was another circumstance in this case, which he could not pass unnoticed; it was the existence of a public office in the city of London, where commissions in the army were offered to purchasers at reduced prices, and where the clerks openly and unequivocally stated, in his own presence, and in his hearing, that they were employed by the present favourite mistress of the commander-in-chief, Mrs. Carey; and that, in addition to commissions in the army, they were employed to dispose of places in every department

of church and state; and those agents did not hesitate to state, in words and writing, that they were employed under the auspices of two of his majesty's principal ministers.

Having gone through the whole of his statement, Colonel Wardle concluded by moving for a committee of inquiry into the conduct of the Duke of York, in respect to the disposal of military commissions; which motion was seconded by Sir Francis Burdett.

Few subjects have ever been listened to with such deep attention in the house of commons, as the speech delivered by Colonel Wardle on this occasion; and few subjects have ever taken such firm hold on the public mind. Confidently, however, as the charges were made, they were met with equal confidence by the friends of the royal duke. On the ministerial side of the house, it was said, that so far from shrinking from inquiry, the commander-in-chief was anxious for a full investigation of the business now submitted to the consideration of parliament. The matter had now assumed a tangible shape, and it behoved the honourable gentleman to establish the very serious and important charges which he had thought it his duty to exhibit. Every loyal subject had, for some time past, viewed, with the deepest concern, the continued and rapid current of anonymous scurrility which had been poured forth against the various branches of the royal family; and it was perfectly clear, that a vile jacobinical conspiracy existed against the illustrious house of Brunswick.* If, in bringing forward these charges, the honourable gentleman was actuated solely by patriotic motives, and a regard to the public welfare, his conduct was entitled to the highest admiration; but it was not to be disguised, that when such imputations were once exhibited, they must be brought to a conclusion, and ignominy and infamy must attach somewhere.† It was a great satisfaction to find so universal a concurrence of sentiment with respect to the necessity of examining, in the most solemn manner, the charges which had now been brought forward. It was a proud situation for the constitution of the country, as well as for the illustrious personage who was the subject of this accusation, to have a person the most exalted in rank of any subject of the realm, one excepted, desiring the same publicity in prosecuting the investigation against him, as would take place in the lowest and meanest subject.‡ It was true the proposed investigation would subject

the house to extreme inconvenience, by protracting the business, both public and private; but if ever there was a case that required that all convenience should give way, this was unquestionably that case.*

The members in the ranks of opposition concurred fully in this inquiry. It was expedient that the rumours in circulation to the disadvantage of the Duke of York, should be fairly brought to the test of investigation, before so grave, so honourable, and so competent a tribunal as the house of commons, and there receive the judgment and decision, which, no doubt, would be highly honourable to the character of the illustrious personage who had been so vehemently assailed by them.† As to the anonymous libels complained of, they had nothing to do with this inquiry; the charges now made were not anonymous, and the Duke of York ought to be obliged to the honourable gentleman who had brought them forward, and given him an opportunity of rendering his character impervious to future attacks.‡ Not only the eyes of the country, but the attention of all Europe, would be fixed upon the pending investigation, and it behoved the house to act in the most grave and decisive manner.§ At the conclusion of this debate, the chancellor of the exchequer said, that publicity had been mentioned as desirable; he was of the same opinion; and, on the motion of that right honourable gentleman, it was determined that the investigation should be conducted before a committee of the whole house.

The charges against the commander-in-chief, divested of their technicality, resolve themselves into this one point; that, availing himself of his high office, he had knowingly permitted the woman whom he kept as his mistress, to traffic in commissions in the army, and did himself participate in the emoluments which were derived from this scandalous, corrupt, and illegal traffic. The evidence on which Colonel Wardle supported this momentous charge, arose from the testimony of Mrs. Clarke, the principal agent in these transactions, filled up where it was defective, and corroborated where it was weak, by the testimony of those to whom she had disposed of commissions, or by documents brought forward in the progress of the inquiry.

That Mrs. Clarke had received large sums of money from a great number of persons for the exertion of her influence, real or supposed, with the Duke of York,

* Mr. Yorke.

† Mr. Canning.

‡ Lord Castlereagh

* The chancellor of the exchequer.

† Sir Francis Burdett.

‡ Mr. Whitbread.

§ Mr. Wilberforce.

while she was living under his *protection* (such was the phrase) in Gloucester-Place, was proved beyond all possibility of doubt, by the evidence of Doctor Thynne, Mr. Robert Knight, Captain Huxley Sandon, Mr. Dowler, and others, who had themselves purchased her services, and who, for the most part, appeared as unwilling witnesses; but that the duke was cognisant of these corrupt practices, and that the money so raised was, with the knowledge of his royal highness, applied to defray the expenses of the establishment of his mistress, was not made equally clear. There was, however, strong ground of suspicion, and the prevailing opinion of the country was, that this charge also was satisfactorily established by the evidence of Mrs. Clarke, Miss Taylor, her relation, Mr. Dowler, of the commissariat department, and the documents elicited in the progress of the investigation. The history of the origin of this nefarious traffic, was thus given by Mrs. Clarke. The establishment in Gloucester-Place, she said, consisted of two carriages, six or eight horses, and eight or ten men servants, of all of which she had to pay the expense. Her allowance from the Duke of York was a thousand a year;* but for three months before his royal highness left her, he never gave her a guinea, and so far short were the sums which she received from him of defraying the expenses of the establishment, that they would scarcely pay the servants their wages, and buy them liveries. This, she often represented to his royal highness, and after they had been acquainted a few months, he told her, that if she was clever, she would never ask him for money; he added, that she had more interest than the queen, and that she might use it. Of these hints, she did not fail to profit; and the duke was well aware that she used her influence with him in order to procure money from military officers and others, and that the money so obtained

was applied to defray the expenses incident to her situation.

In the course of the cross-examination, much important evidence was adduced; and one of the most conclusive proofs of the truth of the charges, arose from the fact that they derived additional strength from the means taken by the advocates of the commander-in-chief to refute them; indeed, his royal highness was more indebted for the strong parts of the case made out against him, to his friends than to his enemies; and the numerous letters brought to light by their means, of which the prosecutor at first was totally ignorant, placed Mr. Wardle on high ground, and induced the ministers of the crown to change the lofty tone of menace and defiance, into the humble note of pity and commiseration. At the close of the evidence on the 22d of February, the opinion of the general officers, who were members of the house of commons, was asked with respect to the improvement of the army in discipline and condition, and whether the system of promotion had not been improved under the administration of the Duke of York. Generals Norton and Fitzpatrick, the secretary of war, Sir Arthur Wellesley, and General Grosvenor, all answered these questions affirmatively, and pronounced high eulogiums on the character and conduct of his royal highness.

During this inquiry, which was continued for three weeks without the intervention of any other business, Mrs. Clarke, the heroine of the drama, was examined at the bar again and again; and by the readiness and smartness of her answers to the infinite number of questions proposed by the learned and honourable gentlemen by whom she was surrounded, gave a degree of relief to the protracted examinations. This new and splendid theatre for the display of her person and talents, seemed to afford her great satisfaction, and she sometimes carried her ease, gayety, and wit, to the borders of pertness and indecorum.*

* The statement that the duke had allowed only 1000*l.* a year for the support of the prodigal and profligate establishment in Gloucester-Place, made so strong an impression on the public, that the chancellor of the exchequer was driven to the humiliating necessity of contradicting this assertion, by declaring, in the face of a burthened people, that the sum lavished by the Duke of York upon this seat of voluptuousness from January, 1804, to May, 1806, amounted to 16,760*l.*; this assertion, however, though it exposed the extravagance of the duke, did not invalidate the evidence of his discarded mistress, for when the purchase of the lease of the premises, the expense of furniture, and the presents of plate and jewels, were taken into the account, not more than a balance of 1000*l.* a year remained to meet the current domestic expenditure.

* Being asked by Mr. Croker, if she had not written an anonymous letter to the Prince of Wales? she answered, Yes. Did you sign any name to this anonymous letter, said Mr. Croker? Mrs. Clarke made no reply, but, looking archly at the chairman, burst into a fit of laughter, in which indeed she was joined by the whole house. Being asked by Sir Vicary Gibbs if she had given the same account to Mr. Wardle of the negotiation for the exchange between Colonels Brook and Knight, that she now gave to the house of commons? she replied, No. Which then is the true account? Both. In what then, inquired Sir Vicary, did they differ? They did not differ at all, replied Mrs. Clarke—she had not entered into the same detail with Colonel Wardle. The attorney, general, in order to weaken her evidence, by

On the 23d of February, a letter was addressed by the commander-in-chief to the house of commons, through the medium of the speaker, in which his royal highness, in the most solemn manner, upon his honour as a prince, distinctly asserted his innocence, and claimed from the justice of the house, that he should not be condemned without a trial. On the 8th of March, the subject was resumed, when Mr. Wardle moved an address to his majesty, stating, that after a diligent and laborious inquiry, it had been proved, to the satisfaction of the house, that corrupt practices had existed to a very great extent in the different departments of the military administration; and praying that his majesty would be graciously pleased to remove the Duke of York from the command of the army. To that address, an amend-

bringing her motives and general character into discredit, inquired if she had not said, that if the Duke of York did not come into her terms she would expose him? No; she had said that if the duke did not pay her the annuity of 400*l.* which he promised, she would publish his letters, and pay her creditors with the profits of the publication. Had she not sworn that she was not a married woman, when she was examined before a court-martial? No; she thought it would be improper to say that she was a married woman, when it was known that she had been living with the Duke of York, and she said she was not, but did not swear it. Had she not sworn that she was a widow? The duke had insisted that she should plead her marriage to avoid her debts contracted at Gloucester-Place, or else she might go to prison; and when she applied to him for a few hundred pounds, he returned for answer, that if she dared to speak against him, or to write against him, he would put her in the pillory or in the Bastille. Who brought this message respecting the pillory? said the attorney-general. A very particular friend of the Duke of York's, replied Mrs. Clarke, one Taylor, a shoemaker in Bond-street. By whom was the request sent for a few hundreds? By my own pen, said Mrs. Clarke. How was the letter sent? By this ambassador of Morocco. Who do you call by that name? The lady's shoemaker. Here the chairman admonished the witness of the impropriety of giving her evidence in this flippant and unbecoming manner, and apprized her, that if she persevered in such conduct, she would expose herself to a heavy censure.

Mr. Sheridan, in the examination of the 17th of February, sprang a new mine of discoveries, by asking Mrs. Clarke if she had ever any negotiations respecting promotions unconnected with the military department—in the church, for instance? Yes, said the witness, several; among others, Dr. O'Meara, an Irish divine, applied to me to be made a bishop; and the Duke of York, at my request, procured him an opportunity of preaching before royalty at Weymouth; but the duke told me that the king did not like the great O in the doctor's name, and the negotiation failed. This story was at first thought incredible, but a letter from the Duke of York, produced on the investigation, proved that his royal highness had actually corresponded with his mistress on this subject.

ment was proposed by the chancellor of the exchequer, substituting two resolutions, the first stating that an inquiry had been instituted into the conduct of the commander-in-chief; and the second, that it was the opinion of the house that there was no just ground to charge his royal highness with personal corruption or criminal connivance. To this amendment, another amendment was afterwards moved by Mr. Bankes, acquitting the Duke of York of personal corruption or criminal connivance, but expressive of an opinion that abuses could scarcely have existed to the extent to which they had been proved, without exciting some suspicion in the mind of the commander-in-chief; and suggesting that, after the exposures made by the recent inquiry, the cause of religion, and a regard to the public happiness and tranquillity, required the removal of the Duke of York from the command of the army.

The motion of Mr. Wardle, and the subsequent amendments, gave rise to many long and animated discussions, which continued for several nights; and in the course of these debates, it was urged, in favour of the original motion, that whatever might be due to the superior rank of his royal highness, the members of that house should, as representatives of the people, always bear in mind that it was their duty to protect the public interests, and to watch over the security and welfare of the state.* It was not meant to be insinuated that the Duke of York had put money into his own pocket: he was superior to such low and grovelling motives; what he had done had been as favour to his mistress, and Mrs. Clarke had clearly shown how she had effected it. In the outset of the business, it had been declared that there was a conspiracy against the Duke of York, extending even to the illustrious house of Brunswick; but the witnesses, instead of appearing to be in a conspiracy with Mrs. Clarke, seemed to be in one against her. It had been said, too, that infamy must attach somewhere; and where had it fallen? Not on the accuser, most certainly. Jacobins had been talked of; but where did Jacobins dwell? Jacobins indeed there were; and the genius of jacobinism presided in Gloucester-Place—there, he held his midnight revels, and there sat the Duke of York himself as chairman of the festive board. There, was the nest in which jacobinism was nourished. Jacobinism held its habitation as much in the palace of the prince, as in the cottage of the peasant; and if we would exclude him

* Mr. Wardle.

from the latter, we must be cautious not to admit him into the former. Jacobinism makes the food it feeds upon; it hangs upon a prince's follies, that it may turn them into vices, and even aims its venom at senates, in tempting them to neglect the faithful discharge of their duty. The house had been reduced to a melancholy situation by the letter of the Duke of York; they were obliged to credit the evidence they had heard, even against the honour of a prince.* It was a little extraordinary to observe the chancellor of the exchequer, the attorney-general, and in fact the whole legal phalanx of the house, whose constant and practical habit was accusation, now ranged, as if *una voce*, on the side of the accused. How did the Duke of York behave to Mrs. Clarke, she for whom he had expressed such fondness? What a picture did this woman present, even when contrasted with a prince! What a melancholy comparison! She demanded her annuity only to pay the debts she had contracted under his protection, and he refused her that paltry pittance, because she could not produce his bond. So much for the honour of a prince.† As to the question whether the house ought to address his majesty to remove the Duke of York from his command, it was impossible to conceive a case in which the representatives of the people could address for the removal of a public servant from his situation, if not upon the evidence they had before them. If once the opinion should prevail that the house of commons had heard of corruption existing in the state, and heard of it with indifference—if ever that fatal time should arrive, no man could tell the consequence.‡

It was contended by the supporters of the Duke of York, that Mrs. Clarke was wholly unworthy of credit, and that there was no evidence to establish the corrupt participation or criminal connivance of the duke. Was it to be supposed that an illustrious prince, of such high rank, would associate himself with such miscreants as the witnesses in this investigation? If he had entered into so foul a plot, he would have found different agents; he would not have surrounded himself with men of honour and the avowed enemies of army-brokers, but he would have found some supple, bending, complying agent, for his military secretary. If it could once be supposed that the duke was a party in such a conspiracy, how was it possible that there should have been any distress for money, when there was a mint for making it constantly at work? There were then in the

army upwards of ten thousand officers; and such was the eagerness for promotion, that there were always persons enough to give ample premiums above the regulated price. Had not his royal highness felt secure in conscious innocence, was it to be supposed that he would have ventured to discard Mrs. Clarke, to withdraw her annuity, to irritate her to the utmost, and to set all her threats at defiance?§ It was true indeed that Mrs. Clarke had obtained money by inducing a belief that she had great influence over the duke; but in no one instance could it ever be proved that his royal highness was acquainted with any of her stratagems, much less had he ever participated in the fruits of her impositions.† If the Duke of York had not entertained a high sense of the value of honour and character, he would not have parted from Mrs. Clarke, when he found her character would not stand the test of investigation. It ought to be recollected, that the person against whom the charge now under the consideration of the house was directed, was not only high in office and in rank, but one whose birth placed him so near the crown, that events might one day call him to the throne itself; and yet, by the proceeding now proposed, the house was called upon, on the most questionable evidence, to disgrace itself, by pronouncing the duke guilty of the lowest and most infamous species of corruption.‡

In favour of Mr. Bankes's amendment, it was urged, that the case of Dr. O'Meara, which rested upon the Duke of York's own letter as much as upon the evidence of Mrs. Clarke, showed that the duke held communication with his mistress on public concerns. It was astonishing, that the constant applications of this woman did not create some doubts and suspicions in the royal mind of the duke. The house was not only the guardian of the public purse, but of the public morals. It was impossible, after the evidence that had been given, to entertain any doubt that a public scandal had been brought upon the country by the conduct of his royal highness; and it was necessary, as a reparation to public morals and decency, to remove him from the command of the army.‡ The duke could not be ignorant that the mistresses of princes are in every instance the source and means of corruption. It was customary in that house to call things by very soft and gentle names. That which used to be called adultery, is now living under protection; and by applying these delicate expressions to acts of immorality, a blow was levelled at the morals of the country. Suppose the case to be according to the mildest inter-

* Mr. Whitbread. † Sir Francis Burdett.
‡ Sir Samuel Romilly.

* Mr. Burton. † The attorney-general.
‡ Mr. Bankes.

pretation of his friends, that the duke had no knowledge or suspicion of the transactions, but that he was completely deceived and blinded by the woman whom he passionately loved, that would be a sufficient reason for calling for his removal from the command of the army; the more innocent and unsuspecting he was described to be, the more danger there was that the enemy might find out his foible, and use it to the disadvantage, and even to the ruin of the country.*

The first division on the question whether the house should proceed by address or resolution, decided the fate of Mr. Bankes's amendment, and there appeared for proceeding by address, one hundred and ninety-nine; for proceeding by resolution, two hundred and ninety-four; leaving a majority against Mr. Bankes's address of ninety-five. A second division then took place on Mr. Wardle's motion, which was supported by one hundred and twenty-three, and opposed by three hundred and sixty-four voices. On the 17th of March, the chancellor of the exchequer brought forward his resolution, modified by more mature consideration, and expressed in these terms:—

That this house having appointed a committee to investigate the conduct of the Duke of York, as commander-in-chief, and having carefully considered the evidence which came before the said committee, and finding that personal corruption, and connivance at corruption, have been imputed to his said royal highness, find it expedient to pronounce a distinct opinion upon the said imputation, and are accordingly of opinion that it is wholly without foundation.

This motion, being put, was carried in the affirmative; there appearing for the motion, two hundred and seventy-eight, against it, one hundred and ninety-six; majority eighty-two.

Previous to the divisions, it was pretty generally understood that the Duke of York had come to the determination to resign his office of commander-in-chief; and on the 20th of March the chancellor of the exchequer rose in his place, to announce, that his royal highness, having obtained a complete acquittal of those criminal charges which had been moved against him, was desirous of giving way to that public sentiment which those charges, however ill-founded, had unfortunately drawn down upon him; that, under these circumstances, he had tendered to his majesty his resignation of the office of commander-in-chief, and that the king had been graciously pleased to accept the same.

The issue of this great and important trial did honour to the English nation.

* Mr. Wilberforce.

It showed the people, notwithstanding the deficiency in the just measure of their representation in parliament, that their voice could be heard in any great political emergency, and that even a prince of the blood, enjoying the favour of his father, and himself so near the throne, could not resist the public will. The fate of the Duke of York sufficiently proved that responsibility is more than a name; but candour demands the admission, that the course of justice was in this case inverted: and that it was the nation, and not the representatives of the nation, that compelled his royal highness to resign. Although it might have been wished that the house of commons had acted more completely as the organ of the people; yet it is consolatory to remark, that while, on the one hand, the nation was not disposed to forego its privileges of assembling for the purpose of declaring its sentiments on public affairs; the ministers of the crown, on the other hand, felt the prudence and propriety of yielding to the public voice. When their extreme unwillingness to give up his royal highness is considered, and when the denunciation of infamy and the accusation of jacobinism which they suspended over the head of the accuser are recollected, some stirrings of indignation will arise; but when we reflect on what the British nation felt and expressed on this occasion, and on the effect which the expression of these sentiments produced, we look round in vain for any other people who would have been equally bold, persevering, temperate, and successful. The intrepid and manly conduct of Colonel Wardle, and of those who had been his principal supporters, was publicly acknowledged, in the warmest terms of gratitude, esteem, and admiration, by the cities of London and Westminster; and the impressive voice of the people, raised in almost every county, city, and town, in the kingdom, served to show, that a sense of public wrong, where injury has been sustained, and of public gratitude, where benefits have been conferred, are ever to be found among a free and generous people.

On the resignation of the Duke of York, the office of commander-in-chief was conferred on General Sir David Dundas, and the nation had the satisfaction to find, that one of the first consequences of the investigation was the enactment of a law, declaring the brokerage of offices, either in the army, the church, or the state, to be a crime highly penal.

In the course of the investigation into the conduct of the Duke of York, it was ascertained, beyond all doubt, that there was a regular, systematic, and almost

avowed traffic in East India appointments, as well as in subordinate places under government. These discoveries led to the appointment of a committee of the house of commons, to inquire into the abuse of East India patronage; and from the report of that body it appeared, that a vast number of cadetships and writerships had been disposed of in an illegal manner. To remedy so great an evil, Mr. Thelluson, one of the directors, deeply implicated in these transactions, was, at the usual annual election, rejected by a great majority; and the court, after long and animated debates, determined, that all those young men named by the committee of the house of commons, as having obtained their appointments by corrupt practices, should be deprived of their employments, and recalled from India.

The examination of the witnesses by the committee appointed to inquire into the abuse of India patronage, developed transactions intimately connected with the character of the house of commons, and the proceedings of some of its most distinguished members; and on the 25th of April, Lord Archibald Hamilton rose to submit a motion to the house, grounded on the conduct of Lord Castlereagh, who, in his evidence before that committee, had stated, that he, in the year 1805, delivered into the hand of his friend Lord Clancarty a writership, of which he had the gift, for the purpose of exchanging it for a seat in parliament. This negotiation, it appeared, was carried on between Lord Castlereagh and a Mr. Reding, an advertising place-broker, who was a perfect stranger to his lordship. The treaty was opened by letter; and it appeared from the evidence on the table of the house, that Lord Castlereagh told Mr. Reding that he did not want a seat for himself, but for one of his friends. Different meetings took place between Lord Castlereagh and Mr. Reding, but the nomination to the writership was not made, and the negotiation was broken off; but this plea, said Lord Archibald Hamilton, cannot avail his lordship, for his intention was obvious, and of that intention the house was to judge.

Lord Castlereagh expressed his sorrow, that any act of his, or rather any intention, could be deemed such as to call for parliamentary inquiry; the case before them had no reference to pecuniary transactions; and he could only regret that any motives of private friendship or of public zeal should have induced him to do any thing requiring the cognizance of that house. If he had erred, it was unintentionally, and he would submit with patience to any censure which he might be

thought to have incurred: having made this declaration, his lordship bowed to the chair, and retired.

After his lordship had withdrawn, the minutes of the evidence were read, and Lord A. Hamilton moved,

"That it appears to this house, from the evidence upon the table, that Lord Viscount Castlereagh, in the year 1805, he having just quitted the office of president of the board of control, and being then a privy counsellor, and one of his majesty's secretaries of state; did deliver up into the hands of Lord Clancarty, a writership of which he had the gift, for the purpose of exchanging it for a seat in parliament: That merely from the disagreements of some subordinate agents employed, this design was not carried into effect: That such conduct was a dereliction of his duty, as president of the board of control, a gross violation of his engagements as a servant of the crown, and an attack on the purity and constitution of the house."

A long debate ensued, in which there was an unusual degree of mildness and forbearance, and in which it was contended, by the friends of his lordship, that the intention ought not to be punished with the same severity as the actual commission of an offence. There was no *malus animus*; no corrupt design appeared in the whole transaction; and it was evident that the noble lord had not acted in his official capacity, but merely as an individual wishing to oblige his friend. Officially he had committed no offence, and the degree of punishment ought to be proportioned to the degree of guilt.* On these grounds, it was moved that the house should proceed to the order of the day.

It was, on the other hand, contended, that the intention manifested and acknowledged by Lord Castlereagh was sufficient to establish his criminality; and that if the negotiation failed, it was not for want of inclination on the part of the noble lord.† This was an abuse of the patronage of a minister, with a view to make an attack on the independence of parliament; and if the house shrunk from the performance of their duty in this case, by passing to the order of the day, they would sanction the opinion, that they were always ready to punish the petty offender in retail, but that they passed over the wholesale trade in corruption without animadversion. The offence was one of the gravest kind. What was the crime of Hamlin, compared with this? and yet the poor Plymouth tinman was sent to jail for offering Lord Sidmouth a bribe, while it was recommended to pass over the conduct of the noble lord in silence. This would not be dealing out equal justice; it would not be doing

* Lord Binning, the chancellor of the exchequer, and Mr. Canning.

† Mr. C. W. Wynne.

justice to the character of the house, it would make the whole nation parliamentary reformers.*

At the close of the debate, the house divided, when the motion of Lord A. Hamilton was rejected by a majority of two hundred and thirteen to one hundred and sixty-seven voices. A motion was afterwards proposed, and carried, to the effect, that it was the duty of the house of commons to maintain and guard the purity and independence of parliament; but that the intention charged not having been carried into effect, no criminatory proceeding appeared to the house to be necessary.

The finances of this year, like those of the last, exhibited no feature of novelty; and the navy and army estimates were nearly the same as in 1808.† The fourth report of the committee of public expenditure, was, however, received with considerable surprise; and the disclosures it exhib-

ited regarding the conduct of the commissioners appointed to manage, sell, and dispose of the Dutch ships detained or brought into the ports of Great Britain, could not fail to awaken the public indignation. This document, which was brought under the consideration of the house of commons by Mr. Ord, on the 1st of May, stated, that the commissioners were five in number, namely, James Crawford, John Breckwood, Allen Chatfield, Alexander Baxter, and John Bowles; that the appointment of the commissioners took place in the year 1795, and that their transactions were nearly brought to a close in 1799. As no fixed remuneration had been assigned to them, they resolved to remunerate themselves, and charged a commission of five per cent. on the gross proceeds of their sales, which commission amounted in all to 132,000*l.*, being at the rate of 26,000*l.* for each commissioner. Not satisfied with this enormous allowance, the money intrusted to their hands was employed in discounting private bills for their own emolument, and when an application was made to them by Mr. Pitt, in 1796, to pay a sum of money into the exchequer, in aid of the public exigencies, they refused to afford any relief to the state, although it was now obvious that they had at that time in their hands a balance amounting to 190,000*l.* This conduct, Mr. Ord said, was the more to be deprecated, as one of the commissioners, Mr. John Bowles, was a monopolist of loyalty, the eulogist of existing power, and the denouncer of all who might condemn abuses, or call for reform, as vile and unprincipled jacobins. After an animated discussion, the house resolved that the commissioners, taking advantage of the omission of government to inquire into their proceedings, had, without authority, appropriated to their own use large sums of public money, and had thereby been guilty of a flagrant violation of public duty.

The exposure of the conduct of the Dutch commissioners was followed by a charge, exhibited by Mr. Madocks, of corrupt practices against two of his majesty's ministers. The honourable gentleman, without giving the authority on which his information rested, stated, that at the last election a sum was paid, through the negotiation of Lord Castlereagh, to Mr. Henry Wellesley, as the agent of the treasury, by Mr. Quintin Dick, in consequence of which payment, a seat in parliament for the borough of Cashal was obtained by Mr. Dick; and that Mr. Spencer Perceval was privy to the transaction. Mr. Madocks stated, that Mr. Dick having accordingly taken his seat in that house,

* Mr. Whitbread.

† FINANCES.

PUBLIC INCOME of Great Britain for the Year ending the 5th of January, 1809.

Branches of Revenue.	Gross Receipts.			Paid into the Exchequer.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Customs, . . .	9,214,131	0	8	7,726,116	19	94
Excise, . . .	19,694,315	9	0	18,192,174	12	14
Stamps, . . .	4,821,865	2	24	4,695,871	9	10 1/2
Land and Assessment Taxes, . .	7,608,192	18	24	7,799,816	19	44
Post Office, . .	1,498,251	2	8 1/2	1,283,536	2	14
Miscellaneous Permanent Tax, . .	168,238	11	4	164,223	13	5 1/2
Here Revenue, . .	55,119	16	5 1/2	108,241	16	8 1/2
Extr. Resources.						
War Taxes { Customs, . . .	2,794,544	4	1	2,368,950	17	8 1/2
{ Excise, . . .	5,876,798	17	7 1/2	6,827,610	11	10 1/2
{ Prop. Tax, . . .	11,413,562	4	0	11,136,162	2	1 1/2
Miscel. Income, . .	2,781,598	15	8 1/2	2,768,967	17	2 1/2
Loans, including 1,200,000 <i>l.</i> for the service of Ireland, . .	10,102,620	15	6	10,102,620	15	6

Grand Total, £77,157,288 17 7 £73,129,183 17 4 1/2

Whitehall, Treasury Chamber, 24th March, 1809. (Signed) W. HUSKISSON.

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE of Great Britain for the Year ending the 5th of January, 1809.

Branches of Expenditure.	Sums.		
	£	s.	d.
Interest, . . .	30,771,871	13	84
Charge of Management, . .	210,549	2	7
Reduction of National Debt, . .	10,188,806	16	6
Interest on Exchequer Bills, . .	1,610,662	16	10
Civil List, . . .	1,638,677	3	2
Civil Government of Scotland, . .	85,470	4	1
Payments in anticipation, &c. . .	787,282	3	0
Navy, . . .	17,467,982	8	2
Ordnance, . . .	5,108,900	3	2
Army, . . .	11,383,299	12	10
Extraordinary Services, . .	5,647,762	2	11
Loans to Sweden and Sicily, including 2,699,166 <i>l.</i> 13 <i>s.</i> 4 <i>d.</i> to Ireland	3,999,166	13	4
Miscellaneous Services, . . .	2,920,491	8	2 1/2

Deductions for Sums forming no part of the Expenditure of Great Britain, £1,960,512 8 6 1/2
2,589,166 13 4

Grand Total, £79,391,745 15 2 1/2

Whitehall, Treasury Chamber, 24th March, 1809. (Signed) W. HUSKISSON.

did, pending the discussions concerning the administration of the army under his royal highness the Duke of York, wait upon Lord Castlereagh, and acquaint him with the nature of the vote he intended to give upon that subject; on which, Lord Castlereagh, after consulting with Mr. Spencer Perceval, suggested to Mr. Dick the propriety of resigning his seat, rather than give the vote he proposed. These facts, the honourable mover said, he was prepared to prove, and moved that the house should resolve itself into a committee, to examine into the matter of the said charge.

Mr. Perceval and Lord Castlereagh protested against the dangerous precedent of entering into discussions and charges made without any specified proof; and the house, conceiving that no sufficient ground had been laid for entering on the inquiry, negatived the motion by a majority of three hundred and ten to eighty-five voices.

One of the first consequences of the exposure of public abuses made during the present session of parliament, was the introduction of a bill into the house of commons by Mr. Curwen, for better securing the purity and independence of parliament, by preventing the procuring or obtaining of seats by corrupt practices, and likewise for the more effectual prevention of bribery. The unanimous leave of the house was given to introduce this bill, which ultimately passed into a law. But so completely were the salutary provisions of the original measure frittered away in its progress through parliament, that many of the friends to reform refused to vote for its enactment, under the apprehension, that it would stand in the way of more efficient regulations, and tend to give to the treasury a monopoly of parliamentary patronage. Pending the debates on this bill in the committee, the speaker took occasion to observe, that the question under consideration was not less than this—"Whether seats in this house shall be henceforth publicly saleable? A proposition, at the sound of which our ancestors would have started with indignation; but a practice," said he, "which, in these days, and within these walls, in utter oblivion of every former maxim and feeling of parliament, has been avowed and justified."

The parliament was now on the eve of terminating its labours for the present year, when Sir Francis Burdett submitted to the consideration of the house of commons a plan of parliamentary reform, grounded on the laws and constitution of the country, and resembling in the leading features the plan proposed by the Duke of Richmond thirty years before. The dis-

ease under which the country laboured, had, he contended, been caused by the disunion of property and political rights, and the remedy he should propose would consist in re-uniting them. For this purpose, he should propose:—

"That freeholders and others, subject to direct taxation in support of the poor, the church, and the state, be required to elect members to serve in parliament.

"That each county be subdivided according to its taxed male population, and each subdivision required to elect one representative.

"That the votes be taken in each parish by the parish officers; and that all the elections shall be finished in one and the same day.

"That the parish officers make the return to the sheriffs' court, to be held for that purpose at stated periods.

"And that parliament be brought back to a constitutional duration."

It was not the wish of the honourable baronet to call for an immediate decision upon this momentous subject, but merely to move, "That this house will, early in the next session of parliament, take into consideration the necessity of a reform in the representation." The chancellor of the exchequer, and several other members, contended, that the plan now proposed would never produce the effects anticipated from it, unless the mover of the measure could alter, not only our political constitution, but the frame of the human mind; unless he could at once get rid of human prejudices and human passions. On a division of the house, there appeared for the motion fifteen, against it seventy-four voices.

While the question of parliamentary reform was under discussion, Mr. Wardle observed, that an efficient reform in the commons house of parliament would ensure to the people, in their representatives, active supporters of their rights, and faithful guardians of their purse; and he did not hesitate to say, that in such an event, the amount of the income tax might be saved to the public. This declaration he was loudly called upon to explain; and on the 19th of June, the honourable gentleman recapitulated the savings he had calculated upon, and stated them to be in the army 6,182,000*l.*; in the navy 5,822,000*l.*; in the management of the revenue 1,110,000*l.*; commissions of accounts and inquiry, 75,000*l.*; pensions 300,000*l.*; colonies 500,000*l.*; bounties 150,000*l.*; allowance in the management of debt 210,000*l.* military expenditure of Ireland 2,000,000*l.*; making an aggregate saving of 16,349,000*l.* per annum. In order to show how these savings might be effected, Mr. Wardle moved for a large mass of accounts in the respective departments of the state to which he had referred, all which documents were ordered to be laid on the table.

Two days after the introduction of this motion, parliament was prorogued, and never, perhaps, in the annals of the British legislature, had the attention of the nation been fixed with more deep and anxious interest upon the proceedings of that assembly.

The transactions of the British navy never failed to present a highly interesting and animating object; and the gallantry and skill displayed in the successful attack on the French fleet in Basque Roads, will serve to grace the naval annals of Great Britain. The enemy's fleet, consisting of eight sail of the line and two frigates, had recently sailed from the harbour of Brest, and effected their escape to the mouth of the Charante, where they were joined by four sail of the line and two frigates, and anchored under the batteries, in such a manner as to afford mutual support and protection to each other. In this situation, it was determined to attack them; and Lord Cochrane, in the *Imperieuse*, was despatched from England on this arduous and hazardous service. On the 10th of April, a number of fire-vessels, and transports filled with Congreve's rockets, joined Lord Gambier's fleet; and the preparations for the attack were immediately begun. The fitting up and management of the explosion ship were entirely intrusted to Lord Cochrane, and the gallant captain determined that nothing should be wanting to render the preparations complete; for this purpose, he caused puncheons, placed with the ends upwards, to be filled with gunpowder, and fifteen hundred barrels of this death-dispensing combustible were used to charge the hog-heads. On the top of the puncheons, nearly four hundred shells with fuses were placed, and in the intermediate space about three thousand hand grenades. In order that the explosion might be as violent and destructive as possible, the puncheons were fastened together by cables, and kept steady and immovable by wedges, and sand rammed down between them. In this floating volcano, at which the imagination instinctively shrinks with dismay, Lord Cochrane, with one lieutenant and four seamen, committed himself. On the 11th, the fire-ships, led on by Captain Woodridge, and the explosion ship, bearing its small adventurous crew, proceeded to the attack, favoured by a strong northerly wind and the flood tide. On approaching the enemy's vessels, they perceived a boom stretched across the entrance of the roads, in front of their line. This impediment, however, was soon broken down, and the English advanced, undismayed by the heavy fire from the forts in the Isle of

Aix. Lord Cochrane, having approached with his ship as near to the enemy as possible, set fire to the fusee, and betook himself with his companions to the boat. Nine minutes after they had quitted the ship, and six minutes before the time calculated, she blew up with a tremendous explosion, and scattered death and destruction in every direction. His lordship had no sooner reached his own ship, than he proceeded to attack the French vessels, and sustained their fire for some time before any other man-of-war entered the harbour. Early in the morning of the 12th, Lord Gambier, in consequence of a signal from Lord Cochrane, announcing that seven of the enemy's ships were on shore, and might be destroyed, made the signal to unmoor and weigh, but the wind and tide being against him, the admiral was compelled to anchor again before he reached the roads. The enemy, availing themselves of this circumstance, succeeded in getting six of their ships up the river Charante. Four of the remaining ships were attacked by Lord Cochrane, in the *Imperieuse*, followed by the *Revenge*, the *Indefatigable*, and the *Valiant*, of seventy-four guns each: while the other ships advanced, his lordship laid his vessel alongside of the *Calcutta*, and compelled her to surrender, although she had one-third more guns than the *Imperieuse*. His lordship, supported by the other English men-of-war, next attacked the *Ville de Varsovie*, and the *Aquilon*, and succeeded in taking them, in the face of the tremendous fire from the batteries of Aix. These ships it was found impossible to get off, and they were destroyed, along with the *Tonnerre*, another of the French squadron. By this brilliant and gallant achievement, one ship of one hundred and twenty guns, five of seventy-four guns, and two frigates, were driven on shore, and either totally destroyed or rendered useless; one of eighty guns, two of seventy-four, and one of fifty guns, with three frigates, were burned; and the French had the mortification to perceive that their ships could not be secured from British intrepidity and skill, even by the batteries of their own forts, and the intricate and dangerous navigation of their own bays.*

* In the course of this enterprise, Lord Cochrane displayed his humanity in as signal and noble a manner as his courage. A captain of one of the French seventy-fours, when delivering his sword to his lordship, lamented, that the conflagration of his ship, which was just about to take place, would destroy all the property he possessed. On hearing this, Lord Cochrane instantly went into the boat along with him, in order, if possible, to rescue the captain's property from the devouring element; but unfortunately, his lordship's humane

In addition to the services performed by Lord Cochrane, and by some other naval officers in the bay of Biscay, the fleet of Lord Collingwood, in the Mediterranean, distinguished itself in the cause of the Spanish patriots. Towards the end of October, three sail of the line, four frigates, and twenty large transports, were despatched from Toulon, under the French Admiral Bauden, to the relief of Barcelona. As soon as this fleet was discovered, Lord Collingwood gave orders to Admiral Martin to chase them. The sight of the English fleet was the signal for the flight of the French; and in order to escape their pursuers, the line-of-battle ships, and one of the frigates, ran ashore between Cette and Frontignan, where they were set on fire by their crews, and destroyed, to prevent them from falling into the hands of the British. The transports separated from the men-of-war, and took refuge in the bay of Rosas; where, under the shelter of an armed store-ship, two bombards, and a xebec, they seemed to regard themselves secure; but in this situation they were attacked by Captain Hollowell, who headed the boats of the English squadron, and notwithstanding a gallant resistance, every ship and vessel of the enemy was either burned or brought off, in the sight of thousands of spectators, who witnessed the humiliation of their countrymen, and the resistless bravery of British seamen.

In the West Indies, the island of Martinique and the city of St. Domingo, were this year added to our numerous possessions; and the colony of Cayenne, under the government of Victor Hughes, fell an easy conquest to a combined attack made by English and Portuguese troops. In the east, the island of Bourbon surrendered to the English on the 21st of September, and nearly about the same time, the small Grecian islands of Zante, Cephallonia, Ithaca, and Cerigo, acknowledged the sway of the British sceptre.

The unhappy differences between Great Britain and America, this year assumed a more confirmed character; and while both countries professed an anxious desire for the revival of those amicable relations which had been so long interrupted, such was the tendency of the measures pursued, that a state of actual hostility was fast approaching. For the purpose of removing one of the most objectionable and irritating parts of the British orders in council, the board of trade, in the beginning of April,

issued certain regulations, by which it was declared, that all neutral vessels were at liberty to trade with any port whatever, except those in a state of actual blockade; and the blockade was expressly defined to extend to the whole coast of France, Holland, and the ports of Italy under the dominion of France. By these regulations, America was therefore permitted to trade with Russia, Denmark, Sweden, and all the ports of the Baltic, without molestation; and all vessels conforming to these rules, though brought into our ports under the former orders in council, were to be liberated without expense or trouble. About the same time that these regulations were issued in England, an official assurance was given to the American secretary of state, by the honourable D. M. Erskine, the British envoy extraordinary, and minister plenipotentiary to the United States, that he was authorized to declare, that his majesty's orders in council, of January and November, 1807, would be withdrawn as respected the United States, on the 10th of June next, in the persuasion that the president would issue a proclamation for the renewal of the intercourse with Great Britain.* In virtue of this assurance, Mr. Madison, who had been elected President of the United States on the resignation of Mr. Jefferson, issued a proclamation on the following day, announcing that the trade between Great Britain and America would be renewed on the 10th of June.

The American merchants, presuming on this adjustment of the existing differences, prepared to renew their usual direct and uninterrupted communication with the different states of Europe; and the British merchants were congratulating themselves on the speedy and certain prospect of having the trade to America fully opened to them, when they were informed by the lords of the council, that the arrangements entered into by Mr. Erskine with the American government were unauthorized by his instructions, and that, therefore, his majesty did not deem it proper or advisable to carry them into effect. At the same time, Mr. Jackson was appointed by ministers to supersede Mr. Erskine, who, in his zeal to accommodate the existing differences with America, had, undoubtedly, exceeded his authority. Previously to the arrangement with Mr. Erskine, the American government, finding the embargo to fall with a severe pressure upon every part of the community, determined upon some relaxation; and accordingly the embargo was raised as to

intensions were frustrated in a most shocking manner: as they passed a French ship, which was on fire, her loaded guns went off, and one of the balls striking the French captain, killed him by the side of his generous conqueror.

* Mr. Erskine's letter to Mr. Smith, dated Washington, April 18, 1809.

all other nations, and a system of non-intercourse and non-importation towards England and France, substituted in its stead.* By this act of Congress, all voyages to the British and French dominions, and all trade in articles of British or French manufacture, were prohibited; with the reservation, however, that whichever of the belligerents should so revoke or modify her edicts that they should cease to violate the commerce of the United States, the trade with that country should be renewed.

Soon after the breaking out of the war between France and Austria, the British ministry began to make preparations for a large and formidable expedition, and 40,000 troops, meant to be assisted in their operations by the powerful aid of thirty-five sail of the line, and about two hundred sail of smaller vessels, were assembled on the coasts of Kent and Hampshire. Although it was the intention of the government to keep the precise destination of the expedition a profound secret, yet long before its departure the point of attack was generally known in England, and publicly announced in the French newspapers. It is probable, however, that when the expedition was first planned, and up to the period of the fatal battle of Wagram, the British ministry had other objects in view besides the occupation of Flushing, and the destruction of the French ships of war in the Scheldt; and it may be fairly presumed that their intention was at once to make a diversion in favour of Austria, and at the same time to secure an object exclusively British.

The expedition was fitted out in the most complete manner, and nothing seemed wanting to secure it as much success as the nature of the enterprise would admit, except the appointment of an able military commander. But here, unfortunately, the formidable strength, and the complete equipment of the troops, were rendered useless; and when it was known that the command was to be conferred on the Earl of Chatham, a man proverbial for indolence and inactivity, the nation no longer looked forward to the result with confidence.† At length, on the 28th and 29th of July, the expedition sailed from the Downs; and on the 1st of August Flushing was invested. On the 13th, the batteries were completed, and the frigates and smaller vessels, having taken their respective sta-

tions, the bombardment commenced on that day. The town suffered dreadfully from the effects of Congreve's rockets, while the fortifications were little injured. The French General Monnet, the commander of the place, made an attempt to inundate the island; but this design was not so far effected as materially to retard or impede our offensive operations. On the 14th, Sir Richard Strachan, to whom the naval part of the expedition was confided, cannonaded the town for some hours, with so much effect, that a summons was sent in; but some delay and difficulty having arisen, the attack recommenced, and the advanced post was carried at the point of the bayonet. The next day, the enemy demanded a suspension of arms, which was succeeded by the surrender of the town; and the garrison, amounting to more than four thousand troops, were made prisoners of war. While the operations were proceeding against Flushing, the troops who were unemployed were suffered to remain cooped up in transports, instead of being sent against the forts of the Scheldt, and soon after the surrender of the fortress, a rumour reached England that no ulterior operations would be undertaken. It afterwards appeared that there had been no decision on this point, before the 27th of August, when Sir Richard Strachan, having waited upon Lord Chatham in person to learn his lordship's plans, was informed that he had come to the determination not to advance. The French, in the mean time, had not been inactive; every preparation was made to oppose the passage both of our army and navy; the interior of the Netherlands, and of France as far as Paris, was stripped of the national guards; and an army formidable from numbers, if not from discipline and experience, had actually been collected for the defence of Antwerp and the shipping; the naval stores were removed, and preparations were made for conveying the ships so high up the river, as to put them beyond the reach either of the invading army or navy.

While the commander of the British land forces displayed none of the requisite qualities of a general, and by his delay and indecision, he gave the enemy an opportunity of assembling a force sufficient to oppose our progress, Sir Richard Strachan acted with the usual promptitude and decision of a British sailor. He offered, in the most unqualified manner, every assistance and co-operation which the navy was capable of affording, and received with undissembled dissatisfaction and indignation the determination of Lord Chatham to reject his proffered assistance, and proceed no further.

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The most melancholy and disastrous part of this ill-judged and ill-conducted expedition, remains to be told. Lord Chatham, with a great proportion of the troops, returned to England; and the remainder found it expedient to give up all their conquests except the Island of Walcheren. This pestilential station, it was resolved to keep, for the purpose of shutting up the mouth of the Scheldt, and enabling our merchants to introduce British merchandise into Holland. But, from this island, the sole fruit of one of the most formidable and expensive expeditions ever sent from this country, we were doomed to be driven by an enemy more cruel and destructive than the French. A malady of the most fatal kind soon showed itself among the troops, and suggested, in a language that could not be misunderstood, the necessity for immediate recall. Ministers, however, clung with paternal attachment to this dearly-bought acquisition; and it was not till a great proportion of the forces had either died of the prevailing epidemic, or been rendered incapable of performing their duty, that the fortifications, which we had repaired at an enormous expense, were destroyed, and the island was evacuated in the sight of an enemy, who, knowing that the ravages of disease would render any attack unnecessary, took no measures to expel the British forces from their fatal conquest.

The attention of the people was soon diverted from the disastrous expedition against Walcheren, by two circumstances of a very opposite nature—the intrigues and disputes among the ministry, and the celebration of a jubilee, on the king having attained the fiftieth year of his reign. It had long been suspected that the members of the British cabinet were at variance; and the failure of the expedition to Holland matured those disputes into a disgraceful act, calculated to awaken the public indignation at home, and to lower the British government in the estimation of foreign states.* On the 21st of September, a duel took place between Lord Castlereagh and Mr. Canning, two members of his majesty's cabinet, holding the highest official situations in the state; the former being secretary for the war and colonial department, and the latter, secretary for foreign affairs. The parties, who met on Putney-Heath, fired a first time without

effect; and as the nature of the difference did not appear to the combatants to admit of explanation or apology, they fired at each other a second time, when Mr. Canning received his antagonist's ball in his right thigh. This duel was preceded and immediately occasioned, by a letter from Lord Castlereagh to Mr. Canning. In this letter, his lordship accuses the foreign secretary of having clandestinely endeavoured to procure his removal from his situation, and of having obtained a positive promise to that effect from the Duke of Portland. His lordship declares that he would not have deemed the conduct of Mr. Canning improper or unfair towards him, if he had not concealed his intention from his lordship, who, as the person most interested, ought explicitly, and at first, to have been made acquainted with Mr. Canning's proposal for his removal. But instead of pursuing this manly and liberal course of conduct, Mr. Canning, notwithstanding he had declared his conviction that Lord Castlereagh was unfit for his situation, and had prevailed upon the premier to consent to his removal, continued to treat his lordship as if he still possessed his confidence and good opinion, and permitted a minister, whom he had denounced as incapable, to plan and carry into execution the most extensive and formidable expedition perhaps ever sent from the British shores.

Against these serious charges, equally implicating Mr. Canning as a gentleman and a public minister, the nation naturally expected a prompt, if not a satisfactory reply; but nearly a month elapsed, before Mr. Canning found himself prepared to enter on his defence; and in the mean time the ministry was completely dissolved. The Duke of Portland gave in his resignation, on account of his age and infirmities; and Lord Castlereagh and Mr. Canning resigned. At length, Mr. Canning's statement made its appearance. In this document, it is admitted that the proposal and plan for Lord Castlereagh's dismissal continued from Easter till September; but Mr. Canning contends that it was entirely owing to his lordship's friends that the actual dismissal was delayed till the termination of the expedition to the Scheldt. The principal point on which he insists, is, that he supposed his colleague knew that his dismissal was in contemplation, and that the proposal originated with him. Upon the futility of this reasoning, it is unnecessary to dwell. The line of conduct which Mr. Canning ought to have pursued, is obvious and simple; it was marked out to him by the usual practice of parliament; there, no member ever

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makes a motion against another, till he has given notice to the gentleman who is to be the object of his censure; and if such a proceeding be deemed necessary in parliament, it is still more requisite in the cabinet.

On the day after the duel, Mr. Perceval, on whom, in consequence of the resignation of the Duke of Portland, the ostensible as well as the real superintendence of the government of the country had fallen, wrote to Earl Grey and Lord Grenville, inviting them to co-operate with him, "for the purpose of forming an extended and combined administration." Both these noblemen were at that time in the country, and Earl Grey, in reply to Mr. Perceval's letter, declined coming to London, since it was utterly impossible for him to form a union with his majesty's ministers, with any hope of promoting the interests of the country. Lord Grenville immediately repaired to town; but the day after his arrival he sent a reply, objecting to a union with his majesty's present ministers, and adding, that his objections were not personal, but applied "to the principle of the government itself, and to the circumstances which attended its appointment." After this refusal, Mr. Perceval applied to several public men, who were known to be generally favourable to the line of politics which he had pursued; and, after suffering the mortification of several refusals, the arrangements were at length completed. Mr. Perceval himself took the office of first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer; the Marquis of Wellesley succeeded to the foreign department; Lord Liverpool was transferred from the home to the department of war and colonies; Mr. Ryder was appointed to succeed Lord Liverpool; and Lord Palmerston was at the same time appointed secretary at war, in the room of Sir James Pulteney.

Amidst all the disasters of their arms, and the embarrassments of their councils, the British people were not unmindful of the virtues of their sovereign. Hence, the enthusiasm manifested on that day, which, for the third time in the annals of their country, saw a monarch, deservedly dear to his people, enter the fiftieth year of his reign. Nor was the celebration of this day more remarkable for the enthusiastic

loyalty which was displayed, than for the wise and humane manner in which the gratitude of the nation to Providence was expressed, for having permitted their sovereign to reign so long, and for the continuance of independence and prosperity in the midst of the wreck of Europe. Numerous institutions of benevolence and utility were founded in various parts of the empire; the hungry were fed; the naked were clothed; the prison doors were thrown open to numbers of unfortunate debtors; and every heart which man was capable of making glad, rejoiced on this memorable day.*

* In surveying the surrounding states on this day of jubilee, it appeared that the short period of twenty years had swept from their thrones all the sovereigns of Europe, that monarch alone excepted whose long and eventful reign the national festival of the 25th of October, 1809, was appointed to celebrate: and the following brief but comprehensive record, will afford an impressive illustration of the mutations of the present age, and of the instability of human greatness.

Louis XVI. King of France, deposed 10th of August, 1792; executed January 21st, 1793.

Louis XVII. died in the Temple, June 9th, 1795.

Joseph II. Emperor of Germany, died February 20th, 1790.

Leopold II. Emperor of Germany, died March 1st, 1792.

Catharine II. Empress of Russia, died November 17th, 1796.

Frederick-William II. King of Prussia, died November 16th, 1797.

Christian VII. King of Denmark, died March 13th, 1808.

Stanislaus, King of Poland, deposed November 25th, 1795; died February 12th, 1798.

Pope Pius VI. deposed February, 1798; died August 19th, 1798.

William V. Stadtholder of Holland, deposed January, 1795; died April, 1806.

Charles Emanuel, King of Sardinia, deposed June 4th, 1801.

Charles IV. and Ferdinand VII. Kings of Spain, deposed May, 1808.

Gustavus Adolphus IV. King of Sweden, deposed March 13th, 1809.

Pope Pius VII. deposed June 1st, 1809.

Ferdinand IV. King of Naples, deposed January 23d, 1799.

Gustavus III. King of Sweden, assassinated March 27th, 1792.

Paul I. Emperor of Russia, assassinated March 29d, 1801.

Selim III. Grand Seignor, assassinated May 29th, 1807.

Maria Frances Isabella, Queen of Portugal, ex-patriated November, 1807.

CHAPTER XI.

SPANISH CAMPAIGNS: State of the hostile Armies at the Beginning of the Year 1809—Capture of Oporto by the French—Defeat of the Spaniards at Medellin—Treaty of Peace and Alliance between Spain and Great Britain—Return of Sir Arthur Wellesley to the Peninsula—Expulsion of the French Army from Oporto—Second Siege and Fall of Saragossa—Defeat of General Blake in Catalonia—Battle of Talavera—Retreat of the British and Spanish Armies after the Victory of Talavera—Elevation of Sir Arthur Wellesley to the Peerage—Appointment of the Marquis of Wellesley as Ambassador Extraordinary to Spain—The Nature of his Mission—Recall of the Marquis—Defeat of General Venegas near Toledo—Signal Defeat of the Spanish Army under General Arizaga—Defeat of the French Army at Zamora—Battle of Alba—Fall of Gerona—Popular Commotion at Seville—Fall of that City—Advance of the French Armies to Cadiz—Dissolution of the Supreme Central Junta, and the Appointment of a Council of Regency—Abortive Attempt to rescue Ferdinand VII.—Military Operations in Portugal—Plan of the Campaign—Advance of the French Army under Massena into Portugal—Fall of Ciudad Rodrigo and Almeida—Battle of Bosaço—Retreat of Lord Wellington to the Lines of Torres Vedras—Close of the Campaign—Election of the Spanish Cortes—Meeting of the Cortes in the Isle of Leon—The Proceedings of that Body—Appointment of a new Council of Regency—Situation of the Peninsula at the Close of the Year 1810.

FROM the moment that Bonaparte left the peninsula in order to prepare for war against the Emperor of Austria, the operations and movements of the French armies in Spain became not only less interesting, but more difficult to be traced and narrated. The marshals of France, instead of following up the grand scheme of their emperor, by connecting and uniting their whole force, and pressing forward against the different Spanish corps successively, divided their forces into as many bodies as there were hostile armies opposed to them. Instead of distinguishing themselves by the celerity of their movements, and by quickly following up their successes, they advanced slowly, and generally remained stationary after a victory. It must, however, be observed, not only in justice to the enemy, but as a tribute due to the Spaniards, that a victory in Spain did not, as in Germany, open the way for a rapid and secure advance. The Spanish armies were almost always conquered in regular and general engagements, but the spirit of the people, although it sometimes unaccountably slumbered, generally broke out immediately after the defeat of their armies, and never failed to fill up the vacancies in the patriot ranks. After the army under Sir John Moore had embarked for the peninsula, the attention and movements of the French were directed principally to the pursuit and discomfiture of the Spanish corps, which still occupied the centre of the kingdom, and to the occupation of such of the seaports in the north and east as kept open the communication with England, or that contained the Spanish navy. Accordingly, in the centre of Spain the Duke of Belluno attacked and defeated the division of the Duc del Infantado's

army, under the command of General Venegas; while in the north the Duke of Dalmatia advanced to Ferrol, and, through the pusillanimity and perfidy of the civil and military authorities, made himself master of that place, as well as of the fleet moored in the harbour. The next place against which the operations of the French were directed, was Oporto, and of this city, though defended by twenty-four thousand troops and two hundred pieces of cannon, the Duke of Dalmatia gained possession, without encountering any formidable resistance.

In the beginning of April, 1809, the principal Spanish and French armies occupied the following positions: the Marquis del Romana was at Villafranca; General Cuesta, having been joined by the division under the Duc d'Albuquerque, had halted in his retreat before the French near Talavera; General Reding, having suffered severely in an attempt to surprise Barcelona, and in a succession of engagements near Tarragona, had been reinforced by the army of General Blake, and was, with that general, employed in opposing the progress of the French in Catalonia. Of the French forces, Soult was at Oporto; Ney in the neighbourhood of Corunna and Ferrol; and Victor was advancing towards Lisbon, by the route of Badajoz, with the Spanish force under General Cuesta in his front.

The only engagement worthy of notice, either on account of its general nature, or the consequences which resulted from it, was fought between Marshal Victor and General Cuesta, at Medellin, a town of Estramadura, equidistant from Merida and Truxillo. Towards this place, the Spanish general marched with a determination to

attack the invaders, and on the 29th of March he found the whole of Victor's division, consisting of twenty thousand infantry and three thousand cavalry, drawn up in front of Medellin. Unintimidated by the force and skilful dispositions of the enemy, Cuesta determined upon a rapid and general attack, and by the gallantry and steadiness of his infantry, one of the French batteries was carried. To support this vigorous operation, the Spanish cavalry regiments of Amania and Infante, and the two squadrons of the imperial chasseurs of Toledo, were ordered to advance, but instead of executing the orders of their commander, they fled before the enemy, and threw the left wing of the Spanish army into disorder. The French general, availing himself of this circumstance, directed his undivided efforts against the right and centre of the Spaniards, and General Cuesta, finding all his endeavours to rally his forces unavailing, was obliged to commence a disorderly retreat. In this engagement, the patriots lost, according to the French accounts, fourteen thousand men in killed and wounded, with six standards, and the whole of their artillery.

The disposition of the British government towards the Spaniards still continued favourable; and disappointment and disaster had by no means damped their ardour in the patriot cause. The relations of the two countries had hitherto been destitute of the usual formalities; but, early in the present year, a solemn treaty of peace and alliance was entered into between Great Britain and the authorities administering the Spanish government in the name of Ferdinand VII. By this treaty, which was negotiated on the part of the Spaniards by Don Pedro Cevallos, his Britannic majesty pledged himself to assist the Spanish nation in their struggle against the tyranny and usurpation of France, and not to acknowledge any other King of Spain and the Indies than his Majesty Ferdinand VII. his heirs, and lawful successors.

In order to carry into effect the promised assistance which the British government had determined to afford to the patriots, and at the same time to free Portugal from the presence of the French army, Sir Arthur Wellesley sailed from Portsmouth on the 15th of April, and arrived at Lisbon on the 22d of the same month, to take the command of the British army, which, by reinforcements sent principally from Ireland, had been swelled to thirty thousand men. On the arrival of Sir Arthur Wellesley at Lisbon, he determined to dispossess the French under Marshal Soult of the city of Oporto; and with this view he assembled the British army at Coimbra,

on the 7th of May, and advanced towards the Douro. Marshal Soult, aware of the magnitude of the force which was advancing against him, and sensible that he was by no means equal to the combat, withdrew the main body of his army, and the second city in Portugal fell into the hands of the British, almost without resistance. Sir Arthur Wellesley, having placed Oporto in a proper state of defence, returned to the south of Portugal, where his presence had become necessary in order to protect Lisbon and its vicinity from the French army, which was advancing along the Tagus, under Marshal Victor. This general, finding the capital open to his attack, commenced a rapid march from Badajoz, and was diverted from his purpose only by the return of Sir Arthur Wellesley, accompanied by the intelligence that he had received of the flight and partial defeat of the Duke of Dalmatia.

In the mean time, the affairs of the patriots were checkered with alternate success and disaster in the greater part of the peninsula, but in Galicia their successes greatly preponderated. In the north-east prodigies of valour had been displayed; the second siege of Saragossa rivalled the first, and will for ever occupy a distinguished place in the military annals of Spain. A body of about ten thousand men, who had escaped from the battle of Tudela, had thrown themselves into Saragossa, and the citizens and peasants from the country swelled the number of its defenders to about fifty thousand men. The second siege was commenced about the middle of December, 1808, and Palafox ordained, that all the inhabitants, of whatever rank and condition, should consider themselves bound to devote their persons, their property, and their lives, to the defence of the city. To a summons from Marshal Momey to surrender, this heroic chief replied, "Talk of capitulation when I am dead!" and the soldiers and the citizens proved themselves worthy of their illustrious leader. On the 10th of January, the bombardment began; and Momey being incapacitated by sickness, Marshal Lannes was sent by Bonaparte to take the command of the besieging army, which consisted of from fifty to sixty thousand men. The French, well aware that the only way to conquer Saragossa was to destroy it house by house, and street by street, proceeded upon this system, and three companies of miners and eight companies of sappers were continually employed in carrying on this subterraneous war. During the bombardment, which continued two-and-forty days, there was no respite, either by day or by night, for this devoted city; even the natural

order of light and darkness was destroyed—by day, the place was involved in a red sulphureous atmosphere of smoke, which hid the face of heaven; and by night, the fire of the cannons and the mortars, with the flames of burning houses, kept the atmosphere in a state of terrific illumination. After a glorious defence, the garrison began to experience a want of ammunition, which was succeeded by the horrors of famine; and a pestilential disease appearing at this moment in the city, served to fill up the dreadful climax. On the 1st of February, the situation of the place appeared hopeless; but the governor-general still refused to capitulate, and for seventeen days more the defence was continued; when Palafox himself, being seized with the contagion, was obliged to transfer his authority to a junta, of which Don Pedro Maria Ric was appointed president. On the 19th the enemy obtained possession of the Puerto del Angel, and to so deplorable a situation was the garrison reduced by its accumulated miseries, that all the efforts of Don Ric proved fruitless. Disease had subdued the inhabitants; two-thirds of the city had been destroyed; thirty thousand of the people had perished, and from three to four hundred were dying daily of the pestilence. Reduced to this situation, the city capitulated, and the French, after a siege of two months, obtained possession of a mass of ruins.

The supreme junta of Spain pronounced the funeral oration of Saragossa in an address to the nation—"Spaniards!" said they, "the only boon which Saragossa begged of our unfortunate monarch at Vittoria, was that she might be the first city to sacrifice herself in his defence. That sacrifice has been consummated. But, Spaniards, Saragossa still survives for imitation and example; still survives in the public spirit, which, from her heroic exertions, is for ever imbibing lessons of spirit and constancy. Forty thousand Frenchmen, who have perished before the mud walls of Saragossa, cause France to mourn the barren and ephemeral triumph which she has obtained, and to evince to Spain, that three cities of equal resolution will save their country, and baffle the tyrant. Time passes away, and days will come when these dreadful convulsions, with which the genius of iniquity is now afflicting the earth, will have subsided. The friends of virtue and of patriotism will then come to the banks of the Ebro to visit the majestic ruins of Saragossa, and beholding them with admiration and with envy, will exclaim—'Here stood that city, which, in modern ages, realized those ancient prodigies of heroism and constancy,

which are scarcely credited in history. The subjection of this open town cost France more blood, more tears, more slaughter, than the conquest of whole kingdoms; nor was it French valour that subdued it; a deadly and general pestilence prostrated the strength of its defenders, and the enemy, when they entered, triumphed over a few sick and dying men, but they did not subdue citizens, nor conquer soldiers!"

After the fall of Saragossa, an attempt was made by General Blake to regain possession of that city, but in this he entirely failed, and the Spanish army under his command became exposed to a fatal and inglorious defeat at Belchite. According to the account of this battle, published by the Spanish general, one of his regiments was thrown into confusion by the discharge of the enemy's grenades; the panic spread rapidly; regiment after regiment fled without discharging a gun; and in a short time, the general and his officers were left alone to oppose the enemy. The fruits of this victory, disgraceful to the Spaniards, rather than honourable to the French, were nine pieces of cannon, immense quantities of stores and provisions, and more than three thousand prisoners.

The inactivity to which the army of Sir Arthur Wellesley had been doomed after their return from Oporto, was relieved by a plan concerted between the British general and General Cuesta, by which it was proposed to attack the central French armies, and to obtain possession of the Spanish capital. With this view, a junction of the British and Spanish forces took place in the neighbourhood of Plasencia, on the 20th of July. Sir Robert Wilson, who commanded a Portuguese corps, which he had brought into a state of excellent discipline, was ordered to advance to Ascolona, on the river Alberche. The division of the Spanish general, Venegas, at the same time broke up from Madriljos, and advanced to Arganda. After these preparatory movements, the combined British and Spanish army, amounting to about sixty thousand men, of which twenty-four thousand were British, proceeded to Talavera, where the French army, under Marshal Victor, thirty-five thousand strong, had been for some time stationed. On the 22d, the allied forces moved upon Oropesa, and drove in Victor's rear-guard, which was drawn up in order of battle upon a plain about a league from Talavera. The hostile armies were now in sight of each other, and Sir Arthur Wellesley determined to attack the French general the following day, and to bring him to action before he was joined by Joseph Bonaparte and General Sebastiani, who were both

marching to his relief. For this purpose, the British columns were formed at five o'clock in the morning; but, at the moment when the troops were ready to advance, they learned, to their extreme disappointment and mortification, that General Cuesta, not wishing to profane the sanctity of the Sabbath day by secular employments, had determined to delay the attack till the following day. On the morning of the 24th, the British and Spanish armies were again drawn out; but Victor, less scrupulous than Cuesta, had, during the evening of the Sabbath, retreated from his position, in order to effect a junction with other divisions of the French army of the centre; and so deficient was the combined army in the means of transport, that it was found impossible to pursue the enemy. This inconvenience had long been felt, and Sir Arthur Wellesley, before he left Plasencia, was under the necessity of informing General Cuesta, that it would be impossible to continue to co-operate with the Spanish armies, unless the means of transport were supplied. To aggravate this evil, both the British and Spanish commissariats were in the most deplorable state, and the combined armies became, in a certain degree, competitors for subsistence. Thus circumstanced, the British troops halted from absolute necessity, and Sir Arthur Wellesley came to the determination to return to Portugal, if more vigorous exertions were not made by the supreme junta to supply the wants of his army. Cuesta appeared fully sensible of the propriety of this resolution, and, trusting that the possession of Madrid, which seemed now almost within his reach, would relieve all the wants by which the combined army was surrounded, he determined to advance in the pursuit of Victor.

On the 25th, the French force, under Joseph Bonaparte and General Sebastiani, formed a junction with Marshal Victor, at Toledo. By this accession of strength, the force of the enemy was swelled to forty-five thousand men; and General Cuesta, finding himself unable to withstand so formidable an army, fell back in great disorder, and with considerable loss, upon the British position at Talavera.

It was now obvious that the enemy intended to try the result of a general action, and Sir Arthur Wellesley selected the neighbourhood of Talavera as the scene of operations. The position taken by the troops extended more than two miles; the ground was open upon the left, where the British army was stationed, and it was commanded by a height, on which was, in the first line, and in second line, a division of

infantry, under the orders of Major-general Hill. Between this height and a range of mountains still further upon the left, was a valley, which it was not at first judged necessary to occupy.—The right, consisting of Spanish troops, extended, immediately in front of the town of Talavera, down to the Tagus, where the ground was covered with olive trees, and much intersected by banks and ditches. The road leading from the bridge over the Alberche, and the avenues to the town, as well as the town itself, were occupied by the Spanish infantry. In the centre, between the armies, there was a commanding spot of ground, with an unfinished redoubt, which post was occupied by Brigadier-general Alexander Campbell, with a division of infantry, supported in their rear by General Cotton's brigade of dragoons, and some cavalry.

At about two o'clock in the afternoon of the 27th, the enemy appeared in strength upon the left bank of the Alberche, and manifested an intention to attack General Mackenzie, who had been placed, with a division of infantry, and a brigade of cavalry, as an advanced post, in the wood which covered the left flank of the British army. These troops suffered considerably, but they were withdrawn in perfect order, and took their place in the line. The enemy now cannonaded the left of the British position, and attacked the Spanish infantry with his horse, hoping to break the ranks, and carry the town; but he was bravely withstood, and finally repulsed.—Early in the evening, Marshal Victor pushed a division along the valley, on the left of the height occupied by General Hill; this he considered the key of the British position, and the efforts of the French to obtain this eminence corresponded with the estimation in which it was held. For a moment, the attack was successful; but General Hill instantly charged the assailants with the bayonet, and regained the post. Undismayed by this repulse, the French repeated their attack about midnight; but they were again repulsed with great slaughter. Both armies passed the night on the field, and several partial engagements were fought before the dawn of the following day. These nightly combats were conducted with the most determined fury; the men, after they had discharged their firearms, frequently closed, and beat out each other's brains with their muskets.

In the course of the evening, the French had ascertained that any attack upon the town, posted as the Spaniards were, was hopeless; they had also discovered that no impression could be made upon the centre, and consequently that the left, where

they had already suffered so much, was the only practicable point of attack. Accordingly, at daybreak on the 28th, General Ruffin advanced with three regiments, in close columns, against the eminence occupied by General Hill; but here again they were resisted by the bayonet, and driven back, leaving the field covered with their slain. About eleven o'clock, the enemy, finding himself baffled in all his efforts, suspended the attack, and dined upon the field of battle. Wine and bread were at the same time served out to the British troops, and during this pause in the work of destruction, the men in both armies repaired to a brook to quench their thirst, and stooped to the stream in the presence of each other, without molestation: at this moment, the heat and exasperation of battle was suspended; the troops felt that respect which proofs of mutual courage had inspired, and numbers of them shook hands across the brook before the battle recommenced.

About noon, Marshal Victor ordered a general attack with his whole force upon that part of the position of the allies which was occupied by the British army. In consequence of the repeated attacks made upon the left, Sir Arthur Wellesley had now placed two brigades of British cavalry in the valley, supported in the rear by the Duc d'Albuquerque's division of Spanish cavalry. The general attack began by the march of several columns of infantry into the valley, with a view to make another attack on the height occupied by General Hill. From the moment this operation commenced, the firing of the musketry was heard on all sides like the roll of a drum, with scarcely a moment's interruption, during the remainder of the day; and the deeper sound of the heavy cannonade resembled continued peals of thunder. The operations of the French were deranged by Leval's division, which, instead of forming in echelon in the rear, advanced to the front. Sebastiani, perceiving the blunder committed by this division, sent a brigade to extricate Leval from his perilous situation, which, after considerable loss, was effected. This attack upon the hill was formidable in the extreme, but, like all the former, it failed. The French general, La Pisse, who was the first to cross the ravine, was mortally wounded, and his men were driven back with severe loss. About three o'clock in the afternoon, the enemy again advanced to the attack, with his whole force. Marshal Victor had resolved to storm and carry the heights that had so repeatedly and so successfully defied his former attempts; and placing himself at the head of his troops,

he led them to the foot of the hill, while General Vilatte advanced to his support from the valley. At this moment, General Anson's brigade, consisting of the 1st German light dragoons, and the 23d dragoons, with General Fane's brigade of heavy cavalry, were ordered to attack the French, who had formed in two solid squares, protected by a deep ditch, and supported by a tremendous fire of musketry and artillery. Here, the brunt of the action lay; numbers of men and horses fell into the ditch, which, till now, had been undiscovered, and numbers were mown down by the artillery; but still the columns advanced, and made a desperate charge upon the solid and impenetrable squares of the enemy. The British suffered dreadfully; and the 23d regiment in particular was almost annihilated. This gallant attempt, although it was not attended with success, had the effect of preventing the execution of the enemy's plan, and no further attempts were made upon the hill, which was now covered with the dead and the dying.

The attack upon the centre was repulsed by Brigadier-general Alexander Campbell, supported by the king's regiment of Spanish cavalry, and two regiments of Spanish infantry; and while the Spaniards turned the enemy's flank, the English took their cannon. At the same time, an attack was made upon Lieutenant-general Sherbrook's division, which was on the left and centre of the first line of the British army. This attack was gallantly repulsed by a charge with the bayonet by the whole division; but the brigade of guards, impelled by their military ardour, advanced too far, and laid themselves open, on the left flank, both to the fire of the enemy's batteries, and to their retiring columns. The enemy lost not a moment in seizing the advantage that now presented itself; and for some time, the fate of the day appeared worse than doubtful. At this crisis, the skill and foresight of Sir Arthur Wellesley turned the current of success which had set in so strongly against him, and secured a victory which had so long hung in suspense. Seeing the guards advance, and aware of the danger to which they would be exposed, Sir Arthur Wellesley moved a battalion of the 48th from the heights, to their support; and this timely succour, with the assistance of the second line of General Cotton's brigade of cavalry, enabled the guards to extricate themselves from the impending danger, and decided the fate of the battle.

Shortly after the repulse of the general attack, the enemy commenced his retreat, in the most regular order, across the Al-

berche, leaving twenty pieces of cannon in the hands of the combined army. The loss on both sides was severe; the enemy had entire brigades of infantry destroyed; and his loss in the engagement of the 27th and 28th was estimated by the English commander at ten thousand men. On the same authority, it is stated, that the British had eight hundred killed, three thousand nine hundred wounded, and six hundred and fifty missing, exclusive of the loss of the Spaniards, which amounted to twelve hundred and fifty in killed and wounded. In the official account of this memorable engagement, Sir Arthur Wellesley particularly laments the loss of Major-general Mackenzie; of Brigadier-general Langworth, of the king's German legion; and of Brigade-major Beckett, of the Coldstream regiment of guards.*

On this occasion, the British army sustained nearly the whole weight of the contest, and acquired the glory of having vanquished a French army, double their numbers; not in a short and partial struggle, but in a battle obstinately contested on two successive days, and fought under circumstances which brought both armies into close and repeated combat. The king, in contemplating so glorious a display of the valour and prowess of his troops, was graciously pleased to command that his royal approbation of the conduct of the army serving under the command of Lieutenant-general Sir Arthur Wellesley, should be publicly declared in general orders; and the commander-in-chief received his majesty's commands, to signify, in the most marked and special manner, the sense he entertained of Sir Arthur Wellesley's personal services, not less displayed in the result of the battle itself, than in the consummate ability, valour, and military resources, with which the many difficulties of this arduous and protracted contest were met and provided for, by his experience and judgment. The conduct of Lieutenant-general Sherbrook, the second in command, obtained for that officer expressions of the king's marked approbation. His majesty observed, with satisfaction, the manner in which he led on the troops to the charge with the bayonet—a species of combat which on all occasions so well ac-

cords with the dauntless character of the British soldiers. His majesty was pleased also to notice, with the same gracious approbation, the conduct of the several general and other officers, and to declare, that most of them had eminently distinguished themselves, and that "*all had done their duty.*" The royal approbation and thanks were at the same time expressed, in the most distinct and most particular manner, to the non-commissioned officers and private men. In no instance, had they displayed with greater lustre their native valour and characteristic energy; nor had they on any former occasion more decidedly proved their superiority to the enemies of their country. These sentiments, which were expressed in general orders, were acquiesced in by both branches of the legislature, who voted the thanks of parliament to Sir Arthur Wellesley, and to the officers and men under his command; and as a special mark of his majesty's favour and approbation, the commander-in-chief at the battle of Talavera was, on the 26th of August, elevated to the peerage, by the title of Viscount Wellington of Talavera and of Wellington, and Baron Douro of Wellesley, in the county of Somerset.

Scarcely had the British troops time to congratulate themselves on the achievement of this brilliant victory, when the unexpected intelligence was received, that Marshals Soult, Ney, and Mortier, had advanced through Estramadura, and were already in the rear of the combined British and Spanish army. There was now no time for hesitation or delay; a retreat had become indispensable, and promptitude alone could save the army. The bridge of Almaraz, by which one of the divisions of the English was to have crossed the Tagus, was destroyed, and the bridge of Arzobispo alone remained for the passage of the whole army. As no doubt could be entertained that the army of Victor would again advance as soon as he heard of the approach of the French forces through Estramadura, it became necessary that part of the combined troops should remain at Talavera, as well for the purpose of checking the advance of the French, as for taking care of the sick and wounded of the combined army. General Cuesta was accordingly left at Talavera, where it was hoped he might be able to maintain his position; but in any event it was understood that he should by no means abandon the wounded. On the 3d of August, the British force left Talavera, and marched to Oropesa, on the way to Plasencia, with an intention to attack the force under Marshal Soult. On the evening of that day, Sir Arthur Wellesley received information

* Captain Samuel Walker, of the 3d regiment of guards, like his gallant companion in arms, Captain Richard Beckett, fell on the 28th of July, in the prime of life, and in the moment of victory, on the plains of Talavera. These officers had fought the battles of their country in Egypt, in Germany, in Denmark, and in Portugal; and their fellow townsmen, the inhabitants of Leeds, erected a monument in the parish church of that place, to commemorate their public services, and hand down their memory to future ages.

that Cuesta meant to quit Talavera immediately; and that, for want of conveyance, he should be obliged to abandon his hospitals. The Spanish general was not deficient in personal gallantry, but he was obstinate, intractable, and unfit for command; and his reason for leaving the sick and wounded, by quitting his station even before the French approached, seemed to partake of the imbecility of old age: it was not, he said, that he had any apprehension for the safety of his own army, but he was afraid that Sir Arthur Wellesley would not be able to contend with the French force that was coming against him; and he had in consequence left Talavera, that he might be enabled to support his British ally. Surrounded by difficulties, with an army of thirty thousand men under Soult pressing upon him from the north, and with an army equally strong under Victor advancing from the east, the British general determined to retreat, and to take up a position at Deleytosa on the way to Truxillo. Here, he remained unmolested by the French, and was enabled to recruit his army; but, finding that the junta were by no means disposed to supply the wants which had prevented his pursuit of the French before the battle of Talavera, he determined to retreat to Badajoz, where, during the remainder of the year, his army continued inactive, and exposed, from the unhealthiness of the situation, to the ravages of a fatal disorder.

The victory gained at Talavera may undoubtedly be ranked among the most splendid efforts of British courage in the military annals of our country. But it may be questioned whether a consummate general—a commander, whose object is not merely to gain battles, but to reap and secure all the advantages of victory—would have advanced so far into Spain, doubtful as Sir Arthur Wellesley was of the hearty and cordial co-operation of the Spaniards; destitute of the means of following up a victory or of securing a retreat, and ignorant of the strength or movements of the enemy in his rear. Possessing, as the British general did, skill, courage, and enterprise, he still wanted one trait in his character, to constitute him a finished soldier; this indispensable requisite was acquired in the Spanish campaign of 1809, and the *circumspection* given to the mind of Sir Arthur Wellesley by the battle of Talavera showed itself in all his future operations, and tended in an eminent degree to acquire for him, at no distant period, the proud designation of the first captain of the age.

When the combined armies, under Sir

Arthur Wellesley and General Cuesta, were reduced to the necessity of retreating from Talavera, Sir Robert Wilson, who had pushed almost to the gates of Madrid, was suddenly recalled. This partizan officer, owing to some impediments that had not been anticipated, did not arrive at Valada till the night of the 4th of August, when, conceiving it too late to retire by the bridge of Arzobispo, he was obliged to take the route of Banos, where he was attacked by Marshal Ney, and defeated. Sir Robert Wilson, on his defeat, retired along the mountains, and, after an harassing march, succeeded at length in forming a junction with the British army.

The appointment of the Marquis of Wellesley as ambassador extraordinary to Spain, was announced in the London Gazette of the 1st of May; but it happened, unfortunately, that the intrigues in the British cabinet did not permit his departure from England for Cadiz till the latter end of the month of July. The Marquis of Wellesley was received with the greatest attention and respect in Spain, and in conducting the delicate mission with which he was intrusted, he abstained, as much as possible, from every thing that could be considered as an interference with the domestic relations of that country. In his communications with the junta, he pointed out the only course that could be pursued with any rational prospect of success, and, in particular, he pressed upon their attention the propriety of calling forth and concentrating the military resources of the kingdom. Another point at which he aimed, was, to give a tone to public opinion, to excite and direct the national spirit, and to apply its energy to national objects. With these views, the British ambassador recommended the appointment of a council of regency, and the speedy convocation of the Spanish cortes;* the former to discharge the sovereign functions, and the latter to support the government in the great work of delivering the Spanish na-

* The supreme assembly or parliament. By the original prerogatives of the cortes—a body, partly hereditary and partly elective—no tax could be imposed, no war could be declared, nor any peace concluded, without the permission of its members. The power of rescinding the proceedings of all inferior courts, the privilege of inspecting every department of administration, and the right of redressing all grievances, belonged to the cortes; and those who were aggrieved addressed this body, not in the humble tone of supplicants, but with the boldness of persons who demanded the birth-right of freemen. This sovereign court was held annually in Arragon for several centuries; but subsequently it was convoked only once in two years; and ultimately it sunk into a mere assembly for registering the edicts of the court.

tion from French usurpation. He suggested, that "the same act of the junta, by which the regency should be appointed, and the cortes called, should contain the principal articles of redress of grievances, correction of abuse, and relief of the exactions in Spain and the Indies, and also the heads of such concessions to the colonies, as should secure to them a full share in the representative body of the Spanish empire."^{*} What effects might have resulted from the further exertion of the influence of the Marquis of Wellesley over the Spanish government, can only be conjectured, for, in the autumn of the present year, he was called from the councils of that nation, to assume a distinguished place in the British cabinet.

In directing our attention from the civil concerns to the military transactions of this period, too many proofs are exhibited of the necessity of those maxims inculcated by the Marquis of Wellesley on the junta of Spain. In the early part of the month of August, soon after the battle of Talavera, General Venegas, with an army computed at thirty thousand men, descended from the mountains of the Sierra Morena, and on the 10th of that month took up a strong position about three leagues from Toledo. On the advance of General Venegas into the plain, he found himself opposed to a French corps under the command of General Sebastiani. On the commencement of the engagement, which took place on a rising ground beyond the village of Almonacid, near Toledo, his line was penetrated in every direction by squadrons of French cavalry; and the Spaniards, incapable of sustaining the charge, threw down their arms and dispersed, leaving their baggage, artillery, and ammunition, in the hands of the enemy.

The disaster of Toledo was followed by a change in the command of the army of La Mancha, which was now taken from General Venegas, and confided to the Marquis of Areizaga. This army, by extraordinary exertions, was soon reassembled, and swelled by the addition of new levies to the number of fifty thousand men. With this force, the new commander formed a bold, but hazardous determination, to advance directly to Madrid. To oppose this enterprise, the French forces under Joseph Bonaparte took up a strong position near Toledo. The numbers of the Spanish army failed to inspire them with sufficient confidence to pursue their march, and instead of advancing, as was at first pro-

posed, they retreated along the banks of the Tajo, followed by the enemy, who came up with them near Ocana. On the vast plain by which this place is surrounded, a general battle was fought on the 19th of November. The action commenced at eleven o'clock, and in less than two hours the fate of the day was completely decided. The Spaniards, animated by the superiority of their numbers, made a vigorous resistance, and for some time victory seemed to incline to the side of the patriots. The acclamations of triumph had already burst forth from their ranks; but at that moment, a regiment of cavalry appointed to cover a large body of Spanish infantry, gave way. The panic instantly became general, and the French, too well skilled in the art of war, to let a circumstance so favourable to their success pass unimproved, pressed upon the deranged battalions, and completed their overthrow. This signal victory was on the following day announced to the inhabitants of Madrid, in the most glowing language: "Yesterday," said the official bulletin, "the king gained a splendid and decisive victory at Ocana. Two hours were sufficient to disperse the army of the insurgents, who expected within two days to make their triumphal entry into Madrid. Four thousand men were left dead on the field of battle; twenty thousand were made prisoners; and, in a word, the whole army was dispersed or destroyed. From thirty to forty thousand muskets, twenty standards, thirty pieces of artillery, and an incredible quantity of baggage, were the fruits of this memorable victory."

The battle of Ocana was speedily followed by the reduction of Cordova and Seville, and a road was thus opened to Cadiz. The threatening aspect of public affairs awakened the fears of the junta. Apprehending that the popular indignation might burst forth in some fatal explosion, and anxious, perhaps, at the same time, to remove a responsibility that became every day more solemn and insupportable, they issued a manifesto, dated at Seville, on the 28th of October, convoking the cortes on the first day of the ensuing year, and appointing the 1st of March as the period at which they were to enter upon their functions. The idea of appointing a regency was rejected by the junta, from an apprehension, that, by vesting the supreme power in the hands of a few persons, pretensions might be raised incompatible with the public tranquillity, and to the prejudice of the rights of their "adored king," Ferdinand.*

* Despatch from the Marquis of Wellesley to Don Martine Garay, dated Seville, September 8th, 1809.

* Manifesto of the Supreme Junta, dated Seville, October 28th. 1809.

The Spanish armies, in the early part of the month of November, consisted of three divisions; the army of the right under the command of General Blake; the army of the centre under Don Juan Carlos de Areizaga and the Duc d'Albuquerque; and the army of the left, under the command of the Duc del Parque. The forces under this general, amounting to about thirty thousand men, were posted on the heights of Zamames, about six leagues to the south of Salamanca. The French army, under General Marchand, had for some time evinced by their movements an intention to lay siege to Ciudad Rodrigo, but their design could not be carried into effect till the Spaniards were dislodged from the neighbouring heights. In order to effect this purpose, General Marchand left Salamanca, and attacked the Duc del Parque in his strong position, but after an obstinate and long-continued contest, the assailants were compelled to retire with the loss of a thousand men, and the Spaniards, following up their success, obtained possession of the city of Salamanca.

The French, after their defeat at Zamames, gradually accumulated a force amounting to twenty thousand men, with an intention of making a second attack upon the army under the Spanish general, who had now occupied a position on the heights of Pena de Francia, in the vicinity of Salamanca. The Duc del Parque, seduced by the advantages he had already gained, and anxious to co-operate with the army of the centre in the proposed advance to Madrid, quitted his strong position, and crossed over the Tormes to the right bank of that river. Here, Marshal Kellerman was posted, with an army with which he would not have ventured to attack the patriots, but which, when acting on the defensive, proved itself their superior. The battle was fought at Alba, on the 28th of November, and terminated in the total defeat of the Spaniards. The victory was not long doubtful: either from some accidental disorder or sudden alarm, the Spanish cavalry, that constant depository of panic, took to flight without firing a shot, and all the efforts of their officers to rally the troops, and to retrieve the fortune of the day, proved ineffectual. The Spaniards, in their precipitate retreat, abandoned their baggage, and left in the hands of the enemy fifteen pieces of cannon, six standards, ten thousand muskets, and about two thousand prisoners. In this fatal engagement, according to the French accounts, thirty thousand Spaniards were vanquished by twelve thousand French troops, and the loss of the retreating army amounted in slain to three thousand.

In the mean while, the fortress of Gerona was compelled to surrender to Marshal Augereau on the 10th of December, after having sustained a siege of nearly six months, and endured all the horrors of famine. The garrison and inhabitants emulated the exploits of their countrymen at Saragossa, and the patriotic devotion of these fortresses was required to prevent the friends of national independence from despairing of the Spanish cause.

The close of the year 1809 witnessed the successive defeat and dispersion of the principal armies of Spain, as well as the fall of several of the fortresses of that country. Of the causes which led to these disasters, some are obvious and indisputable. None of the patriot generals had displayed any extraordinary military talents, their measures were taken without concert, and they by no means adhered to that mode of warfare which was best suited to the situation of their country. The zeal of the people, at first so animated, seemed to have suffered considerable diminution; and the supreme junta—that body, whose duty it was to keep the public enthusiasm in active exercise, and to give to the national exertions a direction the most conducive to the success of the patriot cause—were miserably deficient in those statesman-like talents, by which alone the liberty and independence of their country could be secured and rendered permanent.

After the battle of Ocana, the French advanced into the south of Spain: knowing how easily the barrier of the Sierra Morena would be forced, they looked upon the possession of Cadiz as secure. The command of the army destined to this enterprise, was vested in Marshal Soult, assisted by Marshals Victor and Mortier, and accompanied by King Joseph in person, who attended to take possession of the kingdom of Andalusia. The Spanish general, Areizaga, had lost his presumption at Ocana, and was prepared for defeat before he was attacked. On the advance of the enemy, the Spaniards gave way at every point; and on the 20th of January, 1810, the head-quarters of the French army were established at Baylen, the place where, at a former and not very distant period, they had suffered so signal a disaster. Five days before the French army entered Andalusia, the supreme central junta at Seville had announced their intention of transferring the seat of government to Cadiz; and the island of Leon, which is separated from that city by the river of Santi Petri, was fixed upon as the place where the cortes should hold their sittings. The junta had now entirely lost the public con-

fidence, and the termination of their power was at hand. Every hour brought fresh tidings of the progress of the enemy, and the murmurs of the people of Seville became louder as their agitation increased.

The members of the government were hastening their departure for Cadiz; their equipages were conveyed to the quays, and the papers and archives from the public offices were embarked on the *Guadaluquivir*. A conspiracy had been forming for some days, at the head of which stood Count de Montijo and Don Francisco Palafox, one of the members of the junta, and the brother of the hero of Saragossa. On the morning of the 24th, the populace assembled in the square of St. Francisco, and in front of the Alcazar: some demanded the deposition of the junta; others, more violent, insisted that they had betrayed their country, and that they should be put to death; but the universal cry was, that the city should be defended, and that no person, whatever his rank or authority, should be suffered to quit the place. In this emergency, Don Francisco de Saavedra, the minister of finance, was called upon to take the direction of public affairs. Montijo and Palafox, who had some days before been placed in duress by the junta, on a charge of conspiring against the government, were liberated; and the Marquis Romana was nominated to the command of the army of the left, from which he had been lately removed by that body. The people, however, called upon Romana to take upon himself the defence of the city; but the marquis, brave and patriotic as he was, evaded their importunities, and hastened to Badajoz, to protect that important fortress; while Seville, incapable of withstanding the force by which it was soon afterwards assailed, shared the fate of Cordova, and passed under the French yoke.

But the possession of the country and all the inland towns of Andalusia, was of little importance, compared with the occupation of Cadiz. Were it possible that the fate of Spain could have depended upon any single event, it would have been the capture of Cadiz at this crisis; and the French, well aware of its importance, advanced to the coast with all their usual rapidity. The city was utterly unprepared for an attack; there were not one thousand troops in the island of Leon, and not as many volunteers as would man the works. The batteries of St. Fernando, one of its main bulwarks, were unfinished; the people of Cadiz, indeed, had considered the danger as remote, and had it not been for the genius, energy, and decision of a single individual, Bonaparte might have executed his threat of taking vengeance on Cadiz

for the loss of his squadron. At the time that the French advanced across the Sierra Morena, the Duc d'Albuquerque was on the banks of the Guadiana; but by a rapid march of two hundred and sixty miles, performed in eight days, he placed himself on the 30th of January between Cadiz and the French army, and, on the 2d of February, entered the island of Leon at the head of his small army, which consisted only of eight thousand troops. Having saved this place by his prudence, the duke lost no time in securing his possession; and the people, who, as he observes, when they are guided by their first feelings, usually see things as they are, hailed him as their deliverer, and conferred on him the office of governor by general acclamation.

It was essential to the salvation of the country, that a government should be established at Cadiz, which should be recognised by the whole of Spain; and the members of the supreme central junta, who had arrived in the island of Leon, feeling that they had lost the public confidence, yielded reluctantly to the necessity of appointing a council of regency. The persons elected to the discharge of the duties of this high office, were, Don Pedro de Quevedo Quintana, the Bishop of Orense; Don Francisco de Saavedra, late President of the Junta of Seville; General Castanos; Don Antonio de Escano, Minister of Marine; and Don Estaban Fernandez de Leon, a Member of the Council of the Indies, as the representative of the colonies. To these persons the junta, transferred their authority, providing, however, that they should continue to exercise the sovereign power only till the cortes assembled, who were then to determine upon the form of government under which the authority of Ferdinand VII. should be administered. On these appointments being announced to the members of the council of regency, Don E. F. de Leon declined to accept the office, on the plea of ill health; and Don Miguel de Lardizabal y Ariba, another Member of the Council of the Indies, was appointed in his stead. The junta accompanied the decree for the appointment of the regency with a farewell address to the people, condemning the tumultuous proceedings at Seville, and justifying themselves like men who felt that they had been unjustly censured because they had been unfortunate; and it must be confessed, that, though in their administration there was something to condemn, and much to regret, yet there was assuredly much to applaud. Called to their new and elevated situation in the crisis of their country's fate, they maintained the intimate relations of Spain with foreign powers; they drew

closer the bonds of their colonial connexions; and they resisted with dignity and effect the perfidious overtures of the enemy. The world will, one day, excuse their errors, do justice to their intentions, and remember with admiration, that, of all the modern governments of Spain, this was the first which addressed the Spaniards as a free people, and the first that sanctioned the constitutional principles of liberty, which had for generations been suppressed.

Marshal Victor, on his arrival before Cadiz, sent a summons to the junta of that city, requiring them to surrender, and informing them that he was ready to receive their submission to King Joseph. In answer to this imperious mandate, the junta replied, that they acknowledged no other King of Spain than Ferdinand VII.; and the Duc d'Albuquerque declared, in reply to a similar summons from Marshal Soult, that so far from surrendering to the usurper, his troops would never lay down their arms till the independence of their country was secured.

In the month of April, about the time when the French armies opened their batteries before Cadiz, the British cabinet made an attempt to rescue the person of Ferdinand out of the hands of Napoleon. The person employed in this mission was an Irish adventurer of the name of Kelly; the plan, it appears, was concerted with the Marquis of Wellesley, the British secretary of state for foreign affairs, who had placed at Kelly's disposal a squadron off Quiberon, whence the prince was to embark. Kelly, under pretence of having some valuable articles for sale, made his way to Valencay, the residence, or rather the place of imprisonment of Ferdinand, and endeavoured to speak with the prince. To effect this purpose, he disclosed his intentions to the infante, Don Antonio, and to Amazaga, the intendant of the royal prisoner's household. Ferdinand was no sooner made acquainted with Kelly's visit, than he sent for Berthemy, the governor of the castle, and with the greatest emotion informed him, that an English emissary had found his way into the castle, and that he was furnished with ample credentials to show that he came from the British government.* It is scarcely necessary to add, that Kelly was immediately placed under arrest, and the vigilance of the

French governor over the person and suit of the unfortunate monarch, was, if possible, increased by this abortive attempt. (66)

The military affairs of Portugal, in 1810 were much more important than those in Spain. Lord Wellington, when he was under the necessity of retreating, after the battle of Talavera, seemed, for the present, to have abandoned all idea of advancing into Spain, and to have determined to direct and confine his operations to the defence of Portugal, till a more auspicious state of affairs should arise. To attain and secure this great object, his lordship formed a plan, which, though it was not completely developed, nor productive of the beneficial consequences expected to result from it, till the beginning of the following year, it is necessary here to explain, in order that the movements of the allied armies may be perfectly understood, and justly appreciated. As the force which this country could send into the peninsula, was necessarily small in comparison with the immense armies of France; and as the Portuguese troops could not at first be expected to equal the British, it was expedient to defend Portugal in that particular spot, where inequality of numbers would be compensated by local and artificial strength, and where the means of supplying and increasing his force would be easy to the British general, and proportionately difficult to the enemy. Lord Wellington soon perceived that no place in Portugal presented so favourable a situation for this purpose, as the lines of Torres Vedras, and he determined to make this his stand. This position was capable of being rendered absolutely impregnable; lying near the Tagus, his army could receive rein-

(66) In the letters of Mr. Warden from St. Helena, we find a narrative of this affair differing in some respects from that in the text. The person chosen by the English government for the purpose of rescuing Ferdinand, was, it seems, not an Irishman, but a Pole, of the name of the Baron de Colac. He was landed on the coast of France by Sir George, then Captain Cockburn, but instead of proceeding immediately to Valencay, he was led, by an attachment to a lady residing in Paris, to pay a visit to that city. Here, he soon fell under the cognizance of the police, was seized, stripped of his papers and effects, and committed to prison. The plot was thus laid open, and counteracted; but the emperor, desirous of knowing whether Ferdinand was privy to it, selected a proper person to personate the baron, who, with the passports and clothes of the latter, was introduced to the imprisoned monarch. But although the guards were withdrawn, and every possible facility given to his escape, the "adored Ferdinand," who was probably engaged in the manly and interesting occupation of embroidering petticoats for the Virgin Mary, could not summon up sufficient courage to encounter the dangers of the attempt.

* The credentials here alluded to, consisted of a letter from Ferdinand himself, signed in his own hand, and countersigned "Marquis Wellesley;" and a letter addressed by Charles IV. to his Britannic majesty, on occasion of Ferdinand's intended marriage, the authenticity of which was attested by the noble marquis.

forcements and supplies readily from England; and his vicinity to the sea would enable him, in case of exigency, to embark without delay. The French general, on the other hand, would be in the very heart of a hostile country, the inhabitants of which were neither disposed nor able to supply his wants; and from the nature of the war in the peninsula, it would be extremely difficult to procure the supplies from any great distance. In order to render the defence of the lines of Torres Vedras more effectual and secure, and at the same time to render the situation of the French, if they should advance to Lisbon, more difficult and desperate, Lord Wellington determined to retard the progress of the enemy as long as possible, without hazarding a general engagement. In furtherance of this plan, his lordship, with his combined army of British, Spanish, and Portuguese, advanced, at the commencement of the summer, to the north-eastern frontier of Portugal; his force consisting at that time of about thirty thousand British, and nearly double that number of the native armies.

Napoleon was, on his part, evidently preparing to make a more powerful effort to terminate the war, than had ever been made since he himself advanced into Spain; Massena was despatched from Paris to put himself at the head of an army, composed of the divisions of Soult and Ney, and of large reinforcements brought from France as well as from various parts of the peninsula. The numerical strength of this army has been differently estimated: Massena himself, in a proclamation addressed to the Portuguese, soon after his arrival in the peninsula, rated his force at upwards of a hundred thousand men; but when he advanced into Portugal, it most probably did not exceed seventy thousand. (67)

In the beginning of the month of July, the hostile armies were posted as follows: a small French corps was stationed before Badajoz, watched by the Spanish army of Romana (consisting of nine thousand

men), and by General Hill, with a British force amounting to about five thousand. The grand French army, under Massena, was posted before Ciudad Rodrigo, which fortress he determined to take before he advanced further into Portugal. The headquarters of the English army were in front of Cacerico. Lord Wellington's army was formed into five divisions; of which, the first, under General Spencer, was at Cacerico; the second, under General Hill, at Portalegra; the third, commanded by General Cole, was cantoned at Garda; the fourth, under General Picton, was at Pinhel; and the light division under General Crawford, including two regiments of Portuguese *cacadores* or marksmen, was advanced close to the French army at Ciudad Rodrigo. Each division had attached to it some Portuguese regiments, with one or more English officers, by whose efforts they had been brought into such excellent order and discipline, that it was reasonably expected they would, in the hour of trial, not disgrace their companions in arms.

After the fall of Ciudad Rodrigo, which was defended with great bravery, and did not surrender till the fortress was no longer defensible, the French general advanced to the siege of Almeida. Massena opened his trenches before this fortress on the 15th of August. While a false attack was made against the north of the town, two thousand men dug the first parallel to a depth of three feet: and on Sunday, the 26th, at five o'clock in the morning, eleven batteries, mounted with sixty-five pieces of cannon, opened their fire. The garrison consisted of five thousand men, of whose spirit no doubt was entertained; the city was well provided, and its works had been placed in so respectable a state, that Lord Wellington felt assured the enemy would be detained till late in the season. These well-founded expectations were frustrated by one of those casualties, which sometimes disconcert the wisest plans, and disappoint the surest hopes of man. On the night after the batteries opened, the large powder magazine in the citadel blew up with a tremendous explosion. More than half the artillery men, a great number of the garrison, and many of the inhabitants perished; the guns were dismounted, and the works were rendered no longer defensible. The necessary and almost immediate consequence was the surrender of the place, and all the troops in the garrison were made prisoners of war.

On the fall of Almeida, Massena advanced further into Portugal, and Lord Wellington retreated slowly before him, taking the road by Coimbra. His lordship, who had well considered every part

(67) The French army which marched into Portugal after the fall of Ciudad Rodrigo and Almeida, is said by an author to whom we have already referred,* to have been composed of seven divisions of foot, and two of horse, which, together with the artillery, formed a total of 40,000 infantry, and 6000 cavalry. The 6th corps was commanded by Marshal Ney, the 2d by General Renier, and the 8th by the Duke of Abrantes (Junot), while the cavalry was under General Mouton. The English force, according to the same author, amounted to 35,000 men, the Portuguese to 50,000, well armed and equipped, and under the direction of English officers.

* *Campagne de l'Armée Française en Portugal*, p. 44.

of the country, came to the resolution to take up a position on the Sierra de Busaco, and there to resist the advance of the French army. The British and Portuguese troops were posted along the ridge of the mountain or Sierra, extending nearly eight miles, and forming a segment of a circle, the extreme points of which embraced every part of the enemy's position, whence every movement below could be distinctly observed. On the 26th of September, the light troops on both sides were engaged throughout the line. At six o'clock on the following morning, the French, under Ney and Reynier, made two desperate attacks upon Lord Wellington's position; one on the right, the other on the left, of the highest point of the Sierra. The division under Ney gained the top of the ridge, but was driven back with the bayonet; and another division, further to the right, was repulsed before it could reach the top of the mountain. On the left, the attack was made by three divisions, only one of which made any progress towards the summit, and this force, being charged with the bayonet, was driven down with immense loss. The Portuguese soldiers, upon whom the success of the war was ultimately to depend, established this day their character for courage and discipline, and proved that, however the government had degenerated, the people, when properly directed, were the same as in the days of Nuno Alvares. Lord Wellington bore testimony to the merit of his allies: he declared that he had never seen a more gallant attack than that made by the Portuguese troops upon the enemy, who had reached the ridge of the Sierra: they were worthy, his lordship said, to contend in the same ranks with British troops, in that good cause which they afforded the best hopes of saving. General Junot made also a curious, but unintentional acknowledgment of the gallant conduct of the Portuguese: Lord Wellington he said, had practised a *ruse de guerre*, and deceived his enemy by dressing Englishmen in Portuguese uniforms. On this memorable day, the operations of the French army were directed by Marshal Massena in person, whose troops, actually engaged, amounted to twenty-five thousand men: of this force, two hundred and eighty-six were taken prisoners, including General Simon, three colonels, and thirty-three officers; two thousand French troops were left dead on the field, and the number of wounded was in proportion. The loss of the English amounted to one hundred and seven killed, four hundred and ninety-three wounded, and thirty-one prisoners; and that of the Por-

tuguese to ninety killed, five hundred and twelve wounded, and twenty prisoners.*

The enemy, thus repulsed in his attempts to open a passage for his further advance into Portugal, accomplished by a manoeuvre what force had failed to effect. On the evening of the 28th, Lord Wellington observed the French army withdrawn from their position, and silently moving round the northern edge of the Sierra, whence they advanced to Avelana, on the high road to Coimbra. The British general had foreseen this movement, and had given orders to Colonel Trant, who commanded the Portuguese militia, to occupy Sardo; but the general officer who commanded in the north, having sent the colonel round by Oporto, he was prevented from executing this order till the night of the 28th, when he found the French in possession of that place. In this situation, Lord Wellington, in order to prevent his army being cut off from Coimbra, or compelled to fight a general action on disadvantageous ground, was under the necessity of quitting Busaco, and retreating to the left bank of the Mondego. It is difficult to comprehend the conduct of the French general in his attack upon the English position at Busaco: he made, it appears, a desperate effort against troops, placed in a position almost impregnable, for the purpose of accomplishing that which was afterwards effected without either trouble or loss. In the afternoon of the 30th, the French advanced-guard appeared in the front of Coimbra, and the next day Lord Wellington, continuing his retreat, fell back upon Leyria, and from thence to the lines of Torres Vedras. So perfectly convinced was the French general that the retreat of Lord Wellington was for the purpose of embarking at Lisbon, and that his sole object should be immediate and close pursuit, that he abandoned his wounded at Coimbra with little or no protection, and advanced without taking the precaution to form and establish magazines. On his arrival at Torres Vedras, after reconnoitering the British line, he found their position to be impregnable, and here the error he had committed, in making so incautious an advance, became manifest. These lines, strong by nature, and greatly improved by art, extended to a distance of thirty-five miles, flanked on one side by the sea, and on the other by the Tagus. The British army consisted of thirty thousand efficient troops; besides twenty-five thousand Portuguese regulars, forty thousand militia, and about ten thou-

* Lord Wellington's despatches, dated Coimbra September 30, 1810.

sand Spaniards. This army was divided into four divisions, and each division occupied one of the four passes of the mountains. The French force, when they reached the vicinity of Torres Vedras, could not consist of more than sixty thousand men, harassed by fatigue, distressed for provisions, and without magazines in their rear; and when the relative strength and situation of the two armies was known in England, the destruction of the enemy was regarded as inevitable.

Massena, however, contrary to the sanguine calculations of the British nation; and contrary also, it should appear, to the expectations and conjectures of Lord Wellington, kept his position in front of Torres Vedras till the 14th of November, when he marched for Santarem. On the morning of the following day, the allied army broke up, and followed the march of the enemy, firmly hoping that the time for his destruction had now arrived. But on examining his position at Santarem, it was not judged advisable to make an attack. Lord Wellington therefore contented himself with fixing his head-quarters at Cartaxo, about ten miles nearer Lisbon; and in these positions the two armies remained at the close of the year.

One of the last papers which issued from the royal press at Seville, before the seat of government was transferred to Cadiz, was an edict prescribing the manner in which the members of the cortes should be chosen. This plan was formed at once with a suitable reference to established usages, to the present circumstances of the country, and to the future convenience of the electors. The mode of election was so regulated, as almost to preclude any undue interference or influence. A parochial junta was to be formed in every parish, and to consist of every householder above the age of twenty-five years, except such as were disqualified by crimes or mental incapacity. The parochial or primary electors were to advance, individually, to a table, at which the parish officers and parish priests presided, and there to name a person to be the elector for that parish; the twelve persons who obtained the majority of names were then to retire to fix upon some person to act as their parochial representative in the district assembly. The primary election being thus completed, the parochial junta was to proceed to the church in procession, the deputy walking between the alcade, or mayor, and the priest. Within eight days after the primary election, the parochial deputies were to assemble in the principal town of the district, and in the same manner to choose one or more electors for the district accord-

ing to its extent. The district delegates being chosen, they were to repair to the place appointed for the final election, and there to elect the members of the cortes.

No qualification was required for a member of the cortes, except that he should be above twenty-five years of age, of good repute, and not actually the salaried servant of any individual or public body. All those cities which had sent deputies to the last cortes, assembled in 1789, were each to send a representative to the cortes that was now about to meet in the isle of Leon; and each of the supreme juntas of the nation enjoyed the same privilege. The provinces were to send a member for every fifty thousand inhabitants, estimated according to the census of 1787, which rated the population of Spain at 10,534,985, making the number of elective deputies two hundred and eight, exclusive of sixty-eight supplementary deputies, who were to be returned to serve in the cortes in case of the death of any of its members: it was further directed, that in the choice of representatives, those should be preferred who, *ceteris paribus*, were able to serve their country at their own charge, but a sum was fixed for the members of 120 rials a day, while they were in actual attendance. By this mode of election, founded on the principles laid down in the French constitution of 1790, it will be perceived that the parishes elected the members to represent them in the electoral district assemblies, these appointed the representatives of the provincial meetings, and they again chose the national representatives, designated by the name of the Cortes of Spain. To the number of the cortes, twenty-six members were added, as representatives of Spanish possessions in America, the Columbian islands, and the Philippines.

It was originally intended that the cortes should assemble at Seville on the 1st of March; but the French having obtained possession of that city, the isle of Leon was fixed upon as the place of their meeting, and the first session opened its proceedings on the 24th of September. At nine o'clock in the morning of that day, the deputies assembled in a hall which had been prepared for their sittings in the palace of the regency. The military were drawn up under arms, and the members repaired in procession to the parochial church, where the mass of the Holy Ghost was performed by the Cardinal Bourbon, the Archbishop of Toledo. After a solemn discourse from the Bishop of Orense, who was president of the regency, each of the members swore to preserve the Spanish nation in its integrity, and to omit no means of delivering their country from its

enajust oppressors. These ceremonies being concluded, the procession returned in the same order to the hall of the assembly, and the members seated themselves indiscriminately as they entered the hall. The first act of this national assembly was to declare the cortes legally constituted in a general and extraordinary congress, wherein the national sovereignty resided; but as it was not proper that the legislative and executive powers should be united, they delegated the executive authority, in the absence of their king, Ferdinand VII. to the members of the council of regency. After the necessary preliminary business had been despatched, a "self-denying ordinance" was passed by the cortes, on the motion of Don Antonio Capmany, the deputy for Catalonia, whereby it was enacted, that no member of the cortes should be permitted, during the exercise of his functions, nor for one year afterwards, to solicit, or accept, for himself, or for any other person whatsoever, any pension, favour, reward, honour, or distinction, from the executive power.

The liberty of the press, without which all pretensions to national freedom are vain and illusory, was the next subject of importance that occupied the deliberations of the cortes. "Whatever light," said Arguillas, by whom this subject was introduced, "has spread itself over Europe, that light has sprung from the liberty of the press; and nations have risen in proportion as that liberty has been enjoyed by them; while others, involved in ignorance, and fettered by despotism or superstition, have sunk in the same proportion. Spain," continued he, "has, for many ages, been in chains; insulted and degraded by a succession of governments who have despised the wishes of the people. The morals of the nation partook of this perverse influence, and the glory of Spain disappeared in the same proportion as its liberty." "Look at England, on the other hand, that free and generous country, which owes its liberty and all its morality to a free press. England has been the faithful friend of Spain; and upon the colossal power of England, which the liberty of the press has raised, the independence which is yet left in Europe rests for its support."* This discussion was resumed in several successive meetings, before it was finally settled, and the opposition seemed to gain strength in the progress of the measure. "The liberty of the press without a censor," said Llaneros, "instead of being necessary or useful, is injurious, and has never been wished for in Majorca, which

island I represent. Where there are good censorial tribunals, the liberty of the press will never be wanted. The court of the holy inquisition is such a tribunal; and to that court the decision of the question should be referred!"

At length, the friends of the liberty of the press triumphed over its adversaries, and a decree was passed, by a majority of sixty-eight to thirty-two voices, by which it was enacted, "that all bodies and individual persons, of whatever state or condition, are at liberty to write, print, and publish their political sentiments, without the necessity of any license, revision, or approbation, previous to publication; that authors and printers are responsible for the abuse of this liberty; that scandalous libels, and calumnious writings and works, subversive of the fundamental principles of the monarchy, or offensive to public decency and good morals, shall be punished according to law; and that the respective judges and tribunals shall look to the punishment of such offences." By another article of this decree, it was enacted, "that all writings upon matters of religion shall remain subject to the previous censorship of the ecclesiastical ordinances, according to the decree of the council of Trent." Thus, one essential portion of the liberty of the press, that which related to religion, was interdicted; and the law for securing the free discussion of political topics was so much circumscribed by restrictions, and so highly objectionable, as to the constitution of the tribunal before which questions of libels were to be determined, that the liberty so much dwelt upon and extolled, was, in effect, rather nominal than real.

One of the first acts of the cortes was to declare, "that the rights of liberty and citizenship belong to the Spaniards in America." This declaration was followed by enactments, conferring upon the inhabitants of the colonies the same right of electing deputies which the people of Spain possessed, and providing that one deputy should be returned to the cortes for every fifty thousand inhabitants, including in this number, not only the casts, but all such as were not actually in a state of slavery. These privileges, the colonies claimed as their birthright, and it was hoped that, by a wise, just, and lenient policy the new government might succeed in tranquillizing the agitations that had so long prevailed in their settlements, and that those possessions might still continue to form a part of the Spanish empire.

In the interregnum, between the dissolution of the supreme central junta, and the convocation of the cortes, the council of regency had failed to afford satisfaction

* Oliveros.

either to Spain or to her allies. This body had scarcely taken any measures to recruit the armies, or to repair the disasters to which they had been exposed. Their whole conduct was feeble, languid, and inefficient; while the circumstances of their country demanded men of talents, energy, and decision. A new regency was accordingly appointed on the 28th of October, consisting of General Blake, who commanded the army of the centre; Don Pedro Agar, a captain in the Spanish navy, and director-general of the academies of the royal marine guards; and Don Gabriel Ciscar, the governor of Carthagena.

Cadiz at this time presented one of the most extraordinary spectacles in history. The enemy surrounded the bay, and possessed all the adjoining country, wherever they could cover it with troops, or scour it with their cavalry. From this neck of land, the cortes legislated for Spain and her dependencies; and the first free parliament that had for centuries met in the peninsula, was regarded with the deepest anxiety in all the regions to which the Spanish name extended. In the bay, the English squadron, part of that fleet which had so long blockaded this very port, was riding at anchor, intermingled with those ships which, for so many years, had borne a hostile flag, but which were now engaged in a cause vitally dear to both countries. For three centuries, Cadiz had been one of the most important ports in Europe; its harbour was now crowded with vessels more than at

any other period; and its increased population had drawn thither traders from all parts of the commercial world.

In the course of the year, the enemy had obtained many and great advantages. They had occupied the kingdom of Andalusia; they had reduced all the fortresses in Catalonia, Tarragona alone excepted; and they had gained possession of Ciudad Rodrigo and Almeida. Still, the aspect of affairs was less unfavourable than it had been at the close of the preceding year. At that time, Andalusia was laid open to the French; the Spaniards were under an unpopular government; and they had no cortes to which they could look up. The submission of Austria left Bonaparte at liberty to direct his whole attention, and his undivided force, to the conquest of the peninsula. The difficulty of co-operation between Spain and her allies, had been grievously felt; and the British army, after one of the brilliant achievements in modern times, seemed to be mouldering away in sickness and inaction. That army, acting in conjunction with Romana, and with the Portuguese troops, was now baffling and defeating the utmost efforts of the French, led on by Napoleon's most distinguished generals. The Spaniards, after the defeat and dispersion of their armies, were again rallying in the field; and the government of Spain seemed determined to adopt those measures, which could alone secure the country from vassalage and degradation.

CHAPTER XII.

BRITISH HISTORY: Meeting of Parliament—Inquiry into the Policy and Conduct of the Walcheren Expedition—Standing Order of the House of Commons for the Exclusion of Strangers enforced by Mr. Yorke—John Gale Jones committed to Newgate for a Breach of Privilege—Mr. Yorke appointed Teller of the Exchequer, and First Lord of the Admiralty—Deprived of his Seat for Cambridgeshire—Motion of Sir Francis Burdett for the Liberation of Mr. Gale Jones—Sir Francis Burdett pronounced guilty of a Breach of Privilege, and committed to the Tower—His Liberation—Public Finances—Appointment of the Bullion Committee—Mr. Brand's Plan of Parliamentary Reform—Motions for Catholic Emancipation—Earl Grey's Motion on the State of the Nation—Prorogation of Parliament—Death and Character of Mr. Windham—Capture of Gaudaloupe—Gallant Naval Exploit—Capture of the Dutch and French Settlements in the East—Death of the Princess Amelia—Indisposition of the King—Abrupt Meeting of Parliament—Repeated Adjournments—Appointment of a Regency in the Person of his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales.

THE political horizon, at the commencement of the year 1810, presented a dark and lowering aspect. The war on the continent, which had excited such high and animated hopes, had terminated in the triumph of France, and the defeat and humiliation of the Emperor of Austria. It was not, indeed, known, that the illustrious house of Hapsburg contemplated a family union with the founder of the Na-

poleon dynasty, but it was apparent that Francis had sheathed the sword in dismay, and that Austria continued to exist only by the sufferance of France. In the peninsula, the campaign of 1809, which had opened under the fairest auspices, had terminated disastrously; and in all parts of the Spanish dominions, even in those which distance and oceans had conspired to secure, the standard of civil war was unfurl-

ed, and the conflicts of contending parties threatened to separate the colonies from the parent state.

In this state of affairs, parliament assembled on the 23d of January, 1810, and the opening speech, which, owing to his majesty's continued and increasing infirmities, was read by commission, turned principally upon topics calculated rather to increase than to dispel the general gloom. Among the most prominent of these, was the peace recently concluded between Austria and France; the disastrous expedition to Walcheren; the precarious state of our relations with Sweden; and the necessity of affording further assistance to Spain and Portugal.

The first subject proposed to parliament was the usual address on his majesty's speech. This address was moved in the house of lords by the Earl of Glasgow, seconded by Lord Grimstone; and in the house of commons by Lord Bernard, seconded by Mr. Peel. In both houses, amendments were moved, and the formidable numbers in the ranks of opposition served to show that the late changes in the cabinet had tended to weaken a government already feeble in the senate, and by no means strong in public estimation.

The debates on the address, which turned principally upon the conduct of the war in Spain, were followed by votes of thanks to Lord Wellington and his army, for the skill and gallantry displayed in the battle of Talavera; and these discussions were succeeded by a motion made by Lord Pochester, for an inquiry into the policy and conduct of the late expedition to Walcheren, under the Earl of Chatham. To give efficacy to this inquiry, his lordship moved for the appointment of a committee—not a select and secret committee, he said, before whom garbled extracts might be laid by ministers themselves, in order to produce a partial decision, but a committee of the whole house, by which oral evidence might be examined at the bar. This motion was opposed by ministers, but without success, for on a division of the house, there appeared, for the motion, one hundred and ninety-eight; against it, one hundred and eighty-six voices.

On the 1st of February, the day before the investigation commenced, Mr. Yorke, the member of Cambridgeshire, gave notice that he should, during the inquiry, enforce the standing order of the house for the exclusion of strangers. Mr. Sheridan deprecated the idea of proceeding to an investigation, in which the nation was so deeply interested, with closed doors, and asked whether it could be endured that the people should be kept in complete igno-

rance of what parliament was doing, at one of the most awful moments of its existence? Mr. Windham inquired what was the value of their constituents knowing what was passing in that house? Suppose they should never know it, the difference would only be that which existed between a representative form of government and a democracy. It was not till between the last twenty and thirty years, that the debates had been published at all, and he was one of those that liked the constitution as it was, not as it is. Persons made a trade of what they obtained from the gallery; among which persons were to be found bankrupts, lottery-office-keepers, footmen, and decayed tradesmen. He did not know any of the conductors of the press, but he understood them to be a set of men who would give into corrupt misrepresentations, and he was determined not to favour such characters by lending his hand to abrogate an order which was made to correct an abuse. Sir Francis Burdett said, if he could see in that house a body of gentlemen, fairly and freely elected by the people as the chosen guardians of their rights; if he could see no placemen or pensioners within those walls; and if no corrupt or undue influence could be supposed to operate on the minds of any of the members of that assembly; then, indeed, he could feel no particular objection to the inquiry being conducted in secret; unfortunately, however, the case was different, and the house stood in the eyes of the public in a very opposite situation. It had been considered by some, that, in point of character, they were on their last legs; but, for his part, he feared that they had not a leg to stand on. Mr. Sheridan said, that to some of the doctrines broached by Mr. Windham, he had listened with regret, and to others with horror; and his friendship for that gentleman made him almost wish, for the first time in his life, that the public had been excluded from the debate. Then passing, by a rapid transition, to the subject of the press, he exclaimed—"Give me but the liberty of the press, and I will give to the minister a venal house of peers—I will give him a corrupt and servile house of commons—I will give him the full swing of the patronage of office—I will give him the whole host of ministerial influence—I will give him all the power that place can confer upon him, to purchase up submission, and overawe resistance; and yet, armed with the liberty of the press, I will go forth and meet him undismayed; I will attack with that mightier engine the mighty fabric he has raised; I will shake down from its height corruption, and bury it beneath the ruin of the abuses it was meant to shelter."

But however eloquently Mr. Sheridan enforced his arguments, the sense of parliament was against him; and a majority of one hundred and sixty-six to eighty members, decided that the standing order of the house for the exclusion of strangers should remain unaltered.

A parliamentary proceeding in which the public was so deeply interested, naturally became a subject of general discussion, and on the 19th of February, while the investigation into the Scheldt expedition was proceeding in the house with closed doors, Mr. Yorke complained of a breach of privilege. His conduct in that assembly, he said, had been made the subject of discussion in a speaking club, called the *BRITISH FORUM*, and their hand-bills, which were stuck upon all the walls of the city, stated, that "after an interesting discussion, it was unanimously decided, that the enforcement of the standing orders, by shutting out strangers from the gallery of the house of commons, ought to be considered as an insidious and ill-timed attack upon the liberty of the press, as tending to aggravate the discontents of the people, and to render their representatives objects of jealous suspicion." The same hand-bill proposed a question for the next night's meeting, couched in these terms—"Which was the greatest outrage upon public feeling, Mr. Yorke's enforcement of the standing orders, or Mr. Windham's recent attack upon the liberty of the press?" This, Mr. Yorke complained of as a gross violation of the privileges of that house; and John Dean, the printer of the hand-bill, was ordered to attend at the bar. On the following evening, the printer appeared, and after humbly begging pardon of the honourable house for his offence, stated that John Gale Jones was the author of the obnoxious hand-bill. Mr. Jones, when summoned to the bar, acknowledged that he was the author of the paper in question, adding, that he had always considered it the privilege of every Englishman to animadvert on public measures, and the conduct of public men; but, on looking over the paper again, he found he had erred, and begged to express his contrition, and cast himself upon the mercy of the house. The speaker now put the question, that John Gale Jones has been guilty of a gross breach of the privileges of this house, which was carried unanimously; and on the motion of Mr. Yorke, he was committed to Newgate. The printer, having given up his author, was reprimanded and discharged.

The question of privilege served as a kind of episode, and withdrew public attention in some degree from the inquiry

which was now resumed. Among the papers laid before parliament, was a "copy of the Earl of Chatham's statement of his proceedings;" dated the 15th of October, 1809, presented to the king on the 14th of February, 1810. The tenor of the narrative was to impute blame to the naval part of the expedition, and his lordship represented its failure to have arisen, "either from insufficient arrangements on the part of the admiral, Sir Richard Strachan, or from unavoidable difficulties, inherent in the nature of the expedition itself, which, being entirely of a naval nature, did not come within his province." The presentation of such a document to the sovereign by a military commander, without the intervention of any responsible minister, and without the knowledge of the accused party, was deprecated as a clandestine and unconstitutional attempt to poison the royal ear; and a motion made by Mr. Whitbread for an address to his majesty, praying that copies of all papers submitted to him by the Earl of Chatham, at any time, concerning the expedition to the Scheldt, might be laid before that house, was carried in opposition to ministers by a majority of seven voices. This proceeding was followed by a vote of censure, proposed by Mr. Whitbread, and amended by Mr. Canning, in which Lord Chatham was pronounced highly reprehensible for the communication made to his majesty; and his lordship, in order to avoid an address to the king, praying for his removal from his majesty's councils, resigned his office of master-general of the ordnance.

Mr. Whitbread, while animadverting upon the surreptitious manner in which the narrative of the Earl of Chatham had been presented to the king, touched upon a topic which particularly associated itself with the name of Chatham: "It was," said Mr. Whitbread, "the first commoner in England, I mean the man who was afterwards created William, Earl of Chatham, who first discovered, that, from the beginning of the present reign, there had existed a secret and malignant influence behind the throne, greater than the throne itself. Strange fatality! that in the son of that very man, who first made the bold and awful annunciation, should be found one of the agents of that occult influence, which the father so long deprecated, and so magnanimously resisted."

In the mean time, the examination of evidence upon the Walcheren expedition, which had occupied the house from the 2d of February to the 26th of March, was concluded; and Lord Porchester moved two series of resolutions, to the effect, that the expedition was undertaken under

circumstances which afforded no rational hope of adequate success, and at the precise season of the year when the disease, which had proved so fatal, was known to be most prevalent; that the advisers of that ill-judged enterprise were therefore highly reprehensible for the calamities with which its failure had been attended; and that their conduct, in delaying the evacuation of Walcheren, called for the severest censure. After four nights debate, the question was put to the vote, when there appeared, for Lord Porchester's resolutions, two hundred and twenty-seven, and against them, two hundred and seventy-five voices. The house next decided upon an amendment of General Crawford's, purporting, that though the house considered with regret the lives which had been lost, it was of opinion that his majesty's ministers had proceeded upon good grounds in undertaking the expedition; which amendment was carried by a majority of forty voices. The second set of resolutions, censuring ministers for delaying the evacuation of Walcheren, was negatived by a majority of two hundred and seventy-five to two hundred and twenty-four; and a resolution, approving their conduct for retaining the island till the time it was abandoned, was carried by a majority of two hundred and fifty-five to two hundred and thirty-two voices.

This decision was considered as an escape, but by no means as a triumph, on the part of ministers. It was, however, obvious, that the question of the policy of the expedition to the Scheldt, was one with regard to which impartial men might differ; and though the opinion of the country was by no means in unison with the decision of parliament, the result of the inquiry produced none of those feelings of disappointment, with which the issue of the investigation into the conduct of the Duke of York had, during the preceding session, agitated the community.

The conduct of Mr. Yorke, in enforcing the standing order of the house of commons, was duly appreciated both by ministers and by the public. The former were so sensible of the benefits they had derived from his seasonable services, that he soon obtained the sinecure office of teller of the exchequer, and the highly responsible situation of first lord of the admiralty. In consequence of these appointments, he was under the necessity of vacating his seat for the county of Cambridgeshire, which he had represented for twenty years; and in the popular indignation that he had to encounter, as well as in the defeat of his attempts to obtain his re-election, the sense of the nation was unequivocally pronounced on the

merits and motives of his public conduct. Mr. Yorke was opposed in his election by Lord Francis Godolphin Osborne; and so decided and general was the sense of the freeholders of the county, on the day of nomination, against their late member, that Mr. Yorke thought it proper to decline the poll in favour of the new candidate, and to take refuge in the Cornish borough of St. Germans.

Although several of the members of the house of commons had expressed their doubts of the policy of committing Mr. Gale Jones to Newgate, yet none of them had denied or doubted the power of the house to punish a breach of privilege by imprisonment. This was reserved for Sir Francis Burdett, a man, who, as his friends insist, never suffers to pass unnoticed or unemployed an opportunity of defending the liberties, and securing the properties of the subject; or, as his enemies assert, of shaking the foundations of government, and inspiring dissatisfaction and discontent among the people. On the day when the committal took place, Sir Francis was confined to his house by indisposition; but as soon as possible after his return to his parliamentary duty, he moved for the liberation of the prisoner of privilege, grounding his motion on an assumption that the house of commons had exerted a power which the constitution did not confer upon them, and of which no precedent could be found, except in the worst periods of our history. The motion was made by Sir Francis Burdett on the 12th of March, and in the speech delivered on that occasion, great research and knowledge of the law and practice of parliament, were displayed. The honourable baronet, at the conclusion of his speech, moved, that John Gale Jones should be discharged; which motion was resisted by both sides of the house, and negatived by a majority of one hundred and fifty-three to fourteen voices. The speech delivered on this occasion, Sir Francis Burdett published in a periodical paper, of the 24th of the same month,* with a letter prefixed, addressed to his constituents.

"The house of commons," says Sir Francis, "having passed a vote, which amounts to a declaration, that an order of theirs is of more weight than magna charta and the laws of the land, I think it my duty to lay my sentiments thereon before my constituents, whose character, as freemen, and whose personal safety, depend, in so great a degree, upon the decision of this question,—a question of no less importance than this: Whether our liberty be still to be secured by the laws of our forefathers, or to be laid at the absolute mercy of a part of our fellow-subjects, collected together by means which it is not necessary

* Cobbett's Weekly Political Register.

for me to describe? Should the principle, upon which the gentlemen of the house of commons have thought proper to act in this instance, be once admitted, it is impossible for any one to conjecture how soon he himself may be summoned from his dwelling, and be hurried, without trial, and without oath made against him, from the bosom of his family into the clutches of a jailer. It is therefore now the time to resist the doctrine upon which Mr. Jones has been sent to Newgate; or, it is high time to cease all pretensions to those liberties which were acquired by our forefathers after so many struggles and so many sacrifices. We seek for, and we need to seek for, nothing new; we ask for only the birth-right of the people of England, namely, the laws of England. To these laws, we have a right to look, with confidence, for security; to these laws, the individual now imprisoned has, through me, applied for redress in vain. Your voice may come with more force; may command greater respect; and I am not without hopes that it may prove irresistible. If any of you be liable, at any time, to be sent to jail without a trial, and as long as it pleases the parties sending you there (perhaps to the end of your life), without any court to appeal to, without any means of redress; if this be the case, shall we still boast of the laws and liberties of England? But I would fain believe that such is not to be our fate. Our fathers made stern grim-visaged prerogative hide his head; they broke in pieces his sharp and massy sword; and shall we, their sons, be afraid to enter the lists with undefined privilege, assuming the powers of prerogative."

The speech, or argument, as it was now entitled, contained, amidst many legal and constitutional references, several passages in the same bold and animated strain.

"I have little doubt," said Sir Francis in this argument, "of being able to convince every impartial mind, that the house of commons, by proceeding to judgment; passing sentence of imprisonment; and issuing a warrant of commitment, has gone beyond its prescribed limits, acted in a manner inconsistent with the ends of its institution, and violated the fundamental principles of the law and constitution of the land.".... "By proceeding thus, they have exercised a jurisdiction not vested in them; a jurisdiction beyond the limits of king, lords, and commons, while magna charta remains unrepealed; and repealed it never can be till England shall have found her grave in the corruption of the house of commons.".... "As to the speaker's warrant, let this instrument, this thing, *sui generis*, be contrasted with the description of the properties of a legal warrant. Does it not evidently appear, that this piece of unsealed paper, signed by the speaker, by which an untried subject has been outlawed, bears no feature of legality, and that, from the commencement of this proceeding, in its progress, to its conclusion, there is not one step that has not been marked in a peculiar manner with disrespect to the laws; a disrespect, in which all parts have been wonderfully consistent throughout, in constituting the most unlawful act the mind of man can possibly conceive?".... "Upon what ground or pretence has the house assumed such a power to punish? Since they have taken upon themselves such a power, it is fair to call upon them to show how they came by it, and when they first claimed it. The commencement of this usurpation was when they got rid of the upper house of parliament, and cut off the head of the king, (Charles I.) They still, it seems, are emboldened

to maintain an illegal power, not pretended to even by the king, but which these local sovereigns over the king claim as of right. But no wonder, when they have so entirely departed from the ends of their institution—as was offered to be proved by Mr. Madocks, and acknowledged by themselves, in the never-to-be-forgotten morning of the 11th of May, 1809, when, from being the lower, or inferior, (for it is the same sense, one being an English, and another a Latin, word) branch of the legislature, they became the proprietors by burgrave tenure of the whole representation; and in that capacity, inflated with their high-flown fanciful ideas of majesty, and tricked out in the trappings of royalty, think privilege and protection beneath their dignity, assume the sword of prerogative, and lord it equally over the king and the people."

In consequence of this publication, it was moved, by Mr. Lethbridge, and decided by a majority of the house of commons, that Sir Francis Burdett had been guilty of publishing a scandalous and libellous paper, reflecting upon the just rights and privileges of that honourable house, for which offence he was ordered to be taken into custody by the sergeant-at-arms, and committed to the Tower. The motion for commitment, which was made by Sir Robert Salisbury, was carried, after a long and animated debate, by a majority of one hundred and ninety to one hundred and fifty-two voices. The division did not take place till seven o'clock on the morning of Friday, the 6th of April; and at half-past eight, the same morning, the speaker signed the warrant, and delivered it to Mr. Coleman, the sergeant-at-arms, with a direction to execute it before ten o'clock, that he might not have to convey his prisoner to the Tower through the streets of London in the middle of the day. Owing to the absence of Sir Francis from town, the sergeant-at-arms did not see him till the afternoon of that day, when the baronet, who was then at his house, in Piccadilly, told him that he intended to write to the speaker, and that he should be ready to receive him the next morning, at eleven o'clock. The sergeant-at-arms then retired, and reported to the speaker the steps that had been taken; when Mr. Abbot advised him to go back, and execute the warrant without further delay. In compliance with this advice, he returned to the house of Sir Francis, and informed him, that he had been reprimanded by the speaker for the delay that had already taken place, and intimated that he must accompany him to the Tower forthwith. To this, Sir Francis Burdett replied, "If you bring an overwhelming force, I must submit; but I dare not, from my allegiance to the king, and my respect to the laws, yield a voluntary submission to the warrant you have just exhibited: it is illegal; and you must leave my house." Mr. Coleman,

feeling himself at a loss how to act, withdrew, and repaired to the office of the secretary of state. On the evening of the day on which the house of commons directed the speaker to issue his warrant for the apprehension and commitment of Sir Francis Burdett, the populace began to collect before his house, in Piccadilly. On Saturday, in the afternoon, the concourse of people was so great, and the resistance to the execution of the warrant so highly probable, that ministers thought proper to call out all the military who were in London, and sent orders to several regiments, who were within a day's march, to proceed to the metropolis with all possible despatch. The populace who were before the baronet's house, compelled all the passengers on horseback or in carriages, to pull off their hats as they passed, and in the evening they paraded the neighbouring streets, calling for lights, and breaking the windows of such houses as did not illuminate, and more particularly venting their fury on the houses of his majesty's ministers, and of such members of the house of commons as had distinguished themselves by speaking in favour of the imprisonment of Sir Francis Burdett.

A doubt now rose in the mind of the sergeant-at-arms, whether the warrant, under which he acted, would authorize him to break open the baronet's doors, which, he had learnt, were strongly barricadoed; and the opinion of Sir Vicary Gibbs, the attorney-general, to whom the question was submitted, tended rather to confirm than to remove his apprehensions. There was no precedent to govern his decision, the attorney-general said, but reasoning from analogy, the tendency of his opinion was, that the door might be broken open for the purpose of executing the warrant; but if, in any conflict that might take place in consequence, death should ensue, the officer who executed the warrant would stand justified or not, as the breaking of the house might be deemed lawful or unlawful. On this opinion, vague and inconclusive as it was, the sergeant-at-arms was obliged to act, and a little before eleven o'clock on the morning of Monday, the 9th of April, Mr. Coleman, accompanied by messengers and police officers, and supported by a large military force, broke open the baronet's house. Mr. Coleman, advancing to Sir Francis Burdett, and at the same time presenting him his warrant, said, "You are my prisoner."—"That," rejoined Sir Francis, "is not a legal instrument; and I tell you distinctly, that I will not voluntarily submit to an unlawful order. I demand, in the king's name, and

in the name of the laws, that you forthwith retire from my house."—"Then, sir," said the sergeant, "I must call assistance, and force you to yield." The constables now laid hold on Sir Francis; Mr. Jones Burdett, and Mr. Roger O'Connor, who were in the room, immediately took him by the arm; but the peace officers closed on all three, and drew them down stairs. Sir Francis was then conducted to the coach, which, preceded and guarded by a large body of cavalry, conveyed him to the Tower. At the time that the sergeant-at-arms, and his attendants, broke into the house of Sir Francis Burdett, very few people were collected in Piccadilly, but the report of his seizure spread rapidly through every part of the metropolis; and before the coach, which, to avoid going through the city, had taken a circuitous route, arrived at Tower-Hill, the multitude in that quarter was immense. As soon as they perceived the carriage in which he was conveyed, their heads were instantly uncovered, and the air rang with acclamations in favour of the man whom they regarded as suffering in the cause of the liberties of his country. No attack was made upon the military till they began to return; but scarcely had they entered East-Cheap, when they were assailed in the rear by a shower of stones and mud. For a considerable time, the soldiers endured this attack with coolness and patience; but at length, finding the mob grow more daring, they fired several shots, by which, unfortunately, eight persons were wounded, two of them mortally.

The letter which Sir Francis Burdett had addressed to the speaker, on Friday evening, was communicated to the house of commons on Monday, and produced a unanimous resolution, "That the letter of Sir Francis Burdett to the speaker is a high and flagrant breach of privilege." In this letter the baronet declared, that his duty to his king, and to his constituents, would not allow him voluntarily to obey the act of any set of men, who, contrary to the laws, assume the sovereign power; and he professed his readiness to accept the meanest office that would vacate his seat, to get out of an association, which had illegally usurped the whole power of the realm.

Sir Francis Burdett was abundantly consoled under his imprisonment in the Tower, by the addresses he received from different parts of the kingdom, and by the petitions that were sent to the house of commons for his liberation. The first place that petitioned, was the city of Westminster; and the counties of Middlesex and Berkshire, as well as the livery of London,

the borough of Southwark, and the towns of Rochester, Hull, Reading, Nottingham, and Sheffield followed its example.

Although the warrant by which Sir Francis Burdett was committed to the Tower, directed that he should remain imprisoned during the pleasure of the house of commons, yet it had always been customary to liberate persons thus committed when the prorogation of parliament took place, and that period was anxiously expected by the friends of the baronet in the metropolis. Although his liberation, by the effluxion of time, could not, in any respect, be considered a triumph, it was determined to celebrate the day, and preparations were made to conduct him in great state from the Tower to his house in Piccadilly. Early in the morning of the 21st of June, all the streets through which the procession was to pass, were crowded with those who meant either to witness or to join in the splendid pageant. The hour at which it was known that parliament would be prorogued, was looked for with intense anxiety, and the most effectual methods had been taken to communicate the notice from Westminster-Hall to the Tower. The expected intelligence at last arrived; parliament was prorogued, and Sir Francis Burdett was free. The immense multitudes on Tower-hill pressed forward to catch the first glimpse of the popular favourite. Several minutes elapsed after the prorogation had been made known to the governor of the Tower, but the baronet did not appear. At length, after long and anxious expectation, it was announced, by a speaking-trumpet, from the battlements of the fortress, that "Sir Francis Burdett left the Tower by water at half-past three o'clock." His friends were, for some time, incredulous, and it was suspected that it was meant to detain him; but they soon became convinced that he had crossed the river, and was probably at that time far advanced on his road to his country-house at Wimbledon. Discontent and chagrin began to appear among the multitude; they had been led to understand that the procession was planned and arranged with the knowledge and approbation of Sir Francis Burdett, and no intimation had been given that he had changed his mind. That this disappointment did not lead to acts of violence and fury, says much for the moderation of the people; that it did not make an impression permanently disadvantageous to the baronet, proves the strong hold he had obtained on public opinion. The explanation given by Sir Francis of this part of his conduct, was by no means satisfactory; if, as he stated to the committee that waited upon him, he apprehended mis-

chief, he ought not to have countenanced the procession in the first instance; and as to the necessity of an expression of the public sentiment, no such necessity existed, the public having already sufficiently expressed their feelings and views of his imprisonment.*

The representative for Westminster, conceiving that the law of the land had been outraged in his person, commenced actions against the speaker of the house of commons, for issuing the warrant for his arrest and imprisonment; against the sergeant-at-arms, for executing the warrant generally, and for breaking open the outer-door of his house in its execution; and against Earl Moira, the governor of the Tower, for illegal imprisonment. These actions the house of commons ordered the attorney-general to defend. The plea was, that the warrant, being issued by the authority of the house of commons, was a legal instrument, and that therefore the arrest and imprisonment were legal. This plea, as might have been foreseen, was admitted; and the privileges of parliament were allowed by the judges of the court of king's bench, not to be cognizable in a court of law, but to be part of the laws of the land. Thus, the attempt of Sir Francis Burdett to overthrow this branch of the privileges of parliament, like all unsuccessful attempts to call in question ancient rights, served to confirm those privileges, and gave to the claims of the house of commons a solemn judicial recognition.

The early part of the session of parliament in 1810, was almost exclusively occupied by the inquiry into the Walcheren expedition, and the proceedings in support of the privileges of parliament. On the 16th of May the budget was brought forward, and the supplies voted for the year amounted to 59,185,000*l.*, of which the proportion for Ireland was 6,106,000*l.* The ways and means, without the imposition of any new taxes, were estimated at a surplus of 141,903*l.* over the demand, including however, a loan of eight millions, which was borrowed at 4*l.* 4*s.* 3*d.* per cent.: more than fifteen shillings per cent. below the rate of legal interest. There was no reason, Mr. Perceval said, to apprehend any thing like decay in our finances, for, the more they were examined, the better satisfied we should be of their prosperity. This very year, when men of great authority anticipated a failure, there had actu-

* The liberation of Mr. John Gale Jones from Newgate took place at the same time that Sir Francis Burdett was discharged from the Tower: and Mr. Jones arrived in sufficient time at Tower-hill to occupy the principal place in the procession, on its return into Westminster.

ally been a very considerable increase. The official value of the imports was 36,255,209*l.*, nearly five millions more than in the most prosperous year of peace. The exports of our manufactures amounted to 35,107,000*l.*, between eight and nine millions more than they were in 1802. The exports of our foreign goods were, however, nearly four millions less than at that time. "Thus," said Mr. Perceval, "while this country is greatly progressive in prosperity, the orders in council have reduced the receipts of the customs in France from two millions and a half, to half a million, being a diminution of four-fifths of the whole amount."*

Mr. Huskisson said, that in the midst of all this vaunted prosperity, the national debt continued to increase; and he inquired if it was possible to go on much longer adding from a million to twelve hundred thousand every year to the public burdens?

One of the first measures adopted by the friends of economical reform, was con-

* FINANCES.

PUBLIC INCOME of Great Britain for the Year ending the 5th of January, 1810.

Branches of Revenue.	Gross Receipts.			Paid into the Exchequer.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Customs, . . .	10,532,969	8	8½	8,568,032	10	0
Excise, . . .	19,395,496	19	11½	17,194,931	3	11½
Stamps, . . .	5,653,425	8	1	5,308,843	1	11
Land and Assess- ed Taxes, . . .	8,492,574	1	7½	8,742,493	6	5½
Post Office, . .	1,610,885	3	0	1,370,069	1	11½
Miscell. Perma- nent Tax, . . .	127,730	9	7	153,054	6	7½
Here. Revenue, Extr. Resources.	87,148	16	11½	118,780	3	8½
Wine & Customs, Excise, . . .	3,397,201	15	4½	3,072,761	19	10½
Prof. Tax, . . .	5,778,386	12	10½	5,638,216	11	1½
Miscel. Income, Loans, inclu- ding 3,000,000 <i>l.</i> for the service of Ireland, . .	12,413,808	14	0½	12,160,162	8	11½
	2,900,874	4	4	2,938,369	13	5
	14,675,668	18	6	14,675,668	18	6

Grand Total, £34,915,886 13 0½ £79,902,943 6 3½

Whitehall, Treasury Cham-
bers, 24th March, 1810. } (Signed)
RICH. WHARTON.

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE of Great Britain for the Year ending the 5th of January, 1810.

Branches of Expenditure.	Sums.		
	£	s.	d.
Interest, . . .	20,996,062	11	11½
Charge of Management, . .	222,775	2	4½
Reduction of National Debt, .	10,904,480	13	0
Interest on Exchequer Bills, .	1,892,943	15	0½
Civil List, . . .	1,606,038	19	8½
Civil Government of Scotland, .	90,364	15	9
Payments in anticipation, &c., .	769,764	12	2½
Navy, . . .	19,236,036	18	6
Ordnance, . . .	4,374,184	8	10
Army, . . .	12,591,040	19	11
Extraordinary Services, . . .	5,372,054	0	0
Loans to Sweden and Sicily, Portugal, and Austria, including 2,821,627 <i>l.</i> 1 <i>l.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> to Ireland, . . .	4,971,627	15	6½
Miscellaneous Services, . . .	1,469,434	4	7½

Deductions for Sums forming no part of the Expenditure of Great Britain, . . . 84,977,248 17 4½
2,949,980 12 3

Grand Total, £38,027,298 5 1½

Whitehall, Treasury Cham-
bers, 24th March, 1810. } (Signed)
RICH. WHARTON.

tained in a motion made by Mr. Bankes, to the effect, that the act for suspending the granting of offices in reversion should be made perpetual; and a bill for this purpose passed the house of commons almost without opposition. When this bill reached the upper house, it was thrown out at its second reading, by a large majority. Mr. Bankes finding, as he said, that there was a determined principle to oppose the bill in its present shape, introduced a second bill for a limited period; but this attempted compromise proved ineffectual, and the second bill was, in like manner, rejected by the peers, with a pertinacity not less injurious in itself, than offensive to the public feeling.

A subject of vital importance to the interests of the community, and to the commercial credit of the country, was brought under the consideration of parliament, by Mr. Horner, who, on the 1st of February, moved for a variety of accounts and returns respecting the present state of the circulating medium, and the trade in bullion. On the production of these papers, a committee was appointed for the purpose of inquiring into the present high price of bullion, and the consequent effect on the value of the paper currency; but this inquiry opened so wide a field of investigation, that it was not till the eve of the prorogation of parliament, that the report of the committee could be submitted to the house. The bullion committee, after a patient and laborious investigation, were decidedly of opinion, that the evils, into the causes of which they were commissioned to inquire, were to be attributed to an excessive issue of Bank of England paper; and it was stated in their report, that "a general rise of all prices, a rise in the market price of gold, and a fall in the foreign exchanges, will be the effect of an undue quantity of circulating medium in a country which had adopted a currency not exportable to other countries, or convertible at will into a coin that is convertible."

But though the Bank of England notes were in reality at a discount, that discount, in the judgment of the committee, did not arise from want of credit, or confidence in the funds and stability in the bank, but merely from over issue: and it was stated, that no sufficient remedy for the present evil, or security for the future, could be pointed out, except the repeal of the law which suspends the cash payments of the Bank of England." To effect so important a change, the committee was aware that some difficulties must be encountered; but all hazards to the stability of the bank, and all injury to public credit, might be obviated, by restricting cash payments for

two years from the present time, and by intrusting to the bank itself the charge of conducting and completing the operation.*

The question of parliamentary reform was brought under consideration in the house of commons, by Mr. Brand, on the 21st of May. Having stated the evils resulting from the present defective state of the representation, he proceeded to suggest a remedy. He did not mean to touch the right of voting for county members, except by letting in copy-holders, and assimilating the mode of voting in Scotland to the practice in England. The honourable member, in the plan now submitted to the consideration of the house, proposed to disfranchise the boroughs in which the members were returned on the nomination of individuals; and as the number of members would be diminished in that proportion, it would be proper to transfer the right of returning such members to populous towns, and apply any surplus to the larger counties. The duration of parliament should, he conceived, be triennial, with a concurrent arrangement for collecting the votes by districts and parishes. It was not his intention to propose that all persons holding offices should be excluded from the house of commons; but in order to secure the independence of parliament, persons holding offices without responsi-

* From the appendix to the report of the bullion committee, it appeared, that, in the year 1791 and 1792, before the breaking out of the revolutionary war, the amount of bank-notes in circulation was eleven millions and a half. In 1797, the bank was relieved by act of parliament from the necessity of paying in cash payments, when two additional millions in small notes were issued. For two years after the passing of the bank restriction bill, gold never exceeded its legitimate price of 3*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.* per ounce; and, consequently, the foreign exchanges remained at par, and the circulating medium suffered no depression. In 1799, an increase of four millions took place in the paper currency of the bank, which circumstance, co-operating with the subsidies paid to foreign powers, and the increased importations, in consequence of the failure of the harvest, advanced the bullion price of gold to 4*l.* per ounce. At the end of the year 1808, the issues of the bank were still further increased; and all those alarming symptoms, the existence of which gave rise to the bullion committee, appeared, and continued to gain strength; specie became every day more and more scarce, and at last nearly disappeared altogether; and the exchanges with the continent, and the price of bullion, rose excessively. The bank still enlarged its issues; and on the 13th of May, 1810, the amount of the Bank of England paper in circulation was swelled to twenty-one millions; of which, fifteen millions were in large, and six millions in small notes. It was further stated, that the issue of paper money had been greatly increased by the transactions of the country banks, which now amounted to upwards of seven hundred, by far the greater part of which were issuers of notes.

bility—mere sinecures, should not be suffered to have seats in that assembly. On these grounds, he brought forward his present motion, and he trusted the house would give it all the consideration to which the subject was entitled. Of one thing, he was certain, that the country must either have a temperate reform, or a military government. In conclusion he moved the appointment of a committee to inquire into the state of the representation of the people in parliament; which motion was rejected by a large majority.

The frequently agitated question of Catholic emancipation, was this session brought forward in both houses; and motions, for the removal of the disabilities under which his majesty's Roman Catholic subjects labour, made by the Earl of Donoughmore and Mr. Grattan, were rejected, both in the lords and commons, by considerable majorities. In the discussion on the Catholic question in 1808, it had been stated by Lord Grenville in the house of lords, and Mr. Grattan in the house of commons, that the Catholics were willing to allow to the crown a *veto*, or negative, in the appointment of their bishops; but the Catholics of Ireland, after deep deliberation, came to the conclusion, that it would be derogatory to their character as a religious community, and would involve a compromise of the constitution of their church, to purchase an extension of their civil privileges, by conceding to a Protestant sovereign the right of interference in the appointment of the Catholic prelacy. This decision, though it diminished the number of the friends of Catholic emancipation in the British parliament, sufficiently proved that the members of the church of Rome in these realms felt no inordinate anxiety for the attainment of political power, and that, when their civil rights interfered with their religious obligations, they were prepared to sacrifice the former at the shrine of the latter.

On the 13th of June, when the present session of parliament was drawing to a close, Earl Grey submitted to the consideration of the house of peers a motion on the state of the nation; this motion he introduced by an elaborate and eloquent speech, which he concluded with a series of resolutions, embracing the principal points brought under discussion, and of which the following is the substance:

That an humble address be presented to his majesty, assuring him that the house is convinced that peace, so anxiously desired by his majesty's loyal people, will be best promoted by proving to the world that we possess the means of permanently supporting the honour and independence of our country against every species of attack by which the enemy might hope to assail us; that

for this purpose it is necessary that his majesty's government should henceforth adopt a wise and systematic policy, regulated, not only by a just estimate of our present difficulties, but by a prudent foresight of the probable exigencies of a protracted warfare: That we have to lament that the conduct of his majesty's ministers has been, in this respect, directly the reverse of what the interest and safety of his majesty's dominions required; that they have rashly engaged in expeditions, so defective in their plan, so impolitic in their object, and so ill combined as to the time at which they were undertaken, that they could terminate only in an unprofitable waste of the resources and the blood of his majesty's faithful subjects: That, while the war has been thus unfortunately conducted, the conduct of his majesty's government, with respect to neutral powers, has retarded an amicable arrangement with those whom it was most our interest to conciliate, and unite with us in opposition to the measures of France: That in what more immediately concerns our domestic policy, we have equally to complain of want of wisdom and of foresight in his majesty's councils; that instead of a permanent system of finance, temporary and impolitic expedients have for the last three years been resorted to; that the paper circulation has been extended to a degree highly dangerous to the pecuniary interests of the country; that no attempts have been made to allay the discontents arising from religious differences; and that no measures have been taken to remove the cause of just complaint on the part of a burthened people, by an effective economy in the great branches of the public service: That owing to these and other causes, discontent and distrust are beginning to diffuse themselves among his majesty's faithful people, and that the increase and extension of these feelings can be prevented only by the adoption of a more wise, liberal, and enlightened policy; that in recommending such a system of policy to his majesty, we can never lose sight of our obligations to support the just prerogatives and useful splendour of the crown, the venerable establishments of our holy religion, and the ancient and essential rights and privileges of parliament.

The Earl of Liverpool, in opposing the address, contended, that a favourable change had already taken place in the state of public affairs. Our commerce and revenue had increased in a manner hitherto unexampled; the number of vessels taken from the enemy, and those of our allies rescued from his grasp, was immense; the French had been, for the first time in the history of modern Europe, driven entirely out of the West Indies; Portugal, which had been overrun by the enemy, had seen the armies of France expelled by British valour. Spain had been encouraged to struggle with her oppressors by our example; the port of Lisbon was now free; and Cadiz and Ceuta were at present occupied by the British in conjunction with Spanish troops. Such, was the real state of things, at a period when the noble lord had thought proper to draw so gloomy a picture of the situation of the country, and to move for so severe a censure on his majesty's government. After a very ani-

mated debate, the house divided, when Earl Grey's motion was rejected by a majority of a hundred and thirty-four to seventy-two voices.

The motion for an inquiry into the state of the nation, was the last subject of importance that engaged the attention of parliament; and on the 21st of June the two houses were prorogued, by a speech delivered in his majesty's name by the lord chancellor.*

After the fall of Martinique, the only settlement of importance possessed by the enemy in the West Indies was the island of Guadaloupe; and early in the present year, an expedition, under the command of Lieutenant-general Sir George Beckwith, sailed from Martinique against that colony. The preparations for the attack were completed about the middle of January, and consisted of an army of about six thousand men, which was divided into five brigades, and accompanied with a suitable naval force, under the command of Sir Alexander Cochrane. On the 27th, the expedition arrived at St. Marie, and by the prompt and judicious operations of the troops, the enemy was driven from the positions he had occupied in advance, and obliged to compress his force beyond the bridge of Nozeire, having the river Noire in his front, and extending his left in such a manner into the mountains as to make it difficult to dislodge him. The great obstacle in the way of the advance of the

* During the present session of parliament, died the Right Hon. WILLIAM WINDHAM, a man whose name, in the history of literature and of politics, will be joined with those of Johnson, Burke, Fox, and Pitt. His death, which was occasioned by an operation for the removal of an indolent, encysted tumour, took place on Monday, the 4th of June, in the 61st year of his age. No man occupied a more elevated situation in the estimation of all parties, for honour, integrity, and patriotism, than Mr. Windham; but there was a certain tortuousness in his political course, which gave to his conduct an air of eccentricity; and his great talents were, on some occasions, applied to the purpose of advocating established abuses, even at the expense of humanity. As an official and party man, from a chivalry of sentiment inseparable from his nature, he occasionally displayed a dissonance of opinion from those with whom he acted, but his intentions were always pure; he was not made to belong to any set or party of men; he moved in an orbit of his own, and was never to be diverted from his purpose by any considerations either of fear or favour. As an orator, he was simple, eloquent, prompt, and graceful. As a statesman, he entertained a most profound veneration for the constitution of his country; and even his faults were not of an ordinary or grovelling kind. He aimed not at the attainment of transient popularity, but aspired to a lasting and imperishable reputation; and his sovereign embalmed his memory with this high eulogium—"Windham was a genuine patriot, and a truly honest man."

British army, was the passage of the Noire, to the defence of which the enemy had paid the utmost attention. Sir George Beckwith, aware of the difficulty of carrying this position, determined not to hazard an attack in front, but to turn the enemy's left by the mountains, and fall upon his flank. This difficult enterprise was confided to the reserve of the British army, under Brigadier-general Wale, who was ordered to carry through the operation on the night of the 3d of February. General Wale, having obtained important intelligence, which led him to think that the route marked out in his orders might be considerably shortened, and that the manœuvre might succeed with less difficulty and loss if it were executed during the preceding day, advanced on his own responsibility, and after a short, but severe conflict, forced the pass of the river, and completely succeeded in his undertaking. This exploit decided the campaign; no sooner had the Captain-general, Ernouf, perceived that his flank was turned, and that the heights were in possession of the British, than he hoisted the white flag at his head-quarters, and all the other places in the island surrendered without resistance. At the same time, the French part of the island of St. Martin's was surrendered by capitulation; and on the 14th, Commodore Fahie took possession of the whole island. After the surrender of St. Martin's, the British commodore sailed for Eustatius, which capitulated without resistance; and thus the enemy was deprived of his last colonial possession in the American islands.

A few weeks before the fall of Guadeloupe, two French frigates, of forty-eight guns each, along with two vessels of the same nation armed *en flute*, carrying troops and stores for the succour of that island, were met at sea by the Junon frigate, Captain Shortland, about one hundred and fifty miles from their destination. The British captain, having been decoyed into a situation which left him no alternative but either to fight or to surrender, determined to encounter the enemy, while a brig that was in company effected her escape. The two frigates lay, one on each side of the Junon, while one of the smaller vessels passed her bowsprit on the larboard, and the other on her starboard quarters. In this situation, they opened a most destructive fire upon their victim from all sides, the muskets of the enemy's troops being particularly galling. Captain Shortland soon perceived that his only hope of success depended upon an effort to board one of the frigates; but the party ordered upon this service were almost all cut off, by a

general volley directed against them by the troops. After the battle had raged for some time, the enemy, in their turn, attempted to board, but they were three times repulsed; and it was not till after an action of an hour and a quarter, that the Junon struck her colours. In this unequal conflict, ninety of the British seamen were killed and wounded, and the vessel was reduced to so complete a wreck that the next day she was set on fire and destroyed. The gallantry displayed in this action, in which Captain Shortland was mortally wounded, has never been surpassed in the annals of the British navy. Every man did his duty, and the gallant captain, with a pike in his hand, headed his men till the last moment, when a langridge shot laid him senseless on the deck, and terminated his heroic career.

In the month of January, the Dutch settlement of Amboyna, with the neighbouring dependent islands, were carried by a *coup de main*, by an expedition under Captain Tucker, when seven armed ships and forty-seven merchant vessels, many of them richly laden, rewarded the gallant enterprise of the victors.

The islands of Bourbon and the Mauritius, or the Isle of France, had long served to afford shelter and protection to a very large number of French privateers, which scoured the seas in the track of the East India shipping, and had captured vessels of that description to an enormous amount. Their captures they either took to the Isle of Bourbon, or the Isle of France, but principally to the latter;* as being a place not only naturally of greater strength, but garrisoned and protected by a much larger force. In the hopes of regaining this booty, and for the purpose of rooting out the nest of privateers which infested these seas, expeditions were planned, first against the Isle of Bourbon, and afterwards against the Isle of France. A force was collected, consisting of two thousand five hundred Europeans, and two thousand native troops, who were afterwards joined by a thousand men from the island of Rodriguez, under Lieutenant-colonel Keating, to whom the command of the expedition against the Isle of Bourbon was confided. By the co-operation of the naval part of the expedition, under Commodore Rowly, the destruction of the French batteries and guns at St. Paul's took place in the month of Septem-

* In the ten months preceding the fall of this island, it has been calculated that the insurance offices of Bengal alone, were losers three millions sterling by captures.—(*Account of the capture of Mauritius.*) This is probably an exaggeration, but the real loss must have been immense to afford countenance to such a statement.

ber, 1809; and dispositions having been made for an attack on St. Dennis, a herald presented himself with an offer from the governor, Colonel St. Susanne, to capitulate, which proposal was readily acquiesced in, and the whole island passed under the sway of the British sceptre.

A body of troops from the British settlements in India and the Cape of Good Hope, amounting to about ten thousand, destined for the reduction of the Isle of France, arrived at the place of rendezvous on the 21st of November, 1810. This army was commanded by Major-general John Abercrombie, second son of General Sir Ralph Abercrombie, and the whole fleet under Admiral Bertie, including transports and ships of war, amounted to seventy sail. On the 29th of November, the troops effected a landing under cover of the fire-ships, and on the 2d of December, prepared for attacking the forts; but on the day following, General de Caen, the French governor, rendered all further operations unnecessary, by proposing to capitulate on the condition that the troops should return to France without being considered as prisoners of war. These terms, under all the circumstances, it was thought advisable to allow, and on the same day the capitulation was signed, by which the Isle of France, an immense quantity of stores and valuable merchandise, five large frigates, some smaller ships of war, and twenty-eight merchantmen, with two captured British East Indiamen, were surrendered to his majesty's arms. By the conquest of these islands, the French were deprived of their last establishments beyond the Cape of Good Hope, and Great Britain now reigned without a rival in the east, with the exception of the Dutch settlements in the island of Java.

Towards the close of the present year, an event occurred which suspended the royal functions, and plunged the country into great distress and embarrassment. The Princess Amelia, the youngest and favourite daughter of the king, after a painful and protracted illness, died on the 2d of November. The circumstance of an amiable and beloved child, in the prime of life, passing rapidly to her dissolution, in the midst of the most acute sufferings, naturally preyed on the paternal feelings of his majesty: his whole mind became absorbed in the fate of his daughter; he dwelt upon her deplorable situation with harassing and weakening grief and despair; till at length the powers of his understanding sunk under the pressure, and he fell a prey to that mental disorder, under which he had suffered so much two-and-twenty years before, and to which he

had been occasionally subject in the interval.*

Some days before the indisposition of the king, a proclamation had been issued, stating it to be the royal pleasure that parliament should not assemble till the month of December, but the usual commission not being prepared, the meeting of parliament took place on the 1st of November, the period to which, by a former commission, it had been prorogued. The only case in history exactly similar to that which now presented itself, was the precedent of 1788-9: parliament had that year been prorogued to the 20th of November, and as the regular commission for its further intended prorogation had not been signed by the king, it necessarily met on that day. The peers and the commons each remained in their separate chambers, and after the state of his majesty's mental health had been explained, an adjournment for fifteen days was unanimously resolved upon. This precedent, so analogous in its circumstances, was strictly followed upon the present melancholy occasion; and the lord chancellor and the speaker of the house of commons were directed to transmit letters to the members of their respective houses, requiring their attendance on Thursday the 15th of November.

From the peculiarly mild symptoms assumed by his majesty's complaint at the commencement of his present illness, it was hoped that the malady would not be of long continuance, but would soon yield to medical care and skill. Sir Henry Hallford, and Drs. Heberden and Bailie, were the physicians first called in. By them, the bulletins were signed, which were regularly issued, at first once, and afterwards twice a day, from the 29th of October to the 4th of November, when the signature of Dr. Reynolds for the first time appeared. On the 9th day of that month, Dr. Willis was called in; and from this circumstance it was inferred that his majesty's disorder had assumed a more decided and obstinate character than was originally contemplated.

When parliament again assembled on

* When the Princess Amelia felt that her end was fast approaching, she ordered a ring to be made, enclosing a lock of her hair, and inscribed with the words—"Remember me." This token of her dying affection, she silently placed upon the finger of her royal father at his next visit to her chamber. Her own departure was so near that she never knew the fatal consequences. The king, who felt all that this charge imported, retired from her apartment extremely agitated, and when the dissolution of his beloved child actually took place, his mind was no longer in a state to derive consolation from the reflection that death had terminated her sufferings.

the 15th of November, ministers informed the two houses that the medical attendants of his majesty were unanimously of opinion that his majesty's health was in a state of progressive improvement, and that they continued to express the most flattering and confident hopes, that he would, in a very short space of time, be enabled to resume the personal exercise of the royal functions. On the faith of these representations, the two houses, after some debate, consented to a second adjournment till the 29th of November.

In the interval, all the members of the privy council were summoned by the president, to assemble for the purpose of examining the physicians, touching the state of his majesty's health, and the probability of his speedy resumption of the royal authority. Earl Camden, as president of the council, alone interrogated the physicians, and the answers, which were very short and general, conveyed an opinion that his majesty's complaint was of such a nature that his recovery could not be long delayed.

Taking their stand upon the result of this examination, ministers, when parliament met on the 29th of November, again moved and carried a further adjournment till the 13th of December. During this period the disease of his majesty by no means abated, and it was generally understood that the malady threatened a long and tedious endurance, and even cast doubts upon the ultimate and perfect recovery of the royal patient. When, therefore, parliament met for the fourth time, ministers were under the necessity of proposing that the physicians should be examined by a committee, appointed by each house; and of explicitly stating, that if the report should not hold out a prospect of speedy recovery, they would then propose measures to supply the defect in the royal authority. The physicians in the examination that took place, described his majesty's disorder to be a derangement of mind, closely allied to delirium, and occasionally falling into it; and the result of the inquiry established the fact, that his majesty was not only at this time totally incapable of performing the high functions of his royal office, but that his recovery would be slow and remote. Under these circumstances, all idea of further adjournment was at an end, and ministers found it absolutely necessary to proceed towards the appointment of a regency. The session not having been opened by the royal authority, could not be constitutionally regarded as the parliament of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, but merely as a convention of the two estates; it was necessary, therefore, to have regard

to this character in the mode of their proceedings; and in opening the business in the house of commons, on the 20th of December, Mr. Perceval moved three distinct propositions, declaratory to the present incapacity of the king; of the competency of the two houses of parliament to supply the defect; and of the necessity of passing a bill for maintaining entire the constitutional authority of the king.* The first of these resolutions passed unanimously; the second, with the single negative of Sir Francis Burdett, who denied that all the estates of this realm were "lawfully, fully, and freely represented in parliament." On the third resolution, Mr. Ponsonby moved an amendment, to the effect that an address should be presented to the Prince of Wales, praying him to take upon himself the office of regent. On this amendment, long and animated debates took place, but as Lord Grenville and his friends adhered to the doctrines which they had maintained and acted upon with Mr. Pitt on a former occasion, the opposition were out-voted in the commons by a majority of a hundred and twelve, and in the lords by twenty-six voices.

It is evident that very serious objections existed to both modes of proceeding, whether by bill or by address; the mere reading over the resolutions suggest them: a regent was to be appointed by a bill, that is, in other words, the king, whose incapacity was the sole cause of the measure, was, by a fiction of law, to be declared to have given his assent to an act (for without the royal assent an act of parliament is of no validity) which constituted another person regent; because, as that bill

** Resolutions moved by MR. PERCEVAL on the 20th of December, 1810.*

I. That his majesty is prevented by indisposition from coming to parliament, and from attending to public business, and that the personal exercise of the royal authority is thereby, for the present, interrupted.

II. That it is the right and duty of the lords, spiritual and temporal, and commons of Great Britain, now assembled, and lawfully, fully, and freely representing all the estates of the people of this realm, to provide the means of supplying the defect of the personal exercise of the royal authority, arising from his majesty's said indisposition, in such a manner as the exigency of the case may appear to require.

III. That for this purpose, and for maintaining entire the constitutional authority of the king, it is necessary that the lords, spiritual and temporal, and commons of Great Britain, should determine on the means whereby the royal assent may be given in parliament to such bill as may be passed by the two houses of parliament, respecting the exercise of the powers and authorities of the crown, in the name and on the behalf of the king, during the continuance of his majesty's present indisposition.

expressed it, his majesty was incapable of exercising his royal functions. The objections to proceeding by address were not so glaring, but they were not less real: the Prince of Wales was to be requested to take upon himself the office of regent, and when he had assumed that office, and opened parliament in that capacity, an act of parliament was then to be passed constituting him regent.

It is well known, that during the king's indisposition, in 1788, Mr. Fox, in a moment of unguarded warmth, denied the right and power of parliament to confer the royal authority; and asserted, in too strong and unqualified terms, the undoubted right of the Prince of Wales, as heir-apparent, to succeed to the regency as a matter of course. This doctrine was now abandoned, and it was, on the contrary, distinctly declared by the members of opposition, that the prince had no right to exercise the royal functions, except such as he derived from the decision of the two estates of parliament.*

After the resolutions proposed by the chancellor of the exchequer regarding the mode of supplying the defect of the personal exercise of the royal authority, had received the sanction of the two estates of the realm, another series of resolutions was brought forward by Mr. Perceval, expressive of the expediency of vesting the royal authority in the Prince of Wales, as "Regent of the Kingdom," subject to certain restrictions and limitations enumerated in those resolutions.†

The members of opposition made a vigorous and formidable stand against the general principle of restrictions, as well as against the particular limitations of the royal power, which ministers proposed to impose upon the regent: in many of the divisions, they were joined by Mr. Canning and Lord Castlereagh, and their respective friends, as well as by other members, who usually voted with ministers, and the existing government carried some of their motions by very small majorities. The proposed exception to the grant of peerages in favour of military officers, was opposed by Lord Grenville, and in this, as in the other restrictions, the precedent of 1788-9 was ultimately adhered to.

* Mr. Ponsonby's speech in the house of commons, Dec. 30th, 1810.

† *Resolutions moved by Mr. PERCEVAL on the 31st of December, 1810.*

I. That for the purpose of providing for the exercise of the royal authority, during the continuance of his majesty's illness, in such manner, and to such extent, as the present circumstances, and the urgent concerns of the nation appear to require, it is expedient that his royal highness the

As soon as parliament had come to the determination to proceed by bill, and not by address, and Mr. Perceval had sketched the plan of his proposed restrictions, he addressed a letter to his royal highness the Prince of Wales, communicating to him his intentions. The prince, in reply, simply and briefly referred Mr. Perceval to the celebrated letter, which, on a similar occasion, he had sent to Mr. Pitt, and in which he had, in a most dignified and powerful strain of argument, protested against the proposed plan of restricted regency, not because it conveyed a reflection on his personal character, but because, in his opinion, it broke through the very essence of the British constitution. His royal highness, however, agreed to accept the high and important trust, even though fettered and limited in such a manner as, in his

Prince of Wales, being resident within the realm, shall be empowered to exercise and to administer the royal authority, according to the laws and constitution of Great Britain, in the name and on behalf of his majesty, and under the style and title of regent of the kingdom; and to use, execute, and perform, in the name and on the behalf of his majesty, all authorities, prerogatives, acts of government, and administration of the same, that belong to the king of this realm, to use, execute, and perform, according to the law thereof, subject to such limitations and exceptions as shall be provided.

II. That the powers to be given to his royal highness the Prince of Wales, shall not extend to the granting of any rank or dignity of the peerage of the realm to any person whatever, except to—(persons who have rendered eminent services to the country by sea or land.)

III. That the said power shall not extend to the granting of any office whatever in reversion or to the granting of any office, salary, or pension, for other terms than during his majesty's pleasure, except such offices as are by law required to be granted for life, or during good behaviour.

IV. That the said power shall not extend to the granting of any part of his majesty's real and personal estate, except as far as relates to the renewal of leases.

V. That the care of his majesty's royal person, during the continuance of his majesty's illness, shall be committed to the queen's most excellent majesty; and that her majesty shall have the power to remove from, and to nominate and appoint such persons as she shall think proper, to the several offices in his majesty's household; and to dispose, order and manage, all other matters and things relating to the care of his majesty's royal person, during the time aforesaid; and that for the better enabling her majesty to discharge this important task, it is also expedient that a council shall be appointed, to advise and assist her majesty in the several matters aforesaid; and with power, from time to time, as they may see cause, to examine, upon oath, the physicians and others attending his majesty's person, touching the state of his majesty's health, and all other matters relating thereto.

The regency bill, of which the above resolutions may be considered as an official abstract, enacted, that the restriction imposed on the executive power as exercised by the prince-regent, should cease on the 1st of February, 1812.

apprehension, might prevent him from fulfilling its duties so completely and beneficially to the nation as he could wish. In these views, the royal brothers of the prince fully concurred, and in a species of extra-official note to the chancellor of the exchequer, entered their protest against a proceeding, which they considered "perfectly unconstitutional, and as contrary to and subversive of the principles which seated their family upon the throne of this realm."

Parliament was opened in the usual form by commission under the great seal, on the 15th of January, 1811. The regency bill, which had passed through the two houses as estates of the realm, was again brought before parliament in its regular and constitutional character; every part of it was again canvassed; and, on every debate and division, the strength and numbers of ministers increased, while the opposition became feeble and languid in their resistance.

It was well known that the political attachments and principles of the prince-regent lay all on the side of Earl Grey and Lord Grenville; and it was naturally expected that the existing administration would be dissolved, and the members who now occupied the opposition benches, taken into power; but the period for the installation was fast approaching, and no arrangements for a new ministry had been made. In the mean time, the malady of the king, after undergoing frequent and great variations, assumed a much more mild and favourable form, and the physicians again pronounced his majesty's complete recovery as not far distant. This circumstance, combined with the difficulty of administering the affairs of government by any other hands than those which would continue to possess, through the

medium of the queen's council,* so large a share of power and patronage of the executive, determined the prince to retain the present ministers. This determination he communicated to Mr. Perceval, in a note, dated the 4th of February; at the same time explicitly and candidly stating to him, that the irresistible impulse of filial duty and affection to his beloved and afflicted father, made him unwilling to do a single act which might retard his recovery; and that this consideration alone had dictated the decision now communicated to Mr. Perceval. He added, that it would not be one of the least blessings that would result from the restoration of his majesty to health and to the personal exercise of his royal functions, that it would rescue the regency from a situation of unexampled embarrassment, and put an end to a state of affairs, ill calculated, he feared, to sustain the interests of the united kingdom in this awful and perilous crisis, and most difficult to be reconciled to the genuine principles of the British constitution. Mr. Perceval, in reply, after stating the readiness of himself and his colleagues to remain in office, lamented that the prince should still regard the restrictions as unconstitutional; but assured him that, even under these restrictions, any ministry, which should possess the confidence and support of his royal highness, would find no difficulty in conducting the affairs of the nation with satisfaction, credit, and success.

By the continuance of the existing administration in office, the sub-division of the sovereign functions, occasioned by the regency-bill, became again united in the executive government; and the prince and his ministers, by contributing their respective portions, preserved, in a considerable degree, the integrity of the sovereign power and influence.

CHAPTER XIII.

FOREIGN HISTORY: Sudden Death of the Crown-prince of Sweden—Marshal Bernadotte elected Crown-prince—Marriage of the Emperor Napoleon to the Archduchess Maria Louise—Rapid Advances made by the Emperor Napoleon towards the Establishment of an absolute Despotism—Decree for the Establishment of State Prisons—for the Registration of Domestic Servants—for restricting the Operations of the Press—Abdication of Louis Bonaparte in favour of his Son—Annexation of Holland and the Hanse Towns to France—Death of the Queen of Prussia—Annexation of Hanover to the Kingdom of Westphalia.

BONAPARTE, by subdividing the states of Europe, gratified the two most prevailing passions of his mind—his ambition and his hatred to England. In this way, he extended his power with his means of annoyance, and he hoped ultimately to obtain a maritime peace, by cutting off the com-

merce of Great Britain from the continent. The annexation of Holland to the French

* The queen's council consisted of eight members, namely: the Archbishops of Canterbury and York; the Duke of Montrose; the Earls of Winchester and Aylesford; Lords Eldon and Ellenborough; and Sir William Grant.

empire, the intermarriage of Napoleon with a princess of the house of Austria, and the extension of his influence in Sweden and along the shores of the German Ocean, emanated from these feelings, and tended to the accomplishment of these purposes.

The possession of Sweden could not be so openly and directly acquired, as the possession of other continental states; but a fortunate conjuncture in public affairs, soon afforded the opportunity of gaining such an influence in that country, as seemed to advance Napoleon's grand scheme of foreign policy. Charles Augustus, Prince of Augustenberg, who had, on the 24th of January, 1810, been elected to the dignity of Crown-prince of Sweden, died suddenly, on the 29th of May, in the same year, while he was reviewing some regiments of cavalry on the Bonorp Heath; and his death was preceded and accompanied by circumstances, which excited in the minds of the populace, a strong and general suspicion, that he had been poisoned. In other times, his death might have appeared perfectly natural, as it probably was; but suspicion fixed upon the two families of Fersen and Piper, who were thought to be jealous of his popularity, and apprehensive that his elevation to the throne would destroy that influence which they had long enjoyed in the government. The interval which elapsed between the death of the prince and his interment, gave time for suspicion to spread; and when the funeral procession arrived at Stockholm, on the 26th of June, the agitation had increased to so alarming a degree, that the populace fell upon Count Axel Fersen, who led the procession in his carriage and six, and actually tore him to pieces. In order to calm this dreadful ferment, a proclamation was issued by the king, and measures were adopted by the government to remove the suspicions of the people, by an open judicial inquiry into the cause of the death of their favourite. A reward of twenty thousand rix dollars, was also offered to any person who would give such evidence, touching the supposed murder, as would convict the offender, whatever might be his rank or description. The result of the examination was, that the crown-prince had died a natural death, by a fit of apoplexy; and public tranquillity being in a few days restored, the attention of the inhabitants of Sweden, as well as of a great part of Europe, was fixed on the choice that was about to be made of his successor.

On the 15th of August, the four estates of Sweden were assembled at Orebro, for the purpose of electing a crown-prince, or

heir-apparent to the Swedish throne. The four candidates who aspired to this honour, were, Frederick VI. King of Denmark; the Prince of Oldenburg, son of Gustavus Adolphus, the late king; the Prince of Augustenburg, brother to the deceased crown-prince; and the French Marshal Bernadotte, Prince of Ponte Corvo. Bonaparte, in a letter addressed to the diet, declared his determination not to interfere in the election; the pleasure of the French emperor was sufficiently understood, and Charles XIII. in an address to that assembly, delivered on the 18th, stated "that the duty he owed to his country, induced him to propose to the assembled states of the empire, his serene highness Jean Baptiste Julian Bernadotte, Prince of Ponte Corvo, as Crown-prince of Sweden, and his royal majesty's successor to the Swedish throne." After a short deliberation, the diet unanimously acceded to the recommendation of their sovereign; and thus, Marshal Bernadotte, a man who had entered the ranks of the French army at the age of fifteen, became in the 48th year of his age, the presumptive heir to the crown of Sweden. The Swedish nation, exhausted by war, and oppressed with the expense and misery it had occasioned, either took no lively interest in passing events, or felt no indisposition to the election of a general, who, from his connexion with Bonaparte, would probably preserve them in future peace with the powers of the continent.

Early in the month of October, Bernadotte proceeded to Sweden; and on the 1st of November, he addressed the king, and the estates of the realm, in a complimentary speech, unfolding views of government, and maxims of policy, worthy of a statesman and a sage: "Gentlemen, deputies of the nobility, the clergy, the burghers, and the peasants," said he, "sound policy, that which alone the laws of God authorize, must be founded upon justice and truth: such are the principles of the king; they shall also be mine. I have beheld war close at hand, I know its desolating properties; there is nothing which can console a country for the blood of its children shed in a foreign land. Peace is the first object of a wise and enlightened government. It is not the extent of a state which constitutes its force and independence; it is its laws, its industry, its commerce, and above all, its natural spirit. Sweden, it is true, has sustained great losses, but the honour of the Swedish nation has not suffered the least attain. Let us submit, gentlemen, to the decrees of Providence, and let us

recollect that they have left us a soil sufficient to support our wants, and iron to defend it."

From this moment, Charles John, the official name given to the crown-prince, may be considered as the efficient ruler of Sweden. Adverse to open and actual hostility with Great Britain, he continued for some time to permit the commercial intercourse to be carried on between the two countries; and when, in the month of December, war was declared against England, the Swedish declaration of war contained a frank, and almost explicit avowal that this resolution was taken at the instigation of Bonaparte.

The Emperor Napoleon, taking council of his vanity, sought a family alliance with the royal house of Austria; and Marshal Berthier, the Prince of Neufchatel, was despatched on a special mission to Vienna, to demand the Archduchess Maria Louisa in marriage. The princess, exulting in the conquest of the conqueror of the world, was easily won;* and her royal father had penetration enough to perceive, that, by this union, he should be enabled either to participate in the glory and prosperity of Napoleon, or to recover his lost dominions by precipitating his fall, if adversity should overtake him. The council of Vienna, influenced by the interests of state, removed the scruples of the father, by dwelling upon the duties of the sovereign; and moderated the emperor's feelings of humility, by unveiling to him the future, and exulting upon the advantages of the proposed alliance. On Bonaparte himself, this alliance operated as a sort of talisman: it obscured all objects, unsettled his judgment, and introduced contrarieties into his whole system of government. Many of his own court, and those near his person, partook of the infatuation of their sovereign, and those who perceived the snare into which he was advancing, wanted courage to exhibit to him the consequences of his new engagements with Austria.

The marriage ceremony, in which the Archduke Charles, as the proxy of Napo-

leon, received the hand of his august relative, was performed on the 11th of March, at Vienna, in the church of the Augustines, and in the presence of the Emperor and Empress of Austria. On the 13th, the Empress and Queen, Maria Louisa, left Vienna, and on the 27th, she arrived at Compeigne, where she was met by the emperor. From Vienna to Paris, the road by which the princess advanced, seemed strewn with flowers; and this alliance afforded an inexhaustible source of amusement and gayety to the volatile French and the stately German nations. On the 1st of April, the civil ceremony of the celebration and ratification of the marriage of the emperor with the Princess Maria Louisa, took place in the hall of Mars, in the imperial chateau of St. Cloud; and on the following day the religious ceremony was performed by the grand almoner and two assistant bishops, in the chapel of the Louvre. To mark the epoch of this marriage by acts of indulgence and benevolence, Bonaparte presented a free pardon to all deserters from the French armies, previous to the year 1806, and to all others on immediately joining their corps; all unpaid fines imposed by the judgment of the police were remitted; six thousand girls, each portioned by the state with from six to twelve thousand francs, were to be married to as many retired soldiers of their communes; and twelve thousand dishes of meat, twelve thousand loaves of bread, and a hundred and forty-four pipes of wine, were ordered to be distributed by lottery among the poor.

The most splendid rejoicings, illuminations, concerts, and festivals, took place on this important occasion. But a great calamity occurred, which threw a shade over those demonstrations of joy. Prince Schwarzenberg had given a distinguished ball, when unhappily the dancing room, which was temporary, and erected in the garden, caught fire. No efforts could stop the progress of the flames, in which several persons perished, and particularly the sister of Prince Schwarzenberg himself. This tragic occurrence struck a damp on the public mind, and was considered as a bad omen, especially when it was remembered that the marriage of Louis XVI. with a former Princess of Austria had been signalized by a similar disaster.

The day after their marriage, Napoleon and Maria Louisa received the felicitations of the senate, and the great public officers of the state. "Sire," said the president to the emperor, "Europe contemplates with rapture the august daughter of the sovereign of Austria on the glorious throne of Napoleon. Providence, in reserving

* It was at first generally, indeed almost universally imagined, that the archduchess was an unwilling, though resigned victim to the preservation of her family—another virgin of Gilead, obedient to the calls of filial reverence and duty; but no supposition could be more erroneous. It soon appeared how much of the blood of the Lorraines flowed in her veins; she was gay, lively, and almost playful; and so early did she begin to identify herself with the French nation, and to exult in the glory of her future lord, that, according to the foreign journals, she one day, before she left Vienna, hastened eagerly into her father's apartment, and announced to him a French victory in the peninsula, by exclaiming in a tone of triumph, "We have obtained great advantages in Spain."

for you this illustrious spouse, has been pleased to manifest more and more that you have been born for the happiness of nations, and to secure the repose of the world." The orator next addressing the empress, said: "Madame, the shouts of joy which have everywhere accompanied your majesty's steps; that concert of benedictions, which still echoes from Vienna to Paris, are the faithful expressions of the sentiments of the people. The senate comes to offer to your majesty testimonies of homage not less ardent—not less sincere. The imperial crown, which sparkles on your brow, and that other crown of graces and virtues which tempers and softens the lustre of its rays, attract towards you the hearts of thirty million of Frenchmen, who make it their joy and pride to salute you by the name of their sovereign. The French, whom you have adopted, and to whom, by the most sacred of promises, you have vowed the sentiments of a tender mother, you will find worthy of your kind regard. You will more and more cherish this good and tender-hearted people, who always feel an anxious wish to love those who govern them, and to place affection and honour by the side of zeal and obedience. The sentiments which we have the happiness to express to your majesty, are, under the guarantee of heaven, like that sacred oath which has for ever united the great and splendid destinies of Napoleon and Maria Louisa."

As a domestic occurrence, nothing could more contribute to Napoleon's happiness than his union with Maria Louisa. He was accustomed to compare her with Josephine, by giving the latter all the advantages of art and grace; the former, the charms of simple modesty and innocence. His former empress used every art to support or enhance her personal charms; but with so much prudence and mystery, that the secret cares of her toilette could never be traced; her successor trusted for the power of pleasing, to youth and nature. Josephine mismanaged her revenue, and incurred debt without scruple. Maria Louisa lived within her income, or if she desired any indulgence beyond it, which was rarely the case, she asked it as a favour from Napoleon. Josephine, accustomed to political intrigue, loved to manage, to influence, and to guide her husband; Maria Louisa desired only to please and to obey him: both were excellent women, of great sweetness of temper, and fondly attached to Napoleon.

From the moment that Bonaparte contemplated this new family alliance, additional encroachments upon the liberties of

his country seemed also to have been contemplated; and no year in the whole course of his memorable reign presents such flagrant instances of a rapid advance towards absolute despotism, as the year of his marriage. Besides the various decrees issued with the hope of preventing the introduction of British merchandise into France, and which from the very nature of commerce, must have operated as much to the injury of the French merchant as to that of the British exporter, he struck more directly and fatally at the liberty of the subject by his decrees for regulating state prisons, registering domestic servants, and restricting the operations of the press.

The decree regarding state prisons, which assumed the specious title of a law for the relief of certain state prisoners in France, established eight state prisons in different parts of the empire; and it was explicitly declared that there were many persons in France accused of various crimes against the state, whom it was neither safe to liberate nor to bring to trial. But the emperor, in order to assure himself that none of his subjects were immured in these prisons, except for lawful causes, directed "that the state prisons should be subject to a monthly inspection by commissioners, and that all such persons should be discharged as were not detained strictly according to law." This mode of relieving state prisoners was, in effect, a permanent suspension, or a total abrogation, of the principle of the law of *Habeas Corpus*; and under this system, every man who had the misfortune to incur the suspicion of government, might be shut up in prison and kept in that situation without ever being brought to trial, or even put upon his justification before a legitimate tribunal.

The decree for the registration of servants advanced another step towards the establishment of despotic power. By this imperial edict, issued on the 3d of October, all domestic servants in Paris, of both sexes, under whatever denomination they served, and whether their engagements were by the year, month, or even day, were to have their name, place of birth, employment and description, inserted in a register, kept by the prefect of police, together with the name of the person whom they served. The servants were to be furnished each with a counter-ticket, corresponding to the register; and all, who, within a month, failed thus to inscribe their names, subjected themselves to imprisonment for a period, not less than eight days, or more than three months. No person was permitted to take into his employment any domestic without a card of inscription; and this card was to be delivered

into the hands of the master, who was bound to notify upon it the day of the departure of his servant, and to transmit the card to the prefecture of police. The discarded servant was also bound to repair to the prefecture within forty-eight hours, to declare what course he meant to pursue, and to receive the card again. Servants were forbidden to hire any apartment without the knowledge of their master or the prefect; and every servant out of place for more than a month, who could not give a satisfactory account of his means of subsistence, was obliged to depart from Paris under pain of punishment as a vagrant. This decree, although professedly applicable only to servants, extended in its operations to masters, and the intercourse it opened between domestics and the police afforded an admirable opportunity for placing all the families in Paris under a species of *espionage*, or menial inspection.

Several imperial decrees were issued in the course of the present year, for the purpose of reducing the number of printers and booksellers in France, and for subjecting the press to a rigid system of censorship. By these decrees, a director-general was appointed, under the order of the minister of the interior, charged with the superintendence of every thing relating to the printing and publication of books. The number of printers in each department was limited, and the printers in Paris reduced to sixty. The printing of any thing contrary to the duty which the subject owes to the sovereign or to the state, was prohibited, and offenders against this law exposed themselves to the punishments of the penal code. All manuscripts intended for publication were made subject to a previous inspection, when the censor was to point out to the author such alterations or erasures as he should think proper; if the author refused to agree to these alterations, the sale of his work was to be inhibited, the forms broken, and possession taken of the sheets or copies printed. All booksellers were directed to take out a license, and no license was to be granted to any person wishing to begin the business of a bookseller, but such as should have recommended themselves by their good character, and an attachment to their sovereign and to their country. Only one newspaper was to be published in any of the departments, except the Seine; and all the newspapers in France were placed under the authority of the prefects, and were never to be published without their approbation.

These measures, no doubt, diminished the attachment of the people of France to the emperor, and would probably in their ultimate consequence have undermined his

throne; for enigmatical as it may appear, it is an unquestionable fact, resting upon the authority of all history, that every blow directed against the liberties of a nation has a tendency to recoil upon the hand that inflicts it; and those measures, which at first seem to strengthen the government of a tyrant, seldom fail to overthrow the fabric of despotism, which, by a short-sighted policy, they are intended to uphold.

From the period when the house of Orange was deprived of its hereditary power, the Dutch people had maintained a strict alliance with France; their government had been changed in obsequious imitation of every change in that country; they had lost their colonies and their commerce by their fidelity to their new allies, and they had at last accepted as a sovereign the brother of the French emperor. They had been fortunate in the king which it had pleased Napoleon to place over them; Louis Bonaparte took a deep interest in their sufferings, and the manner in which he attempted to soften those measures which oppressed the Dutch nation, and paralyzed the public exertions, won the affections of his subjects. In the war waged by France against the commercial prosperity, and the maritime greatness, of England, it became peculiarly necessary that Holland should lend her cordial co-operation. The coast of that country, indented by rivers and inlets, and placed at a distance of only a few hours sail from England, presented innumerable opportunities for the infraction of the continental system. The character and necessities of the Dutch—a nation indebted to commerce for the very land they inhabit, who had been nurtured in trade till it had become their second nature, and who foresaw in the accomplishment of Bonaparte's schemes, the overthrow of their ancient habits and pursuits, operated powerfully against the project for the total exclusion of British commerce, and induced Napoleon to issue the most strict and peremptory orders to Louis to enforce his decrees with rigour. For a short time, these orders were obeyed, but the wretchedness which everywhere presented itself, and the numerous and urgent petitions of the sufferers, so far prevailed in the mind of Louis over every consideration of state policy, that he threw open the Dutch ports, and repealed his decrees against commerce. This conduct of the tributary sovereign of Holland, was highly resented by the French emperor; and Louis at length, finding that all his endeavours and sacrifices on behalf of the Dutch nation were unavailing, abdicated his throne in favour of his eldest son,

Louis Napoleon. This act of abdication, which bore date the 1st of July, not having been previously concerted with Bonaparte, was declared invalid; and on the 9th day of the same month, an imperial decree was issued from Paris, by which the kingdom of Holland was united to the French empire. The annexation of Holland to France was stated to be the necessary consequence of the union of Belgium to that empire,—“It completes,” says the Duke of Cadore, the French minister, in a report made to Napoleon, “your majesty’s empire, as well as the execution of your system of war, policy, and trade. It is the first, but a necessary step, to the restoration of your navy; in fact, it is the heaviest blow that your majesty could inflict upon the navy and commerce of England.” The next act of usurpation consisted in the annexation of the Hanse towns to France. “The orders published by the British consul in 1806 and 1807 had,” it was said, “rent in pieces the public law of Europe, and created the necessity for the junction of the mouths of the Scheldt, the Meuse, the Rhine, the Ems, the Weser, and the Elbe, to the French empire.”* Thus,

after having extorted immense contributions from the imperial cities of Hamburg, Lubeck, and Bremen, for the support of the French armies, the guilt of these acts of rapacity was consummated by a decree depriving them of their independence.

In the course of the present year, Frederick William of Prussia returned to his capital, after a long and afflictive absence. The queen, whose high spirit had been broken by the disasters of her country, languished till the 19th of July, when she expired in the prime of life. The loss of a beloved consort, not less distinguished for her domestic virtues than for her personal charms, almost overpowered the disconsolate monarch, and he was with difficulty prevailed upon to abandon a resolution which he had taken to quit the affairs of state, and to seek in retirement and seclusion a solace for his accumulated distresses. Absorbed in these feelings, he saw, without emotion, the electorate of Hanover, once so highly valued by him as to be placed in competition with the safety of Europe, pass into the hands of Jerome Bonaparte, and become an integral part of the kingdom of Westphalia.

CHAPTER XIV.

NAVAL AND COLONIAL CAMPAIGN: Gallant Exploit performed by a small British Squadron under Captain Hoste—Destruction of the Enemy’s Ships in the Bay of Sagone—Descent on the Coast of Naples—Capture and Destruction of the Enemy’s Convoys on the Coasts of Calabria, Normandy, and the Adriatic Sea—Capture of a French Convoy within the Mouth of the Gironde—Desperate Action in the Indian Seas—Dreadful Shipwrecks—Surrender of the Island of Java, the last of the Enemy’s Colonies in the East Indies—The actuating Motives of the Policy of the French Government—Energy in the Naval Department—Substitutes for Colonial Produce—State of the Gallican Church—System of National Education—Birth of the King of Rome.

THE year 1811, though not characterized by the fall of empires, was by no means destitute of events calculated to render this portion of history interesting to the present, and memorable in future ages. On the continent of Europe, the germ of a tremendous contest had already begun to take root; and the long-pending differences between the European powers and the United States of America, assumed an aspect that portended an approaching storm. In the peninsula of Spain and Portugal, the war still continued to rage with undiminished fury, and with various and dubious success; while the navy of England, finding no adequate antagonist on the ocean, was obliged to satisfy itself with those minor exploits which occasionally presented themselves, but in which

the skill and superiority of the lords of the ocean were always sufficiently conspicuous.

Early in the month of March, a small English squadron, under the command of Captain Hoste, consisting of the *Amphion* and *Cerberus*, each of thirty-two guns, and of the *Active* and *Volage*, the former of thirty-eight, and the latter of twenty-two guns, discovered off the island of Lissa, in the Italian seas, a French squadron of five frigates, one corvette, four brigs, two schooners, and two smaller vessels, commanded by Captain Dubordieu. On the approach of the English fleet, the enemy formed themselves into two divisions, and bore down under a press of sail, in order to carry into effect the British system of tactics, by breaking their adversary’s line. This attempt having failed of success, the French commodore, who led the van in the *Favourite*, of forty-four

* Message of Napoleon to the senate, dated Dec. 10, 1810.

guns, attempted to place the English squadron between two fires, but while he was manœuvring for this purpose, his ship approached too near the shore, and was driven on the rocks of Lissa. The enemy, undismayed by the fate of their commodore, persisted in the attempt to place the British between two fires, and the starboard division having passed under the stern of the British ships, engaged them to leeward, while the larboard division tacked and remained to windward. Though the enemy displayed more than their accustomed skill on this occasion, and followed up that skill with a considerable share of activity and bravery, yet they made no impression on the British squadron; but on the contrary, after the battle had raged about two hours, the two French frigates to the leeward struck their colours. Those who had tacked to the windward, seeing the fate of their companions, endeavoured to escape, but they were closely pursued, and one of them was compelled to surrender, leaving Captain Hoste in possession of the *Corona*, of forty-four guns, and the *Bellona*, of thirty-two guns. Besides these vessels, the *Favourite*, which had driven on the rocks, shortly afterwards blew up, while the corvette and two frigates took shelter in the port of Lessina. At the time that the *Flora*, Captain Peridier, which was one of the frigates to leeward, struck her colours, the *Amphion*, to whom she surrendered, was so closely engaged with the *Bellona*, that Captain Hoste could not spare a boat to take possession of his prize, and the *Flora*, availing herself of this circumstance, took an opportunity to rehoist her colours, and dishonourably to sheer off. After this most gallant action, Captain Hoste had the gratification to find that the vanquished fleet had on board five hundred troops for the purpose of garrisoning the island of Lissa, together with every thing necessary for its fortification; and an additional share of splendour was shed round the glory of this enterprise, by the entire defeat of the enemy's intention to possess himself of that island. The loss of the English on this occasion amounted to fifty killed, and one hundred and fifty wounded, but when the superiority of the enemy's strength is considered, that loss will not be thought disproportioned to the nature of the contest in which the squadron was engaged.

Another gallant service was performed in the Mediterranean sea by the *Pomone* and *Unite* frigates, and the *Scout* sloop of war, under the command of Captain Barrie. This officer had received information that the enemy had three large vessels lying in

Sagone bay, in the island of Corsica, and though the position they occupied was rendered strong both by nature and art, he determined to lose no time in making the attack. This resolution he was led to adopt from a knowledge that the enemy's vessels were taking in timber for the use of the shipyards at Toulon, and from being well aware that if these vessels could be taken or destroyed, the progress of the ships of war now building in that port would be arrested. On the 30th of April Captain Barrie, with his small squadron, arrived in the bay, and on approaching the coast, he observed that the enemy, who had posted himself on the heights, was prepared to receive and repel his attack. On these heights, were stationed two hundred regular troops, with field pieces, and a great number of armed inhabitants; while the battery that commanded the entrance to the port was provided with four guns, and an adjoining martello tower, with a large piece of ordnance. Under this protection, the enemy's ships were moored within cable's length of the battery, and their broadside towards the sea. At six o'clock in the evening, the action commenced, and about half-past seven one of the enemy's vessels was observed to be on fire; shortly afterwards, the other two were in the same situation, and by the determined and persevering efforts of the assailants, the battery and tower were completely silenced. Thus in the short space of two hours, this gallant enterprise was achieved, with the very trifling loss of two men killed, and nineteen wounded.

Several other exploits, equally indicative of the superiority of the British navy, were performed during the present year: on the coast of Calabria, a convoy of two-and-twenty sail were attacked and captured by his majesty's ships, the *Thames*, Captain Napier, and the *Cephalus*, Captain Clifford, along with eleven French gun-boats, and one armed felucca, without the loss of a single man. At Palinura, on the coast of Naples, a detachment of two hundred men, under the command of Captain Darley, disembarked from on board the *Thames* and *Imperieuse* frigates, with fifty marines, commanded by Lieutenant Pipon, landed in the face of nine hundred of the enemy; and, after destroying the batteries and cannon of the fort, captured and brought off six gun-boats, and twenty merchant vessels. The capture and destruction of an entire convoy in the Adriatic sea, was effected by Captain Gordon, of the *Active*; and about the same time, Captain Bourshier, of his majesty's ship the *Hawke*, succeeded, after a desperate engagement,

in driving two of the enemy's brigs, and two luggers, with fifteen of their convoy, on shore on the coast of Normandy.

In the month of August, an enterprise, in which both courage and stratagem were successfully employed, was undertaken at the mouth of the Gironde, by Captain Ferris, of the *Diana*, and Captain Richardson, of the *Semiramis*. Perceiving four sail of merchant vessels, under convoy of a national brig of war, within the shoals of the mouth of that river, and aware that no forcible attempt could be made to pass the river and carry the vessels with any prospect of success, the British captains hoisted French colours, and so completely did they deceive the enemy, that a pilot was sent out to conduct them into port. With this assistance, the *Diana* and the *Semiramis* anchored, after dark, near the batteries at the mouth of the Gironde, when Captain Ferris despatched three boats from his vessel, which being seconded by four others from the *Semiramis*, proceeded up the river about the middle of the night of the 24th, and captured the convoy. In the morning, the enemy's gun-boats were attacked and destroyed; and Captain Richardson, as if in contempt of their batteries, drove the armed brig on shore, and burned her under the fire of their cannon.

Soon after the capture of the Isle of France, three French frigates,* full of troops, intended for the succour of that colony, were known to be in the Indian seas; and the *Astræa*, *Phœbe*, and *Galatæa* frigates, with the *Race-horse* brig, were despatched in quest of them. On the 19th of May, the enemy, who had put into Madagascar to water, was discovered off the coast of that island. After a chase continued for ten hours, the French frigates were brought to action, and for some time the battle raged with so much fury that one of the frigates on each side was completely disabled, and obliged to withdraw from the contest. The battle recommenced by the *Astræa* pouring a destructive broadside into the French commodore's ship, *La Renommée*: instead of returning this fire, the commodore ordered his men to board the *Astræa*, but owing to the skilful manoeuvres of the British captain, and the gallant conduct of his crew, this attempt was completely frustrated. Night had now closed upon the conflicting squadrons, and the dismal gloom was interrupted only by the vivid flashes of the cannon, which served to impart a degree of awful sublimity to the surrounding scene. At length,

after a most gallant resistance, the French commodore's ship struck her colours, and the *Clorinde*, finding herself completely overpowered, followed her example. In this action, which from its commencement to its close continued seven hours, and was four times renewed, the enemy lost upwards of two hundred men killed and wounded, amongst the former of whom were the captains of the *Nereide* and the *Renommée*. The loss of the British was also severe, and amounted to more than one hundred killed and wounded, sixty of whom were on board the *Galatæa*.

The state of the maritime warfare between Great Britain and France, had, as has been already observed, now become of such a nature that no actions on a grand and imposing scale, where fleets are engaged, and where nations hang in anxious suspense on the result, were any longer to be expected. The time for these stupendous conflicts, had gone past; but the minor sea-fights of the period now under review, are by no means beneath the notice of the historian, and the opportunities they afforded for the display of nautical skill, courage, and enterprise, are perhaps no way inferior to those presented by the glorious battles of Camperdown and Trafalgar.

The elements, more destructive than the enemy, inflicted a severe loss upon the British navy during the winter of the present year. On the night of the 4th of December, the *Saldanha* frigate, of 32 guns, commanded by the Honourable Captain Pakenham, was lost off Lough Swilly, on the coast of Ireland, and every soul on board perished. On the 23d of the same month, his majesty's ship the *Hero*, Captain Newman, of 74 guns, with a convoy of a hundred and twenty sail of merchantmen under his protection, was overtaken by a dreadful gale in the German ocean, and driven on the Haak Sand, off the Texel, where both ship and crew were engulfed in the watery abyss. Many of the convoy rode out the storm, but upwards of twenty of the number shared the deplorable fate of the *Hero* and her crew. On the fatal night of the 24th of December, the *St. George*, of 98 guns, commanded by Admiral Reynolds, and the *Defence*, of 74 guns, under the command of Captain Atkins, after encountering severe storms in the Baltic, were both stranded on the western coast of North Jutland. The *Defence* first took the ground, and in less than half an hour became a complete wreck, when the captain and all her crew, six only excepted, perished. For some hours, the *St. George* continued to brave the

* The *Renommée*, the *Nereide*, and the *Clorinde*.

storm, and the most persevering exertions were made to afford her succour from the shore, but all these humane efforts proved unavailing. Of the whole crew, which amounted to nearly eight hundred men, eleven only succeeded in gaining the land; and when the last of them left the *St. George*, in the afternoon of the 25th, Admiral Reynolds and Captain Guion were stretched dead upon the quarter-deck, along with at least five hundred of the crew. At that time about fifty of the ship's company remained alive, and their piteous cries were heard for several hours, but during the night of the 26th the ship went to pieces, and at once extinguished their hopes and terminated their sufferings.

Lord Minto, the Governor-general of India, under whose auspices and direction the conquests of the Isle of Bourbon and the Isle of France were achieved, had formed a plan for adding Java, "the most precious gem in the diadem of the Dutch East India Company," to the British colonial empire. Batavia, the capital of this settlement, had long been the principal seat of the Dutch government of the east; and from this station the mother-country had, in the days of her independence and prosperity, derived great wealth and many commercial advantages. The paralyzing influence of French alliance had latterly diminished the importance of this colony, but it still served as a shelter and protection to the cruisers of the enemy, and interposed as a barrier in the way of the trade of the British East India Company between Hindostan and China. The enemy, fully aware of the intended attack on this island, was indefatigable in his endeavours to protect and defend his only remaining colony in the east; and with this view a force of ten thousand men was collected, and placed under the command of General Jansens, an officer of tried courage, and well acquainted with the tactics of India.

In the month of March, a body of troops, destined for this expedition, were encamped at Madras, consisting of his majesty's 14th, 59th, and 69th regiments of foot, four squadrons of the 22d dragoons, two squadrons of horse, and a party of foot artillery, along with a considerable portion of native troops. This force was to be joined on its passage by the 78th regiment from Bengal, and the chief command of the expedition was vested in Sir Samuel Auchmuty, a general who had rendered himself honourably conspicuous in an opposite hemisphere. The magnitude of the preparations delayed the departure of the expedition till the approach of the monsoons; but Lord Minto, who accompanied the

fleet, avoided the apprehended danger by judiciously profiting by the land winds, and striking from the south-west point of Sambhar to the coast of Java. After maturely weighing the different plans for debarking the army, Sir Samuel Auchmuty resolved to effect a landing in the immediate vicinity of Batavia, and accordingly, on the 4th of August, the troops were debarked about twelve miles to the east of that city. The force of the enemy had taken up a strongly fortified position at Cornelis, and thither the British general determined to proceed without loss of time, having previously taken possession of Batavia, which surrendered to Colonel Gillespie without resistance.

Thus far the object of the expedition had been attained, and the capture of the capital promised to forward and assist the ulterior operations. The enemy, before he evacuated the city, had set fire to several large store-houses of public property, and had attempted to destroy the remainder; but many of the valuable granaries and store-houses of sugar, which had been laid open to the weather, in hopes that the rain might so far injure the stocks as to render them unfit for use, were happily preserved. Early in the morning of the 13th, Colonel Gillespie moved towards the enemy's cantonment at Weltevrede, which they abandoned on his approach, and took up a strong position about two miles in advance of their works at Cornelis. This fort, which was protected by an *abatis*, and defended by three thousand of the enemy's best troops, Colonel Gillespie carried at the point of the bayonet, and thence advanced to the front of the lines at Cornelis.

Hitherto, a degree of success, exceeding the most sanguine expectations, had attended the expedition, but the further progress of the army now became extremely difficult, and the obstacles that presented themselves shook the confidence of the British general. The enemy, greatly superior in numbers, was strongly intrenched between the river Jacatra and the Sloken canal, neither of which were fordable, and the position was shut up by a deep trench, strongly palisadoed; seven redoubts and numerous batteries, mounted with heavy cannon, occupied the most commanding ground within the lines; and the fort of Cornelis, and the whole of the works, were defended by a numerous and well organized artillery. By these works it was thought, that the British army would be delayed, and their destruction might then be safely left to the operation of a climate the most pestilential in the world. Sir Samuel Auchmuty well understood the danger of delay, and the consequent neces-

sity of promptitude of action. The season was too far advanced, the heat too intense, and his numbers insufficient, to admit of regular approaches; he therefore determined upon an assault, and for the purpose of disabling the principal redoubts of the enemy, batteries were erected, which continued to play upon their works till this object was fully accomplished.

The moment had now arrived for the general assault, and accordingly, at the dawn of day on the morning of the 26th, this hazardous, but indispensably necessary operation was undertaken. In this attack, as in the preliminary enterprise, the principal duty was assigned to Colonel Gillespie. General Jansens was in the redoubt when the assault commenced. Colonel Gillespie having taken possession almost instantaneously of the bridge over the Sloken, attacked and carried one of the redoubts within the lines. Part of the colonel's corps being now joined by a portion of the army which had attacked the enemy in front, the united force assailed and carried another of the redoubts. Similar success attended the corps under Colonel M'Leod, of the 69th regiment, who fell in the moment of victory, and four redoubts within the lines were now in the possession of the British. The front of the enemy was also routed, and their position at that point laid open. The only redoubts now possessed by the enemy, lay in his rear, and to those Colonel Gillespie, being joined by Colonel M'Leod, of the 59th regiment, directed his attention. Here, was posted the greater part of the enemy's artillery, surrounded and protected by their cavalry; the redoubts, however, were carried in the same heroic style as those in advance,—their artillery was captured, and their cavalry compelled to fly. Soon afterwards, Cornelis surrendered; and in this engagement the whole of the hostile army was killed, taken, or dispersed.

General Jansens, who had thrice rallied his retreating troops, escaped with difficulty from the field, followed only by a few cavalry. The loss of the enemy in these different actions, was immense—about a thousand men were buried in the works; vast numbers were cut down in the retreat; the rivers were literally choked with the bodies of the slain, and the adjacent huts and woods were filled with the wounded, most of whom afterwards died. Nearly five thousand prisoners were taken, among whom were three general officers and thirty-six field officers; and the number of artillery and field-pieces, taken in this memorable campaign, amounted to more than seven hundred. No day was ever more bravely won, nor was there ever

a victory more complete. Such a conquest could not be achieved without considerable loss on the part of the victors; and twenty-seven native troops, and one hundred and fourteen British, killed, and one hundred and twenty-three natives, and six hundred and ten British, wounded, was the price paid for the island of Java.

As soon as these conquests were secured, and the British army had recovered from their fatigue, a body of troops was embarked on board the ships of the fleet, under Rear-admiral Stopford, and ordered to proceed to Samerang, where they were joined by Sir Samuel Auchmuty. General Jansens, who had retired to that town, answered a summons sent to him to surrender the island, by expressing a determination to persevere in his resistance; but, on the 12th of September, it was discovered that he had evacuated the place, and taken up a position on the road to Solo, the capital of the Soesoehoenam, or Autocrat. This position Colonel Gibbs was directed to attack on the 16th; but the allies and native troops of the enemy had no zeal in the service, and dreading the attack of men who had displayed such prodigies of valour at Cornelis, they fled at their approach, leaving the road covered with the equipments which they had thrown away in their retreat.—Early in the night, a flag of truce arrived from General Jansens, with an offer to surrender, and a negotiation was immediately entered into, which terminated in a capitulation, by which the the Dutch general and all his remaining troops surrendered prisoners of war. The overthrow of the Dutch empire in the east, was thus completed, and, “by the successive reduction of the French islands and of Java, the British nation was left without either an enemy or a rival from the Cape of Good Hope to Cape Horn.”*

It had now become the leading feature of the policy of the Emperor Napoleon, to make himself master of all the seaports in the countries accessible to his power, for the double purpose of excluding English commerce from the continent, and of creating a navy capable of contending with the maritime power of Great Britain. Ancient maxims of government, when standing in the way of this policy, he considered as antiquated illusions; and, in calling upon the conservative senate to ratify the decree for the annexation of Holland and the Hanse towns to the French territory, the government orator informed them, “that those times were passed when the conception of some statesmen gave authority in the public opinion, to the system of

* Lord Minto.

balances, of guarantees, of counterpoises, and of political equilibrium. Pompous illusions," exclaimed he, "of cabinets of the second order, visions of imbecility, which all disappear before necessity,—that power which regulates the duration and the mutual relation of empires. Holland, like the Hanse towns, would remain the prey of uncertainty, of dangers, of revolutions, of oppression of every kind, if the genius who decides the destinies of Europe, did not cover her with her invincible *agis*." Adverting next to the contest between France and England, the reporter says,—“It is no longer two armies who combat on the plains of Fontenoy; it is the empire of the seas which still resists that of the continent—a memorable, a terrible struggle, the catastrophe of which, now perhaps not far distant, will long occupy the attention of future generations. If England had not rejected the counsels and offers of moderation, what dreadful consequences might she have avoided? She would not have forced France to enrich herself by the ports and arsenals of Holland; the Ems, the Weeser, and the Elbe, would not have flowed under our dominion; and we should not have been the first country of the Gauls washed by rivers, united by an internal navigation to seas which were unknown to them. Where still are the boundaries of possibility? Let England answer this question. Let her meditate on the past: let her learn the future. France and Napoleon will never change!”

The annexation of Holland and the Hanse towns to France was accompanied by a law of marine conscription, by which it was enacted, that in the thirty maritime districts of the empire the conscription should be devoted to the recruiting of the navy, and that ten thousand conscripts of each of the classes of the years of 1813, 1814, 1815, and 1816, should be immediately placed at the disposal of the minister of marine. In every branch of the naval department, the most strenuous exertions were made to secure the “liberty of the seas,” and in the port of Antwerp alone twenty ships of the line were upon the stocks at one time, eight of which number were three-deckers.

In the mean time, the want of colonial produce was felt as a severe inconvenience in every part of the widely extended dominion of France; peas, beans, and lupens were dried for coffee, the *astragalus baticus* was cultivated in great quantities in Moravia, for the same purpose; and the leaves of the horn-bean were dried for tea, and scented with the roots of the Florence Iris. One experimentalist transmitted to the ministers of the interior, samples of

sugar extracted from raisins, and another obtained a similar substance from chesnuts; and a Brest it was discovered that “palm seaweed, when dried, contained sugar as well as salt, which did not indeed crystallize like that of the cane, but which had nearly as pleasant a flavour, and had moreover the advantage of being perfectly white.” No sooner did any experiment promise success, than the law was called in to its aid, and in pursuance of this policy, an edict was issued directing that a certain quantity of ground should be appropriated in each department to the culture of the beet root for sugar, and of woad for indigo. “The discovery of the needle,” it was said, “produced a revolution in commerce; the use of honey gave way to that of sugar; the use of woad to that of indigo; but the progress of chymistry operating a revolution in an inverse direction, had arrived at the extraction of sugar from the grape, the maple, and the beet root; and by extracting a residuum from the woad of Languedoc and Italy, has given it the advantage over indigo in price and in quality.”

Two subjects of essential importance to the interests of every community occupied this year a prominent situation in the annual exposition of the French empire—the state of the national religion, and a system of public education. On the first of these subjects, Bonaparte touched in his speech to the legislative body.* “The affairs of religion,” said he, “have been too often mixed in, and sacrificed to the interests of a state of the third order. If half of Europe have separated from the church of Rome, we may attribute it especially to the contradiction which has never ceased to exist between the truths and the principles of religion which belong to the whole universe, and the pretensions and interests which regarded only a very small corner of Italy. I have put an end to this scandal for ever. I have united Rome to the empire. I have given palaces to the popes, at Rome and at Paris; if they have at heart the interest of religion, they will often sojourn in the centre of the affairs of Christianity. It was thus that St. Peter preferred Rome to an abode even in the Holy Land.” Of the disorganized situation of the Gallican church, owing to the existing differences between Pope Pius VII. and the Emperor Napoleon, the following picture was exhibited by the organ of government:† “Twenty-seven bishoprics have been for a long time vacant, and the pope, having refused at two different

* June 16, 1811.

† Exposition of the state of the French empire in 1811.

periods, from 1805 to 1807, and from 1808 to the present moment, to execute the clauses of the concordat, which bind him to institute the bishops nominated by the emperor; this refusal has nullified the concordat—it no longer exists. The emperor has been therefore obliged to convoke all the bishops of the empire, in order that they may deliberate about the means of supplying the vacant sees, and of nominating to those that may become vacant in future." Upon these grounds, Bonaparte summoned all the bishops of France and Italy, to hold a national council in the church of Notre Dame, at Paris. From this ecclesiastical council, which assembled on the 17th of June, and of which Cardinal Fesch, the uncle of the emperor, was president, it was intended to procure decrees which should satisfy scrupulous consciences, fill up vacant sees, and give to the primate of the Gauls a species of vice-papal authority during the life of the pope. But the bishops, though by no means indisposed to offer the incense of courtly adulation at the shrine of imperial power, could not be prevailed upon to support the pretensions of Napoleon in opposition to the claims of the pope; and when they were called upon by Cardinal Maury to act in defiance of the Catholic church, their suppleness made a pause, and the members of the convocation in the interest of the emperor, could, it is said, obtain only fourteen votes against one hundred and six. The proceedings of this council have never been suffered to transpire, but it is well understood that the result neither satisfied the expectations of the emperor, nor healed the schisms in the Gallican church.

Education in France, upon the universal system,* had now become a national

* By a decree promulgated at the beginning of the year 1808, the imperial university of Paris was exclusively charged with the public instruction, and had the control over every school and seminary of education throughout the empire. Without the permission of the grand master of the university, no individual was allowed to conduct an establishment of any kind for tuition, and every schoolmaster was required to be a member of the university. This institution was composed of as many academies as there were tribunals or courts of appeal in France, and there were schools attached to each academy in the following order:—Universities, called *Les Facultés*; 2. *Lycées*; 3. Colleges, or Grammar Schools; 4. Institutions, or Seminaries; 5. Boarding Schools, called *Pensionats*; and, 6. The *Lesser, or Primary Schools*. The universities were composed of five faculties, viz. theology, jurisprudence, physic, mathematical and physical science, and literature. The *Lycées*, however, formed the most important part of the system; there were originally thirty-two of these institutions, but they were afterwards increased to forty-five, in order

to bear a relative proportion to the increased extension of the French territory. Of the pupils, six thousand four hundred were educated at the public expense, and of this number two thousand four hundred were to be selected during the space of ten years from the foreign territories annexed to France.

concern. The number of *Lycées*, and of commercial colleges, continued to be augmented, and the number of private seminaries was to be gradually diminished till the moment when they were all to be shut up. This system of national education, which had for its object the formation of soldiers as well as of scholars, was regulated on the principles of military discipline, rather than upon those of civil or ecclesiastical policy,* and served as a powerful engine to recruit the armies, by giving to the youth of France a military character. Nor was it to France alone that this system was confined; it extended to the inhabitants of all the territories annexed to the French empire, and aimed at giving to the youth of these countries the manners and the character which were to identify them with the French nation.

The Empress Maria Louisa, to whose illustrious progeny the people of France looked for a successor to the Napoleon throne, this year presented the emperor with a son. The birth of this "august infant," upon whom so many destinies reposed, took place on the 2d of April, and the joyous event, which was communicated by telegraphic messages to every part of France, was celebrated in Paris by rejoicings, illuminations, and public thanksgivings. The second city in the empire afforded a title to the heir-apparent, who, from the day of his birth, took the title of the King of Rome. On the 15th of June, the baptismal ceremony was celebrated in the French metropolis with a degree of pomp suitable to the rank of the infant sovereign, and Napoleon, the name of the sire, was conferred upon the son.

The birth of the King of Rome had fulfilled the wishes of the French emperor, and within the short period of a few months, an addition of sixteen departments, five millions of people, and one hundred leagues of coast, had been made to his territorial possessions;* but this continual flow of prosperity and success was found insufficient to allay the feelings of hostility, or to satisfy the cravings of ambition. England remained unsubdued, and Russia, in contravention of the stipulations of the treaty of Tilsit, continued to hold commercial intercourse with the enemy of the continental system. In the

to bear a relative proportion to the increased extension of the French territory. Of the pupils, six thousand four hundred were educated at the public expense, and of this number two thousand four hundred were to be selected during the space of ten years from the foreign territories annexed to France.

* Exposition of the state of the French empire in 1811.

peninsula of Spain and Portugal, the progress of the French arms was arrested, and Napoleon himself, since his marriage with the Archduchess of Austria, seemed so much occupied with the concerns of his family, that the affairs of state, for a time,

relaxed their hold upon his mind, and induced him to linger in a state of comparative inactivity on the banks of the Seine, at a moment when his presence seemed to be imperiously demanded in the vicinity of the Tagus.

CHAPTER XV.

DOMESTIC HISTORY: Opening of the First Regency Parliament—Refusal of the Prince-regent to accept a Provision for the Royal Household—Motion regarding his Majesty's Health in 1804—Commercial Distresses—The Bullion Question—Lord King's Demand of Cash Payments from his Tenants—Lord Stanhope's Act for Upholding the National Currency—Ex Officio Informations—New Office created in the Court of Chancery—Amelioration in the Discipline of the Army—British Subjects carrying on the Slave-trade made liable to Transportation—Lord Sidmouth's Bill to amend and explain the Toleration Act—Public Finances—Reappointment of the Duke of York to the Office of Commander-in-chief—Lord Milton's Motion thereon—State of his Majesty's Health—Affairs of Ireland—Letter of Mr. Wellesley Pole—Convention Act—Proceedings of the Catholics—Arrest and Trial of the Delegates to the Catholic Committee—National Education—Population Returns of 1811.

AT the commencement of the present year, the two houses of parliament were occupied principally with those measures which the lamented indisposition of the king had rendered necessary to supply the deficiency in the exercise of the royal functions; and, after the passing of the act for investing the Prince of Wales with the powers requisite, in the opinion of the estates of parliament, for exercising the office of regent, his royal highness took the prescribed oaths before the privy council, and from that time became the representative of the sovereign.* On the 12th of February, parliament was opened with the usual formalities, when the prince-regent, regarding his situation as that of the ceremonial, rather than the efficient head of the state, declined to open the session in person. The speech, which was delivered by commission in the name of the regent, expressed the most unfeigned sorrow on account of the calamity which had imposed upon his royal highness the duty of exercising the royal authority; the prince-regent, at the same time, congratulated parliament upon the success of his majesty's arms, both by sea and land; and trusted that he would be enabled to continue to afford the most effectual assistance to the brave nations of the peninsula. With regard to the United States of America, it was his earnest wish to bring the discussions with that country to an amicable termination, consistent with the honour of the crown and the maintenance of the maritime rights and interests of this kingdom; and he trusted to the zeal of parliament for adequate supplies, in order

to bring the great contest in which the country was engaged to a happy issue.

In the house of Lords, the Earl of Aberdeen moved the address, which was seconded by Lord Elliot, and carried without a division. In the lower house of parliament, the address, which was moved by Mr. Milnes, seconded by Mr. Richard Wellesley, encountered no other opposition than that which might seem to be implied in a declaration made by Mr. Ponsoby, that in acquiescing in the address he should not be precluded from discussing any particular topic in the speech when the subject came before the house in a separate and detached form.

Another proof of the manner in which the prince-regent regarded the temporary authority with which he was vested, was afforded by a communication made to the house of commons on the 21st of February, when the chancellor of the exchequer stated, that his royal highness, on being informed that a motion was intended to be made for a provision for the royal household, declared that he would not add to the burthens of the people, by accepting of any addition to his public state as Regent of the United Kingdom. This subject was further illustrated by Mr. Adam, who stated that the regent had put into his hands the letter from Mr. Perceval, relating to the intended provision, accompanying it with written instructions, that, should any proposition for an establishment, or a grant from the privy purse, be made to the house, he should inform that assembly that his royal highness wished to discharge the duties of the temporary regency without increasing his establishment. In case, however, of such circumstances occurring

* See chap. xii. p. 146.

as might lead to a permanent regency, he conceived that the question would then be opened anew to the consideration of his royal highness.

On the 26th of February, a motion was submitted to the house of commons, on a subject in which the feelings of the country, and the dignity and essential interests of the crown, were deeply involved. In the course of the examination of the physicians before the committee of the two houses of parliament, in December last, touching the state of his majesty's health, it was necessary to advert to the malady under which the sovereign had laboured in the years 1801 and 1804, and some very curious and important particulars were elicited by this examination. It appeared from the evidence of Dr. Heberden, that in 1804 his majesty continued indisposed, and actually under the care of Dr. Simmons and his men, long after the bulletins were discontinued. At this period, Lord Eldon was chancellor, and in that capacity was regularly and officially responsible for having procured the royal signature to public documents, and the royal assent to parliamentary acts, when, in the words of one of the physicians, "his majesty's judgment was in eclipse." On these grounds, it was moved by Mr. Whitbread, that the examination of the physicians should be laid before the house; and the honourable gentleman pledged himself to prove, if the opportunity was afforded him, that the period of the royal incapacity lasted from the 19th of February, 1804, to the 10th of June in the same year; and that, during that period, Dr. Simmons and his subordinate agents, exercised a control over his majesty, such as is known to be exercised towards persons afflicted with the deprivation of reason: notwithstanding which, Lord Eldon was found, on the 5th and 6th of March, taking his majesty's commands on a proposed measure for the alienation of certain crown lands in favour of the Duke of York; and on the 9th, venturing to come down to parliament with a commission, purporting to be signed by the king, at a time when, by the acknowledgment of his physicians, his majesty was labouring under mental infirmity. During the period between the 19th of February and the 23d of April, when such unconstitutional proceedings were occurring, the Lord Chancellor Eldon was the only minister who had access to his sovereign, being at that moment in the exercise of the same judicial superintendence over the king, as that which he is in the habit of holding over unhappy private persons, against whom a commission of lunacy has been issued. Similar transactions had, Mr. Whitbread said, taken place in the year

1801, at which time also Lord Eldon was chancellor; but as two of the persons then high in his majesty's councils were now lost to the country, it was not his intention to extend the inquiry to the events of that period. Mr. Whitbread concluded, by moving for a committee "to examine the journals of the house of lords, for the evidence of the physicians respecting his majesty's health in 1804."

Lord Castlereagh, as a member of administration in 1804, took upon himself a full share in the responsibility of the transactions now under discussion; he denied that Lord Eldon was the only minister who had visited the king between the 19th of February and the 23d of April, or even the 22d of March, 1804. Lord Sidmouth had attended his majesty on the 19th of March, with official papers, requiring his signature, and considered his majesty fully competent to transact the business. His lordship in conclusion observed, that the principle of incapacitation, to the extent contended for by the honourable gentleman, was monstrous on the face of it, and his argument was in a great measure overturned by the consideration, that his majesty's was a case, not of insanity, but of derangement. It was in fact impossible that the hurries of which the physicians spoke, should not at times take place under such circumstances. Mr. Yorke, another of the members of his majesty's council in the year 1804, had himself held a long conference with the king, on or about the 23d of April; and he could affirm, that in that audience, his majesty appeared to him to be in full as good health of mind and body, to be as fully competent to the discharge of the duties of his station, and to be as good a judge of those duties, and of the interests of the government of the country, as any of those political sages, who, setting themselves up as paragons of statesmen, claim an exclusive patent for all the talents and all the honesty of the country.

Sir Francis Burdett maintained that ministers had usurped the sovereign power; that the king was acting under restraint at the time that he was acting as king; and that the fact was not, and could not be contradicted. If ministerial responsibility was any thing but a name, and if the king was not a mere puppet, for the purpose of coming down to parliament in a gilt coach occasionally, this act of the ministers amounted to a high crime and misdemeanour. If ministers could go on without the kingly office, they were innocent; but as he thought that, while the constitution existed, they could not, the motion should have his cordial support. After a forcible

reply from Mr. Whitbread, the house divided, when the motion for inquiry was negatived by a majority of one hundred and seventeen voices.

The increasing commercial distresses of the nation were now so seriously felt, that the attention of government was necessarily fixed upon them; and on the 1st of March, a committee of twenty-one members, distinguished for their knowledge of commercial concerns, and nominated without any regard to political party, was appointed, on the motion of Mr. Perceval, to take into consideration the present state of the commercial credit of the country, and to make their report thereon. The report so prepared was presented to the house of commons on the 7th of March, and after stating the nature and cause of the existing embarrassments, proposed that a loan of six millions should be made by government for the relief of the merchants.* On the 11th of March, the report was taken into consideration, and on the motion of the chancellor of the exchequer, a bill was in-

troduced into parliament, and passed into a law, whereby the sum of six millions sterling was to be advanced to certain commissioners, for the assistance of such merchants as should apply for the same, on giving sufficient security for the repayment of the money so advanced. It might naturally have been supposed, that, in the midst of so much embarrassment and distress, the money voted by parliament at the recommendation of the committee, would have been eagerly sought after and soon exhausted; such was the case in 1793; the reverse however happened now, and the sums applied for were to a less amount than the provision made. In fact, a wide difference existed between the two periods: in 1793, the paper credit gave way, but now the commercial credit had failed; then, the banks stopped, now the mercantile houses became insolvent; then, there was a want of money, now there was a want of markets. This last indeed was the radical cause of the evil, and the proposed relief could not effect its removal; on the contrary, the commercial distresses continued to increase during the whole year, and displayed themselves by frightful lists of bankrupts in every gazette, amounting to an aggregate of which no former year, in the annals of the country, afforded a parallel.

* The attention of the committee had been directed to three points: 1st, The extent and embarrassment that the trading part of the community at present experience; 2d, The causes to which they may be ascribed; and 3d, The expediency of affording parliamentary assistance. The committee refer to the evidence laid before them, from whence they conclude, that the manufacturers in the cotton trade of Glasgow and Paisley are at present suffering more severely and extensively than any other set of men. The sufferings, the committee ascribe to the enormous speculations made to South America, in which the merchants of London, Liverpool, and Glasgow, had engaged. They also found that great distress had occurred in a quarter much connected with this trade, viz. among the importers of produce from the West India Islands, and from South America; a great proportion of the returns for the manufactures exported to those parts of the world coming home in sugar and coffee, for which they could not find a market. Another cause which might be considered as connected with and aggravating the existing distress, was the extent in which the system of warehousing the goods of foreign, as well as of native merchants, for exportation, had been carried: and the committee state, that, upon the whole, the embarrassments at present experienced, are of an extensive nature, and are felt in a considerable degree in other branches of business, as well as in those already specified; but it does not appear that they exist in the woollen trade, to a degree that would justify parliamentary relief. They further state, that having considered the happy effect of the relief afforded by parliament in the year 1793, they recommend similar accommodations to be afforded on the present occasion, and propose that exchequer bills should be issued to the amount of six millions sterling for that purpose; the amount to be repaid in four equal instalments, the first quarter on the 15th of January next, and the remainder in three quarterly instalments, so that the whole should be discharged in nine months from the time of the first payment.

There were, moreover, other symptoms of the unprecedented state into which the commerce and the credit of the kingdom had fallen, which could not be mistaken, especially when viewed in connexion with the distresses of the merchant and manufacturer. It has already been seen, that early in the last session of parliament, a committee was appointed by the house of commons for the purpose of inquiring into the high price of bullion, and that the committee so appointed, in the report on the subject of their inquiry, gave it as their decided opinion, that the evils into which they were commissioned to inquire, were to be attributed to an excessive issue of bank-notes, and that the only effectual remedy was to be found in the bank resuming its cash payments within a time to be limited.* This report, which had excited much public discussion, was brought under the consideration of the house of commons, on the 6th of May, by Mr. Horner; who introduced the subject in an elaborate and luminous speech, and concluded by moving a series of resolutions, grounded upon the report of the bullion committee, and maintaining the same doctrines. It was hence contended, that the standard value of gold, as a measure of exchange,

* See chap. xii. p. 141.

could not possibly fluctuate under any change of circumstances, though its real price was unquestionably subject to all the variations arising from the increase or diminution of the supply; that bank paper, measured by this standard, was depreciated; and that the consequence of this depreciation was, to render our exchanges with the continent unfavourable, to advance prices, to occasion immense losses to creditors, and materially to injure all moneyed incomes. But here two questions arose: what is meant by depreciation? and what is the real standard of value? In the attempt to solve these inquiries, it was found, that this subject, which at first had seemed sufficiently simple, was in reality extremely complicated; and that, after being pursued into the regions of metaphysics, it was ultimately lost in obscurity. Mr. Vansittart, who took the lead on the part of the practical statesmen, as they were designated, in opposition to the bullionists, moved, by way of amendment, a number of counter resolutions to those proposed by Mr. Horner, in which it was declared, that bank-notes were not depreciated; that the political and commercial relations of this country with foreign states were sufficient to account for the unfavourable state of the foreign exchange, and the high price of bullion; that it was highly important that the restrictions on cash payments at the bank should be removed whenever it was compatible with the public interest; but that, to fix a definite period, earlier than that of six months after the conclusion of peace, which was already fixed, would be highly inexpedient and dangerous. These discussions occupied the house of commons not less than seven nights, and ended in the rejection of the resolutions moved by Mr. Horner, and the adoption, by a large majority, of those presented by Mr. Vansittart.

The majority with which the opinion and resolutions of Mr. Vansittart were carried through the house of commons, was considered by ministers as a complete triumph; but before the session closed, a practical illustration was adduced by Lord King, that the question was not set at rest by this decision. His lordship, in a notice sent to his tenants, reminded them, that by their leases, bearing date in the year 1802, they had agreed to pay their rents in good and lawful money of Great Britain, and informed them, that in consequence of the late depreciation of paper money, he could no longer accept of bank-notes at their nominal value in payment for satisfaction of those contracts. He therefore called upon them to pay their rents either in guineas, or in equivalent weight in Por-

tuguese gold coin, or in bank-notes, sufficient to purchase, at the existing market price, the weight of as much standard gold as would discharge the rents.*

This notice had not attracted any degree of public attention, till Lord Stanhope brought the matter under consideration in the house of lords. His lordship thought this proceeding so unjust in itself, so much calculated to shake the credit of the currency of the country, and the example so infectious, and likely to be followed by the landlords throughout the kingdom, that in pursuance of what he considered a public duty, his lordship introduced a bill into the house of lords on the 27th of June, for preventing the current gold coin of the realm from being paid for more than its mint value, and for preventing bank-notes from being received for any smaller sum than that for which they were issued.

The fate of this bill was very extraordinary. On its first reading, ministers opposed it on the ground that such a measure was unnecessary, and might be mischievous; but on the second reading, they had discovered their error, and the prorogation of parliament was actually delayed beyond the appointed time, to pass Lord Stanhope's bill into an act. Wafted by the propitious gale of ministerial influence, this bill, with certain amendments, rather verbal than essential, passed through both branches of the legislature by large majorities, and at the close of the session of parliament, became the law of the land.

The number of prosecutions for libellous publications against the state, had within the last three years, attained a magnitude that seemed to call for legislative interference, and on the 4th of March, Lord Holland moved for a list of all the informations, *ex officio*, filed by the attorneys-general from the 1st of January, 1801, to the 31st of January, 1811. This motion, which was opposed by Lord Ellenborough,

* The following curious facts, resulting from the state of the British currency at the period now under consideration, claim to be recorded:

	£	s.	d.
A guinea made of standard gold, weight 5 dwts. 8 grains, passes by law for only	1	1	0
The same two grains lighter may be sold as bullion for	1	5	6
A crown piece, made of sterling silver, weight 19 dwts. passes by law for only	0	5	0
A bank dollar, weight 2 dwts. less, and the silver 2½d. an ounce inferior, at first issued at 5s. is now current for	0	5	6
A half-crown piece of sterling silver, weight 9 dwts. passes by law for only	0	2	6
A bank token, weight 10 dwts. and the silver 2½d. an ounce inferior, is current for	0	3	0

in a speech more remarkable for its vehemence than its candour, was lost by a large majority. A similar motion made in the house of commons by Lord Folkestone, being opposed by ministers, and resisted by Sir Vicary Gibbs, the attorney-general, was also lost by a majority of a hundred and nineteen to thirty-six voices. There were, however, some facts brought to light during the discussion of this question which served to mark the character of the times, and deserve to be recorded. It was asserted by Lord Holland, and admitted by ministers, that in a time of profound internal peace and tranquillity, the present attorney-general had filed not less than forty-two official informations against seventeen persons, within the last three years, though in the thirty years preceding the year 1791, only seventy persons had been prosecuted altogether; and that on a general average, Sir Vicary Gibbs had filed in the proportion of seven to one more informations for state libels within the same period than his immediate predecessors. It further appeared, that he had prosecuted to judgment, either of acquittal or conviction, not more than seventeen of the forty-two official informations which he had filed, so that the accused parties were, in many of the other cases, fined in the amount of the expenses, without having been proved guilty of any offence. Lord Holland, undismayed by the rejection of his motion, introduced, towards the close of the following session of parliament, two bills relating to *ex officio* informations; one of which had for its object to prevent delay between the publication of an imputed libel, and the trial of the accused party; the other, to obtain a repeal of so much of the forty-eighth of the king, as relates to holding persons to bail upon official informations. These bills were strenuously opposed by the chief justices, who characterised the proposed alteration in the law, and in the mode of its administration, as a measure at once light and frivolous, and both the bills were, at their second reading, rejected.

The delays in the court of chancery had long been felt and acknowledged as a defect in the judicature of this country, and on the 7th of March, Mr. M. A. Taylor moved in the house of commons for the appointment of a committee to ascertain the number of appeals before the lords, and to report thereon. At the suggestion of Mr. Perceval, the house determined to await the result of an inquiry connected with this subject, which had been previously instituted by a committee in the house of lords; and on the 30th of May, that committee made its report. This document, which

was presented by the Earl of Liverpool, stated generally, that a great increase had taken place in the appeals and writs of error, and that there were at the present moment no fewer than three hundred and thirty-eight of these cases before the house, of which forty-two were writs of error. The vast increase of business in the court of chancery was also adverted to, from which cause it was stated to be impossible that the chancellor could despatch the existing arrears, without some assistance being provided for him by parliament.* To obviate these evils, it was recommended that another judge should be appointed to assist his lordship in the court of chancery, with a rank equal to that of the master of the rolls; that a limited period should be fixed in each session of parliament for receiving appeals, and three days allotted in each week for their decision, till the number should be considerably reduced. Upon these suggestions, a number of resolutions were formed; and a new office was consequently created in the court of chancery, to which Sir Thomas Plumer was appointed, under the designation of vice-chancellor.

An amelioration in the discipline of the army, calculated to soothe the feelings of the soldier, and to gratify the friends of humanity, took place during the present session of parliament. The practice of flogging in the British army had frequently been a subject of animadversion, both in and out of parliament; but, though government had shown a peculiar degree of susceptibility on this point, and had strenuously opposed the motions made by Sir Francis Burdett and others to abolish this kind of punishment, yet when the mutiny bill came to be submitted to the house of commons on the 14th of March, Mr. Manners Sutton proposed to introduce a clause by which a power should be given to courts-martial to substitute at their option the punishment of imprisonment for corporal punishments. To the admission of this humane provision, no objection was made, and the mutiny bill, so amended, passed into a law.

A measure, closely allied in its principle to the new clause in the mutiny act, was brought into parliament by Mr. Brougham, by whom leave was obtained to introduce a bill for the prevention of the

* The number of original causes for hearing before the chancellor at this time amounted to one hundred and fourteen, besides ninety-nine appeals; exclusive of two hundred and seventy-one original causes and appeals before the master of the rolls; and the balance of money and securities in the hands of the chancellor amounted to no less a sum than £5,163,430*l.* 13*s.* 2*d.*

enormities which still continued to be practised by captains of vessels and others, who, notwithstanding the legislative enactments to the contrary, persisted in carrying on the African slave-trade. The object of the bill, which was supported by Mr. Wilberforce and Mr. Perceval, was to render any British subject who might engage in this traffic, liable to transportation for any period not exceeding fourteen years; and this measure, after passing through its respective stages in both houses of parliament, obtained the royal assent.

In no portion of British history, has the spirit of religious liberty shone with greater splendour, than during the present reign. This spirit has manifested itself both actively and passively—actively, by the repeal of some of the most obnoxious laws for the restraint of liberty of conscience; and passively, by suffering obsolete statutes to remain as a dead letter upon the books. Such, being the general temper of the times, and such the basis of the national lawgivers, it was with no small share of surprise and consternation, that the country heard the intention announced by Lord Sidmouth, of introducing a bill into parliament, to amend and explain the act of William and Mary, usually called the toleration act.* The motion preparatory

* His lordship had, previously to the introduction of this bill, moved for, and obtained, the following "Returns of the archbishops, and bishops, of the number of churches and chapels of the church of England in every parish of 1000 persons and upwards; and of the number of other places of worship, not of the establishment," which returns were ordered to be printed by the house of lords on the 5th of April, 1811.

Dioceses.	Of the Establishment.	Not of the Estab.
1 Bath and Wells	78	103
2 Bangor	52	99
3 Bristol	59	71
4 Canterbury	84	113
5 Carlisle	49	39
6 Chester	352	439
7 Chichester	47	58
8 Durham	116	175
9 Ely	22	32
10 Exeter	180	245
11 Gloucester	46	76
12 Hereford	51	42
13 Landaff	21	45
14 Lincoln	165	269
15 Lichfield and Coventry	190	268
16 London	187	265
17 Norwich	78	114
18 Oxford	50	39
19 Peterborough	20	36
20 Rochester	36	44
21 Salisbury	135	142
22 St. Asaph	49	95
23 Winchester	193	164
24 Worcester	66	60
25 York	221	404
Total	2547	3457

From which, it appears, that the number of churches and chapels of the establishment amount

to the introduction of the proposed bill, was made in the house of lords on the 9th of May; when his lordship observed, that according to the act of William and Mary, all ministers in holy orders, or pretending to holy orders, provided they subscribed twenty-six of the thirty-nine articles, and took the requisite oaths, might preach in any place of religious worship. This act was amended by the 19th of George III. which dispensed with the signing of any of the thirty-nine articles, and required persons applying for licenses only to express their belief in the Holy Scriptures. Till within the last thirty or forty years, he said, the toleration act had been construed in such a manner as to exclude all persons unqualified, from want of the requisite talents and learning, and unfit, from the meanness of their situation, or the profligacy of their character, from exercising the functions of ministers of religion. But subsequent to that period, all who offered themselves at the quarter sessions, provided they took the oaths, and made the declaration required by law, obtained the requisite certificates, not only as a matter of course, but as a matter of right. In order to remedy this evil, it was his intention to bring in a bill, in which he proposed, that to entitle any man to obtain a license as a preacher, he should have the recommendation of at least six respectable householders of the congregation to which he belonged; and that he should actually have a congregation which was willing to listen to his instructions. With regard to preachers who were not stationary, but itinerant, he proposed that they should be required to bring a testimonial from six respectable householders, stating them to be of sober life and character, together with their belief that they were qualified to perform the functions of preachers. The effects which he expected to be produced by this bill, were, that improper and unaccredited men would be prevented from assuming the most important of all duties—that of instructing their fellow creatures in the principles of religion and virtue. Lords Holland and Stanhope, at the very threshold of this business, declared their decided hostility to the proposed measure; but leave was given to bring in the bill, which was read a first time, and ordered to be printed.

It is scarcely possible to describe the sensation and cordial co-operation produced by Lord Sidmouth's bill, among all classes

to 2547; and that the chapels and meeting-houses not of the establishment, besides many private houses used for religious worship, and not introduced in the above enumeration, amount to 3457. N. B. The smaller parishes not amounting to 1000 inhabitants, were not returned.

of dissenters. The effect was instantaneous, and in the short space of forty-eight hours, three hundred and thirty-six petitions against the bill, from various congregations within a hundred miles of London, signed only by males above sixteen years of age, were poured into the house of lords. It is well known that the grand and fundamental point of difference in church government, between the established church and the dissenters, is this: the former hold the opinion that religion and the temporal concerns of mankind should be united, and that to effect this union the government ought to patronize and support a particular form of belief; whereas, the latter contend that religion ought to be an affair entirely between man and his Maker; that it stands not in need of the aid of the civil power for its support; and that, whenever that aid has been held out to religion, and accepted by it, the effect has been to diminish the force of religious principle, and to corrupt its purity and simplicity. Proceeding therefore upon this leading principle of difference and separation from the established church, the dissenters objected to the bill introduced by Lord Sidmouth, as having a manifest and undoubted tendency to countenance the interference of the secular power, and to encroach upon religious rights. They considered the bill also, not only as objectionable and injurious in itself, but as paving the way for further encroachment upon the act of toleration; and as the commencement of a regular system of persecution and intolerance, which had already shown itself among the magistracy in some parts of the country, and which it was incumbent upon the dissenters to arrest in its progress, before it had attained a maturity and strength which might baffle all their efforts.* On these grounds, they called upon their brethren to co-operate with them; and when the bill came to be read a second time, on the 21st of May, it was encountered by five hundred additional petitions from the country, and Lord Erskine observed, that if the second reading had been delayed only a few weeks longer, that number would have been swelled to five thousand. Such an expression of the public feeling, was not to be resisted; ministers themselves, and even the dignitaries of the church, now resisted the further progress of the measure, which was characterized by Lord Liverpool as more likely to do harm than good; and not a single voice in the house of lords,

that of Lord Sidmouth alone excepted, was raised in favour of this attempt "to explain and amend the act of toleration." Under such circumstances, it is almost unnecessary to add, that the bill was rejected without a division, and the efforts of the friends of religious liberty were crowned with complete and triumphant success.

On the 20th of May, the chancellor of the exchequer opened the budget for the year.* The supply voted for the public service he stated at 54,308,453*l.* including a sum of two millions granted to the government of Portugal, and one hundred thousand pounds granted as an eleemosynary aid to the distressed Portuguese. The loan for the present year, Mr. Perceval stated to amount to twelve millions, the interest on which sum he proposed to discharge by an additional duty on British and foreign spirits. He further stated it to be his intention to impose an additional

* FINANCES.

PUBLIC INCOME of Great Britain for the Year ending the 5th of January, 1811.

Branches of Revenue.	Gross Receipts.			Paid into the Excheq.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Customs, . . .	10,773,969	19	4½	9,009,735	18	7½
Excise, . . .	20,464,518	19	9½	18,495,178	3	2
Stamps, . . .	5,666,463	18	8½	5,546,032	17	2½
Land and Assess- ed Taxes, . . .	7,600,027	6	8½	8,011,205	0	11½
Post-office, . .	1,732,278	1	6	1,471,746	19	2½
Miscella. Perma- nent Tax, . . .	128,366	8	3½	123,146	15	6½
Here. Revenue, Extr. Resources.	198,123	9	3½	137,763	2	2½
Loans, inclu- ding 1,400,000 <i>l.</i> for the service of Ireland,	3,906,483	13	7½	3,100,594	16	10
Excise, . . .	6,810,860	11	5½	6,769,165	13	4½
Prop. Tax, . .	13,504,004	4	7½	13,228,630	2	7
Miscel. Income, Loans, inclu- ding 1,400,000 <i>l.</i> for the service of Ireland,	3,325,537	3	2½	3,304,902	4	8½
	13,242,356	17	0	13,242,356	17	0
Grand Total, £87,282,900	13	6		£82,430,398	11	4½

Whitehall, Treasury Cham-
bers, 24th March, 1811. } (Signed)
RICH. WHARTON.

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE of Great Britain for the Year ending the 5th of January, 1811.

Beds of Expenditure.	Sums.		
	£	s.	d.
Interest, . . .	21,555,401	4	0½
Charge of Management, . .	217,825	12	5½
Reduction of National Debt, .	11,660,601	5	4½
Interest on Exchequer Bills, .	1,915,105	4	1½
Civil List, . . .	1,533,110	2	7½
Civil Government of Scotland, Payments in anticipation, &c.	118,186	12	3
Navy, . . .	775,399	6	11
Ordnance, . . .	20,068,412	3	5½
Army, . . .	4,692,331	14	8
Extraordinary Services, . .	11,337,622	19	2
Loans to Sicily, Portugal, and Spain, including 5,294,416 <i>l.</i> 13 <i>s.</i> 3 <i>d.</i> to Ire- land, . . .	7,178,677	9	2
Miscellaneous Services, . .	7,354,609	14	7
	2,270,957	13	11½

Deductions for Sums forming no
part of the Expenditure of Great
Britain, } 90,543,151 0 5½
5,361,596 16 3

Grand Total, £85,196,554 4 2½
Whitehall, Treasury Cham-
bers, 24th March, 1811. } (Signed)
RICH. WHARTON.

* Resolutions of a meeting of Protestant dissenters, held in London, pending the discussions on Lord Sidmouth's bill.

duty on timber, pearl and potashes, and foreign linens, which with a tax of one penny per pound on cotton wool imported from the United States of America, he estimated at 866,600*l*. Owing, however, to the opposition made to the principle of taxing a raw material, the proposed duty on cotton wool was abandoned; and a tax upon hats, which had long operated as a burdensome and vexatious impost on the fair trade, while it sunk into insignificance as a subject of revenue, shared the same fate.*

One of the first spontaneous acts on the part of the prince-regent, after his assumption of the royal functions, was the restoration of his brother, the Duke of York, to the post of commander-in-chief of the army. This event produced a considerable share of surprise in the country, and was viewed by some of the members of the house of commons, who had taken the lead in urging the charges against his royal highness, as an imputation upon their conduct on that occasion, and as an unmerited stigma cast upon the house. Under these impressions, Lord Milton, unintimidated by the frowns of power, and actuated solely by a sense of public duty, proposed a vote of censure upon the advisers of his royal highness the prince-regent, for recommending the reappointment of the Duke of York to the office of commander-in-chief. The resignation of the Duke of York in the year 1809, his lordship contended, flowed naturally from the course of proceeding adopted by that assembly, and from the conviction so generally felt that the criminal negligence of his royal highness rendered it improper that he should continue to hold the elevated office he at that time occupied. In fact, that the resignation of the duke alone prevented the adoption of ulterior proceedings, which must in their tendency have excluded his royal highness from office. His lordship was aware that it might be objected, that though the house did, at that period, wish for his resignation, it was by no means intended to exclude him from all chance of reinstatement; and that the punishment he had already undergone, was fully commensurate to his offence. But deprivation of office was not in itself to be considered as punishment; and if the duke was unfit for the post of commander-in-chief in the year 1809, he did not see how he had attained

the requisite fitness in 1811. They who would defend the reappointment upon the ground that certain transactions had come to light since the inquiry, which had materially altered the public opinion, would find their task difficult; for though his royal highness might have been the victim of a foul conspiracy, yet the reality of the existence of that conspiracy rested solely upon the testimony of the very person who had been the chief and most material witness against the duke, and whose evidence was by his advocates then considered as totally undeserving of credit.* His lordship entreated the house to consider well the responsibility they were about to incur, and to pause before they sanctioned a proceeding that would stultify their own acts.

The chancellor of the exchequer acknowledged in the fullest manner the responsibility of his majesty's servants in recommending the measure in question. The gallant officer (Sir David Dundas) who had lately filled the office of commander-in-chief, after spending nearly half a century in the service of his country, had contracted an illness, which obliged him to apply for liberty to retire from the arduous duties of his station; and there was not the slightest hesitation in the mind of Mr. Perceval and his colleagues, whom they should recommend to supply the vacancy thus created. The eminent services rendered to the army by the Duke of York, which were universally acknowledged, left them no choice. As to the proceedings on a former occasion, alluded to by the noble lord, they pledged the house to nothing; and there was not the most distant idea of lowering the dignity of parliament, by the advice given to the prince-regent to reappoint the Duke of York to the post of commander-in-chief.

Among the speakers who addressed the house on this occasion, several gentlemen

* When the stamp duty upon hats was first imposed, its annual product was 60,000*l*. In 1809, the amount was reduced to 38,000*l*. In 1810, to 31,000*l*. and in the year ending the 5th of January, 1811, to 29,332*l*. This gradual reduction, Mr. Perceval remarked, did not arise from fewer hats being worn now than formerly, but from the evasions of the tax, which every year increased.

* His lordship here alluded to the facts adduced in the course of certain proceedings in the court of king's bench, in the year 1809. In the month of July, in that year, a trial took place on an action brought by Mr. Wright, an upholsterer against Colonel Wardle, for goods furnished by order of the defendant to Mrs. Clarke, and which order, as Mrs. Clarke deposed, was given by the colonel, on condition that she should put him in possession of all the evidence she possessed against the Duke of York, and appear at the bar of the house of commons as a witness, in support of the charges preferred against his royal highness. The jury, after a patient investigation of the case, returned a verdict in favour of the plaintiff: on which, Colonel Wardle indicted Mrs. Clarke and Mr. Wright for a conspiracy, but the evidence adduced failed to establish the charge; and on this second trial the colonel himself distinctly admitted that he had advanced money to Mrs. Clarke.

presented themselves, who had, during the proceedings in the year 1809, taken part against the Duke of York, and who did not hesitate to avow, either that they had been formerly carried away by the current of public opinion, or that they considered the case as it now presented itself in a different point of view. It is unnecessary here to inquire into the different processes of conviction that might have operated on different minds; that a great change had been wrought in the sentiments of this assembly was manifest on the division, from which it appeared that the votes for the motion were forty-seven, against it two hundred and ninety-six, constituting a majority of two hundred and forty-nine in favour of the reappointment. The nation at large seemed to have been affected with a similar change of opinion, and the duke resumed his post with all the facility of a public functionary who had quitted his office without imputation.

The state of the king's health in the early part of the present year, underwent several variations, but in the report of the queen's council, made on the 6th of July, a few days before the prorogation of parliament, it was stated that "his majesty's health was not such as to enable his majesty to resume the personal exercise of the royal functions." Indeed, the hopes of his majesty's recovery were now considerably diminished, though some of the physicians still adhered to the persuasion, that the energy of his constitution would overcome the disorder, and that the complete re-establishment of his health was an event not far distant. This state of uncertainty, co-operating with other causes, served to keep the ministers of the prince-regent in their offices, and afforded them an opportunity of overcoming the repugnance of the prince, and seating themselves firmly in the cabinet.

To the Catholics of Ireland, the determination of the prince-regent to retain the ministers of his royal father, was a circumstance of extreme mortification. The conscientious scruples of the king, who conceived that his coronation oath stood in the way of Catholic emancipation, it was impossible not to respect; but an impression had obtained universally, that the Prince of Wales was a decided friend to their claims; and on his investment with power, a brighter and more cheering ray of hope than had ever before presented itself, burst upon the Catholic subject. But again, at least for a season, disappointment clouded their expectations; the prince-regent had not merely determined to retain ministers inimical to Catholic concessions, but he had intimated his inten-

tion also to adhere, during the period of the limited regency, to the policy of his father's government. Still, some degree of doubt continued to hang over the course of conduct that would be pursued with respect to Ireland, and particularly towards that community, of which three-fourths of the numerical strength of the sister kingdom was known to consist.

At this moment of hope and anxiety, a letter appeared from Mr. Wellesley Pole, secretary to the lord-lieutenant, stating, that it had been represented to government that the Roman Catholics of Ireland were to be collected together for the purpose of appointing persons as representatives, delegates, or managers of an unlawful assembly, sitting in Dublin, and calling itself the Catholic committee; in consequence of which, the sheriffs and magistrates, to whom this circular was addressed, were required, in pursuance of the act of the thirty-third of the king, cap. 29, commonly called the convention act, to arrest and commit to prison (unless bail should be given) all persons within their jurisdiction who should be guilty of giving notice of such election or appointment, or of attending, voting, or acting in any manner in the choice of such representatives.

This circular was immediately noticed in parliament by Lord Moira and Mr. Ponsonby, who contended that Mr. Pole had misconceived or misrepresented the act of the Irish parliament, which required the magistrates to disperse persons sitting in an unlawful assembly, but did not confer upon them the power to commit, or to hold such persons to bail.* At that time,

* The convention act consists of four clauses; by the first of which it is enacted, that all assemblies, committees, or other bodies of persons, elected, or in any other manner constituted or appointed, to represent the people of this realm, or any number or description of the people of any province, county, city, or town, or district, within the same, under pretence of petitioning, or in any other manner procuring an alteration of matters established by law in church and state, except duly summoned by the king's writ, are unlawful assemblies, and may be dispersed by the magistrates or peace officers; and if resistance be offered, all persons offending in that behalf are liable to be apprehended. The second clause enacts that any person giving or publishing a notice of an election to be holden for the appointment of any person or persons to act as such delegate or representative, or any person who shall attend or vote at such election or appointment, being thereof convicted by due course of law, shall be guilty of a high misdemeanour. By clause three, the right of election by corporate bodies and chartered companies, is saved; and by clause four it is provided, that nothing in this act contained "shall be construed in any manner to prevent or impede the undoubted right of his majesty's subjects to petition his majesty, or both houses, or either house of parliament, for redress of any public or private grievance."

ministers were not in possession of the information and circumstances under which this letter had been written; but from what they knew, they declared that they felt themselves inclined to approve and justify the course adopted by the Irish government. It afterwards appeared that a circular letter, dated the 1st of January, had been written by Mr. Edward Hay, secretary to the committee of the Irish Catholics, the object of which was to obtain a complete representative body from all the counties of Ireland, to assist in managing the petitions, and that Mr. Hay's letter, and the measures consequent thereon, had called forth the circular of the Irish secretary.* The discussions to which these letters gave rise were soon absorbed in the subsequent proceedings in Ireland. The feelings and the conduct of the Protestants towards their Catholic brethren in that country, were marked, at this crisis, by strong features of liberality and friendship: although meetings for the purpose of appointing delegates were held in almost every county, yet there was scarcely a single instance of magisterial interference, and some of the magistrates went so far as to promise the protection of their official authority to such meetings as might be molested.

On the 9th of July, a "meeting of the Catholics of Ireland" was held in Dublin, at which it was resolved that a committee of Catholics should be appointed, in order to frame petitions for the repeal of the penal laws, and to procure signatures thereto in all parts of Ireland; that this committee should consist of Catholic peers, of their eldest sons, the Catholic baronets, the prelates of the Catholic church in Ireland, and also of ten persons to be appointed in each county in Ireland; and that it should be recommended to the committee to resort to all legal and constitutional means for maintaining a communication of sentiment and co-operation of conduct among the Catholics of Ireland.

In consequence of this meeting, and of these resolutions, a proclamation was issued by the lord-lieutenant and council of Ireland, declaring it to be the intention of the government to enforce the penalties of the law against all such persons as should proceed to elect deputies, managers, or delegates to the Catholic committee. On the day subsequent to the appearance of the proclamation, a special meeting of the general committee of the Catholics was held in Capel-street, Dublin, at which the Earl of Fingal presided, when it was resolved, That this extraordinary meeting is

held in consequence of the proclamation of the lord-lieutenant; that the committee, relying upon the constitutional right of the subject to petition, and conscious that they are not transgressing the laws, do now determine to persevere in the course they have adopted for the "sole express, and specific purpose of preparing a petition to parliament, for their full participation of the rights of the constitution; that the committee will never meet under pretence of preparing or presenting petitions, but for that purpose alone; and that the last clause of the convention act recognises the right of petitioning, secured by the bill of rights."

The government, acting upon the proclamation of the lord-lieutenant, arrested five gentlemen who were present at the election of delegates, on the 9th of August, in Liffey-street chapel, and carried them before the chief-justice of the court of king's bench, by whom they were bound over to take their trials.

The trial of Dr. Sheridan, one of the delegates arrested subsequent to the meeting in Liffey-street chapel, was to decide the question whether the convention act applied to the proceedings of the Catholics. This trial came on in the court of king's bench, Dublin, on the 21st of November. The doctor was indicted for having assisted in the election of persons to represent one of the parishes of Dublin in the general Catholic committee. The trial continued for two days: and the chief-justice, in his charge to the jury, gave a decided opinion, that if the facts adduced in evidence were believed, and if it was thereby made out that the traverser had acted in the election of a delegate to the general Catholic committee, he must be found guilty upon the legal construction of the convention act; and in this decision the other three judges on the bench fully concurred. It is impossible—indeed language sinks under the effort—to describe the anxiety manifested while the jury were in the room to which they had retired to deliberate upon their verdict. Although it was now nine o'clock at night, yet the hall of the four courts, all the avenues leading thereto, and the very attic windows, were crowded with people. When, after an hour and a half's deliberation, it was announced that the jury had returned to their box, a deep and profound silence prevailed. Mr. Byrne, the clerk of the crown, then called over the names of the jury, and Mr. Geale, the foreman, handed down the issue of *not guilty*. The words were scarcely pronounced, when a peal of acclamations rang throughout the gallery, and shook even the judicial bench. The plaudits were caught by the anxious

* Justificatory speech of Mr. Wellesley Pole in the house of commons, March 7, 1811.

auditory in the hall. The judges attempted to speak, and the peace officers to act, but the general enthusiasm deafened and destroyed every effort to resist the popular ebullition. Nothing could be heard but the loud and overwhelming torrents of acclamations, which had now reached the streets, and by a kind of telegraphic operation, spread to the most distant parts of the city.

The acquittal of Dr. Sheridan having, in the opinion of the attorney-general, by whom the prosecution for the crown was conducted, proceeded from a defect in evidence only, while the law had been distinctly laid down by the chief justice, as applicable to the committee of the Catholics, it was judged proper by government not to proceed to the trial of the other arrested delegates, under a persuasion that the delegated meetings would no longer be held. The Catholics however saw the matter in a different light: they regarded the acquittal of Dr. Sheridan, as the result of a conviction on the mind of the jury that the law did not apply to this case; and in that persuasion they resolved to continue their meetings: a meeting of the delegates was accordingly held in the theatre, but they were dispersed by the magistrates, who arrested Lords Fingal and Netterville, which two noblemen had been alternately called to the chair.

The attorney-general, finding that the opinion of the court, as delivered on the trial of Dr. Sheridan, had not operated in such a way as to prevent a repetition of the delegated meetings, determined to institute a prosecution against Mr. Kirwan, another of the arrested delegates, on a similar charge. On Thursday, the 30th of January, 1812, the trial took place, and the jury, after deliberating about a quarter of an hour, returned a verdict of *guilty* against the defendant. On the 6th of February, Mr. Kirwan was brought up to receive sentence, when Judge Day, in his address to the defendant, said: "It is candid to suppose that the Roman Catholics did not wilfully violate the provisions of an act upon which able and virtuous lawyers have entertained much doubt. The transactions heretofore are therefore consigned to oblivion; but the act must now resume its vigorous operation; it must awake from its long slumbers, and in future remain vigilant; the Catholics will bow to it; they were heretofore only ignorant of its force. Under this impression, the court mean to punish you with only a nominal penalty; and the sentence of the court is, that you do pay a fine of one mark, and then be discharged." This decision set at rest the legal point that had

so long contributed to agitate the public mind in Ireland; the other prosecutions were all abandoned; and the Catholic committee, which Judge Day, in his address to Mr. Kirwan, characterized as the greatest enemy to the Catholic cause, ceased to exist as a delegated body.

Towards the close of the year 1811, an event was brought before the public with so much prominence and importance, and is in itself of so much consequence to the community, as to claim a place in the history of our own times; this was no less than a plan for the national education of the poorer classes of the people. The causes and motives that led to the adoption of this plan are probably of a mixed nature; but if the children of the poor receive the advantages of education, it matters little from what motives the system for effecting that object may arise, or who had the honour or credit to be its founder. It may, however, be proper briefly to trace the causes which produced this memorable event.

In the year 1798, Mr. Joseph Lancaster employed himself in the establishment of a school in the borough of Southwark,* on a plan which attracted much attention: by this system, children were taught reading, writing, and the most common and useful rules of arithmetic, in a very short space of time, and at a very little expense. This saving of time, labour, and expense, was effected principally by making the boys at once teachers and learners; and by a process which united great simplicity and quickness with great effect.† In 1805, some time after Mr. Lancaster established his school, and made known his plan of education, he was, to the immortal honour of the present king, George III. patronized by him; and it is recorded of his majesty, that in a conversation held with Mr. Lancaster, he expressed the benevolent wish—a wish worthy of a monarch, "That every subject in his dominions should be able to read his Bible."‡ For some time, no opposition was made to the system pursued by Mr. Lancaster with so much success, and schools, formed and conducted upon this plan, were established in various parts of the kingdom. By degrees, however, an outcry was raised against this system of education, which was held out as decidedly hostile to the interests, and even to the

* London.

† See "A Comparative View of the Plans of Education as detailed in the publications of Dr. Bell and Mr. Lancaster, by Joseph Fox."

‡ Shortly after this conversation took place, I was informed by Mr. Lancaster, that the king wept, when told of the very deficient state of education amongst the labouring poor in England.—W. G.

very existence, of the established church, because the children were not instructed in the peculiar doctrines of that community.

Dr. Bell, a clergyman of the established church, who had been in India, had, soon after his return from that country, and before Mr. Lancaster had thought of his plan, published a pamphlet, in which he detailed the mode of education which he had practised at a seminary established in Madras. This mode in some of its leading features was the same as that afterwards adopted by Mr. Lancaster; and Mr. Lancaster has, in effect, acknowledged, that the perusal of Dr. Bell's work suggested the idea to him. So far, Dr. Bell has the honour and credit; but Dr. Bell merely published, he did not attempt to carry the scheme into execution. Mr. Lancaster, on the contrary, soon after he became acquainted with the plan, set himself most perseveringly and actively to work; he spared no labour or fatigue, and grudged no time or expense, in the establishment of the new system of education. In this respect, therefore, Mr. Lancaster has the merit. Neither Dr. Bell nor Mr. Lancaster can be called the inventor of this system of education, which has existed in India for ages; but Dr. Bell introduced the theory into England, and Mr. Lancaster carried this theory, with several improvements, into extensive practice, and gave to it a character truly national.

The schools established by Mr. Lancaster met with munificent patronage, and gave birth to the formation of a society under the designation of "The British and Foreign School Society." A rival institution was also established under the auspices of Dr. Bell, with the name of "The National School Society," at the head of which establishment appears a large proportion of the dignitaries of the church, and the leading men of the state. The object of the former is to afford learning to the poor, at home and abroad, without regard to any particular creed, or preference to any religious community; and the de-

sign of the latter, to instruct the children of the poor in the doctrines of the established religion, as well as in the common and useful branches of education. This rivalry, whatever its origin, is calculated to banish gross ignorance, and to diffuse useful knowledge in every part of the kingdom. Even the military partake of its advantages: schools, upon the plan either of Dr. Bell or of Mr. Lancaster, have been formed in many regiments, and the commander-in-chief, in public orders, has called upon the chaplains of the army to attend in the most scrupulous manner to this duty. Surely, this may be considered as an important era, in the history of education, and the hope may justly be entertained, that the foundation is laid for an increase of industry and virtue among the great mass of the people.* (68)

During the session of parliament of the present year, an act was passed "for taking an account of the population of Great Britain, and of the increase or diminution thereof;" and the domestic history of the year cannot, perhaps, be brought to a more appropriate conclusion, than by a statement of the result of this national investigation.

* New Annual Register for 1811, from which work this article is principally extracted.

(68) The fact is, that Mr. Lancaster met with no publication of Dr. Bell's till more than two years after he had established his seminary in London. He never acknowledged that Dr. Bell's little tract suggested the idea to him. The writer of this article evidently alludes to the practice of making the letters in sand—a practice common for ages in India; and in having once adopted *this part*, the partizans of Dr. Bell have most unfairly represented it as an acknowledgment of the *whole*. Dr. Bell had a school at Madras for 200 children, with four salaried teachers. How could this suggest the idea of a school for from 3 to 500 children under one master only? The reader will be glad to learn that above 750,000 children are now estimated to have received the benefits of education, in Europe, Asia, Africa, and America, in consequence of the Lancastrian system.

[Mr. Lancaster informed me, that the writing of letters in sand, was suggested to him by the passage in Scripture, John viii. 6.—W. G.]

GENERAL ABSTRACT

Of the Returns made pursuant to an Act passed in the fifty-first Year of his Majesty, King George III.

	HOUSES.				OCCUPATIONS.			PERSONS.		
	Inspected.	By how many families occupied.	Building.	Unfinished.	Families chiefly employed in Agriculture.	Families chiefly employed in Trade and Manufacture.	All other Families not comprised in these Classes.	Males.	Females.	Total of Persons.
ENGLAND.....	1,678,106	2,012,391	15,193	47,925	697,353	923,539	391,480	4,575,763	4,963,064	9,538,827
WALES.....	119,398	129,756	1,019	3,065	72,946	35,044	20,866	291,633	320,155	611,788
SCOTLAND.....	304,093	402,068	2,341	11,329	125,799	169,417	106,852	826,191	979,497	1,805,688
ARMY, NAVY, MARINES, and Seamen in Registered Vessels.....								640,500		640,500
TOTALS.....	2,101,597	2,544,215	18,543	62,319	895,998	1,128,009	519,198	6,334,087	6,362,716	12,596,803

SUMMARY of the ENUMERATION of 1801,* as compared with that of 1811.

	POPULATION 1801.			INCREASE	POPULATION 1811.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.		Males.	Females.	Total.
ENGLAND.....	3,787,935	4,343,499	8,331,434	1,207,393	4,575,763	4,963,064	9,538,827
WALES.....	257,178	284,368	541,546	70,242	291,633	320,155	611,788
SCOTLAND.....	734,581	894,487	1,599,068	206,620	826,191	979,497	1,805,688
ARMY, NAVY, &c.....	470,598		470,598	169,902	640,500		640,500
TOTALS.....	5,450,292	5,492,354	10,942,646	1,654,157	6,334,087	6,362,716	12,596,803

Published by order of Parliament, July 28, 1812.

PLACES with a Population exceeding TWENTY THOUSAND, according to the Returns of 1811.

ENGLAND.

1. London and Westminster, .	1,009,546	9. Norwich,	37,256
2. Manchester 79,459, } and Salford 19,114 }	98,573	10. Deptford and Greenwich, .	36,780
3. Liverpool,	94,376	11. Sheffield,	35,840
4. Birmingham,	85,753	12. Nottingham,	34,253
5. Bristol,	76,433	13. Bath,	31,496
6. Leedstown,—35,950 } Out towns—26,584 }	62,534	14. Newcastle upon Tyne, . . .	27,587
7. Plymouth,	56,060	15. Hull,	26,792
8. Portsmouth, &c.	48,355	16. Leicester,	23,146
		17. Chatham and Rochester, . .	21,722

SCOTLAND.

1. Edinburgh,	102,987	4. Dundee,	29,616
2. Glasgow,	100,749	5. Aberdeen,	21,639
3. Paisley and Abbey,	36,722		

* See vol. I. chap. xviii. p. 365.

CHAPTER XVI.

CAMPAIGNS IN SPAIN AND PORTUGAL: State of the Peninsula at the Commencement of the year 1811—Death of the Marquis de la Romana—Siege of Badajoz, and the Surrender of that Fortress to the Duke of Dalmatia—Retreat of Massena from Santarem to the Spanish Frontier—Battle of Albuera—Battle of Fuentes d'Onoro—Escape of the Garrison of Almeida under General Bennier—The Command of the French Army of Portugal transferred from Massena, Duke of Rivoli, to Marimont, Duke of Ragusa—Badajoz besieged by the Allies—Siege raised—Battle of Barrosa—Ciudad Rodrigo invested by Lord Wellington—Retreat of the British Army—Gallant Exploit performed by General Hill at Arroyo del Molino—Siege and Storm of Tarragona—Fall of Valencia—Repulse of General Victor at Tarifa—Guerilla War—Court of Madrid—Cortes—CAMPAIGN OF 1812: Ciudad Rodrigo carried by Storm—Lord Wellington's Services in the Peninsula rewarded by an Earldom—Siege and Fall of Badajoz—Battle of the Bridge of Almaraz—Retreat of the French Army under the Duke of Ragusa—Forts of Salamanca stormed by the British—Battle of Salamanca—Madrid entered by the Allies—Siege of Burgos: raised—Retreat of the Allies, and Close of the Campaign.

FRANCE, after having, with unexampled rapidity, conquered the most powerful and firmly established states of Europe, by which she had not only extended her territory and increased her armies and her resources, but, what perhaps was of more moment, infused into her own soldiers a belief of invincibility, and into those of other nations a degrading and weakening feeling of infirmity, attacked a country, the inhabitants of which had long been declining both in patriotism and in valour; the armies of which were either in a wretched state of preparation and discipline, or actually at that moment at a distance from their country, and surrounded by the troops or the allies of the invaders; yet such was the buoyancy of the patriot cause, and such the deep-rooted indignation at the injustice and perfidy which had been practised towards the nations of the peninsula, that at the commencement of the year 1811, the object of the invaders of Spain and Portugal seemed more distant than at the period when Joseph Bonaparte first entered the Spanish capital. The singularity of the fact will appear the more extraordinary, when it is considered that the recognised King of Spain was a captive in the hands of the enemy; that the court of Lisbon had been expatriated; that a large proportion of the *grandees* of Spain had attached themselves to the cause of the usurper; that during the whole course of the struggle, not a single individual of pre-eminent talents had been produced either in a civil or military capacity; and that whenever the French and Spanish armies met, if the numerical force was nearly equal, the victory was always on the side of the invaders. The solution of this singular combination of events, is perhaps to be found in the difficulties that presented themselves in obtaining the pay and support of the invading armies in Spain and Portugal, in the hostility towards them being national, and in the

readiness with which the physical and the military energies of Portugal were placed at the disposal of Great Britain; but above all, in the efficient assistance rendered by this country to the patriot cause, and in the skill and enterprise of our military commanders, aided and made available by the courage, discipline, and constancy of their troops.

Early in the year 1811, intelligence was received by Lord Wellington at Cartaxo,* that a very numerous corps, amounting to nearly 15,000 men, were on their march to join Massena, Duke of Rivoli, at Santarem. The Portuguese general, Silveira, endeavoured to interrupt the march of this corps, and to harass them during their approach; but the Portuguese troops were not able to cope with the French, and Silveira was compelled to abandon his object, after having suffered severely for his temerity.

In no part of Spain, had the Spaniards displayed so little energy as in the kingdom of Andalusia. The people of Cadiz, contented with the security for which they were indebted to their situation, seemed little disposed to make any vigorous efforts against the besiegers. Marshal Soult, the Duke of Dalmatia, found himself at liberty to detach a force for the purpose of undertaking the siege of Badajoz. The skill of the French engineers, and the means which the army possessed, rendered the fall of that fortress inevitable, unless the garrison could be relieved by an army capable of meeting the besiegers in the field. To obtain any force equal to this undertaking, was found extremely difficult; the long-expected reinforcements from England had not arrived; the Spanish army in the south had endeavoured in vain to arrest the progress of the march of the French troops under Mortier; and the embarrassments of the allies were considera-

* See chap. xi. p. 132.

bly increased by the sudden death of the Marquis de la Romana.*

As a general, the talents of the marquis were not of the first order, but he was a real patriot, and a man of inflexible integrity. Unallured by the temptations held out to him by the enemy, he had served his country with zeal and fidelity; and he was snatched away at a moment when Lord Wellington was congratulating himself on having a colleague, to whose wise councils and co-operation his lordship was proud to acknowledge his obligations.

General Mendizabal, on whom the command of the army of the Marquis de la Romana now devolved, finding himself unable to resist the advance of the French army, retreated from Llerena, and threw three thousand men into the Olivença, a small fortress in Estramadura, which was placed under the command of Manuel Herk; but the garrison, though thus reinforced, surrendered on the 22d, after a very feeble resistance. Marshal Soult, having left Seville to direct the military operations in Estramadura in person, now advanced to Badajoz, and immediately invested that place; but, before the investment could be made complete, it was necessary to drive the Spanish army under Mendizabal from their position, and to close the communication with Fort San Christoval. For this purpose, the cavalry under Soult crossed the Guadiana, on the 19th of February, to co-operate with the infantry, which had been suffered to pass that river on the preceding night without opposition. At break of day, the French cavalry rushed upon the left wing of the Spaniards, and overthrew them, while General Girard attacked and carried the right, in spite of a vigorous resistance made by the flower of the patriot army. When Marshal Soult had ascertained the extent of the advantage gained on the right and left, he collected all his troops against the centre, and by this masterly manœuvre, forced a corps of six thousand Spaniards to lay down their arms, while the remainder of Mendizabal's army were either killed or dispersed.

This victory opened the gates of Badajoz to the besiegers. During the month of February, the fortress, however, was defended with much courage and ability; but in the last sortie made by the Spaniards, the governor, Don Raphael Menacho, was killed; and on the 11th of March, Don Josse de Imaz, his successor, surrendered

* The Marquis de la Romana died at Badajoz on the 23d of January, in a fit of apoplexy, with which he was seized at the moment when he was quitting his house to concert a plan of military operations with Lord Wellington.

this important fortress into the hands of the enemy; "and thus," in the words of Lord Wellington, "Olivença and Badajoz were given up without any sufficient cause; while Marshal Soult, with a corps of troops which was never supposed to exceed twenty thousand, besides capturing those two places, made prisoners and destroyed about twenty-two thousand Spanish troops."

A few days before the fall of Badajoz, Marshal Massena, who had maintained his station at Santarem from the 15th of November till the 5th of March following, broke up his cantonnements at that place, and commenced his retreat towards the Mondego. The pursuit by the British was rapid and immediate, but no operation of any importance took place till the 12th, when the 6th and 12th corps of the enemy took up a strong position at the end of a defile between Redinha and Pombal, where a smart engagement occurred, which ended in the retreat of the French to Condexa. This place again afforded another opportunity of rallying, which the necessity experienced by Massena, of resting and collecting his army, constrained him frequently to repeat, and his consummate skill enabled him successfully to accomplish.

The French army, continuing their retreat by the route of Guarda, passed the Coa on the 3d of April, and on the following day entered Spain. The army under Marshal Massena retreated from Portugal as they had entered it, in one solid mass, covering their rear, on their march, by the operation of two *corps d'armee*; and it is impossible to speak of the retreat, considered purely and exclusively in a military point of view, in any other than terms of the highest admiration. But while due praise must be given to the military skill which enabled the French general to retreat through a hostile and devastated country, with a large army pressing upon his rear, with comparatively small loss, the conduct of his army must be stigmatized as wantonly outrageous. From the moment the retreat commenced, the troops gave themselves up to a spirit of cruelty and rapine; and after inducing the inhabitants of many of the towns and villages through which they passed, to remain at their homes under the promise of good treatment, they plundered their property, and destroyed their habitations.

Almeida, which was now the only place in Portugal in the hands of the enemy, was immediately blockaded by the British troops; and Lord Wellington, under a persuasion that Massena would not for some time be in a situation to attempt the relief of that fortress, committed the com-

mand of his army to Sir Brent Spencer, while he took the opportunity of visiting the army of Estramadura, under Sir William Beresford. On the 15th of April, the fortress of Olivença had again opened its gates to the allies; and on the 22d of the same month, a conference took place between Marshal Beresford and Lord Wellington at Elvas, at which it was determined immediately to invest Badajoz, and to prosecute the siege of that place with vigour. Soon after the conference at Elvas, the hostile indications of the French army of Portugal recalled Lord Wellington to the north. The overflowing of the waters of the Guadiana delayed the operations against Badajoz till the 3d of May, and on the 12th of that month, Marshal Beresford* was under the necessity of raising the siege, in order to advance against Marshal Soult, who had left Seville on the 10th, and was marching to the Portuguese frontier in order to throw succours into the besieged fortress.

The British commander, who, on his way to Albuera, had been joined by the Spanish forces under Generals Castanos and Blake, drew up his army in two lines nearly parallel to the Albuera, on the ridge of the hill which gradually rises from that river. The allied forces consisted of eight thousand British, seven thousand Portuguese, and ten thousand Spaniards, comprehending in the whole not more than two thousand cavalry. Soult left Seville with sixteen thousand men, and had been joined on his route by a reinforcement of five thousand, under Latour Maubourg. At eight o'clock in the morning of the 16th, the enemy's troops were observed in motion, and his cavalry, of which he had at least four thousand, crossed the Ferdia, and formed under cover of the wood in the fork between two rivulets. A strong force of cavalry, with two heavy columns of infantry, then marched out of the wood, pointing towards the front of the allied position, as if to attack the village and bridge of Albuera; while, at the same time, their infantry filed over the river, under the protection of the cavalry. The intention of the enemy to turn the allies, and to cut off their communication with Olivença and Valverde, now became apparent, but this manœuvre was defeated by a counter-movement on the part of General Cole's division, and General Blake's forces. The attack commenced about nine o'clock, and while the French General Godinot made a false attack upon Albuera, Soult, with the rest of his army, bore on the right wing of

the allies. After a determined and gallant resistance, the Spaniards were forced from the heights, and the enemy, knowing the importance of this position, set up a shout of triumph, which reverberated through the hills, and was heard to the utmost extremity of the lines. The Spaniards displayed the utmost courage, but their want of discipline was felt, and a great error was undoubtedly committed in assigning to them that precise station upon which the fate of the whole army depended. No sooner had the Spaniards arrived at the bottom of the hill, than they rallied, while Colonel Colbourne brought up the right brigade of General Stewart's division for the purpose of repossessing the allies of the ground which they had lost. Finding that the enemy's column was not to be moved by their fire, they proceeded to an attack with the bayonet; but while in the act of charging, they were themselves suddenly turned, and attacked in the rear by a body of Polish lancers, armed with long lances, from the end of each of which is suspended a small red flag, which, while it is so carried by the rider as to prevent his own horse from seeing any other object, serves to frighten those horses to which he is opposed. Never was any charge more unexpected, or more destructive; the rain, which fell in torrents, and thickened the atmosphere, partly concealed the lancers in their advance, and those of the brigade who saw them approach, mistook them for Spanish cavalry, and therefore did not fire. A tremendous slaughter was made upon the troops thus surprised. The three regiments of Colonel Colbourne's brigade lost their colours at this time, but those of the Buffs were recovered, after signal heroism had been displayed in their defence.

The fate of the day at this moment was every thing but desperate; and nothing but the most determined and devoted courage saved the allies from a defeat, of which the consequences would have been more deplorable than the immediate slaughter. The third brigade, under Major-general Houghton, and General Cole's division, advanced to recover the lost heights, their officers declaring that they would carry the position, or perish in the attempt. General Houghton fell while leading on his brigade, and cheering his men as they advanced to the charge; and Sir William Meyers shared the same fate. The charge, though destructive, was successful. The fusileer and the royal Lusitanian brigades, though three thousand strong when they advanced to the charge, could not muster one thousand when they gained the eminence; two thousand men and sixty officers.

* A natural son of the Marquis of Waterford.—W. G.

including every lieutenant-colonel and field-officer in the assailing brigades, were either killed or wounded in this murderous charge. But the enemy in their turn, when they were forced down the declivity towards the river, suffered still greater slaughter, from the musketry and shrapnells of the allied army. The conflict ceased about three o'clock in the afternoon; and the combatants, on surveying the field, were struck with horror at the dreadful havoc they had made in each other's ranks.

Of all the battles of modern times, the battle of Albuera was one of the most fatal; the loss sustained by the allies, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, amounted to seven thousand, while the loss of the enemy exceeded that number. Few engagements have tended so much to exalt the character of the hostile armies in each other's estimation. The French exhibited the highest state of discipline; nothing could be more perfect than their manœuvres; no general could have wished for more excellent instruments; and no soldiers were ever directed with more consummate skill. All their advantages were, however, more than counterbalanced by the discipline and incomparable bravery of their enemies. The loss of the Buffs, and of the 78th regiment, was heavy in the extreme; the first of these corps went into action with twenty-four officers, and seven hundred and fifty rank and file, but on the following day there remained only five officers and thirty-four men to draw rations. Within the circumscribed space where the heat of the battle raged, not less than seven thousand men were stretched dead upon the field; and the rain which ran from the heights, literally reddened the rivulets with blood. General Verle, who, for twenty years, had been to Marshal Soult what Berthier was to Bonaparte—his faithful companion, and his confidential associate, fell, like General Houghton, charging at the head of his troops. The object of Soult, which was to raise the siege of Badajoz, was accomplished even before the battle commenced; and a barren and dearly purchased victory was the only reward of the allies for the danger they had incurred, and the dreadful slaughter they had sustained. On the 17th, Soult manœuvred on his right, under cover of his numerous cavalry, and having saved appearances, by continuing two days after the battle in the neighbourhood of Albuera, he withdrew towards Andalusia.

Several traits of courage, and devotion to the cause in which they were engaged, were exhibited by the British in the battle of Albuera. Ensign Thomas, who bore one of the flags, was surrounded by the enemy, and required to surrender his

charge—"Only with my life," was his answer, and his life was the immediate forfeit; but the standard thus taken was recovered. Ensign Walsh, who carried another colour, had the staff broken in his hand by a cannon-ball, and he fell at the same moment severely wounded; but more anxious for the honour of his regiment, than his own safety, he separated the flag from the shattered staff, and when his wound came to be dressed, it was found secure in his bosom. A captain in the 57th regiment, who was severely wounded, directed his men to lay him on the ground at the head of his company, and in this situation he continued to give his orders. Marshal Beresford, the commander of the allied army, in this sanguinary battle, exposed his person to the utmost hazard, and his life was saved only by his prowess and dexterity, which enabled him to dismount a Polish lancer at the moment when a deadly thrust was made at his person. (69)

(69) In the narratives given by Mr. Baines, of the operations of the war between France and the continental powers, he appears to have displayed considerable impartiality, and to have consulted the official accounts on each side, in order to furnish a correct estimate of the numbers engaged, as well as of the circumstances and actual result of every engagement. Where his own countrymen, however, are concerned, the case is very different. He seems to take for granted, every thing that is contained in the official despatch of a British commander, and sets it down accordingly in his book, without inquiring whether a different statement has been published on the opposite side. As the same degree of faith is not generally given, on this side of the Atlantic, to British despatches, we have thought it proper, whenever access could be had to French accounts, to annex them, that a more correct judgment might be drawn from a comparison of the respective narratives. Of the war in Spain, we believe few official accounts have been published by the French government, at least few have reached this country. The memoirs however of the French officers, of which several have appeared, generally supply the deficiency, and may, upon the whole, be considered as furnishing better materials for history, because written generally by eyewitnesses, and published since the abdication of Napoleon, and therefore not liable to the suspicion of having been composed under his dictation. From one of these,* we extract the following account of the battle of Albuera, which differs from the narrative in the text, as to the numbers of the hostile armies, and the comparative loss sustained.—"Shortly after the capture of Badajoz, intelligence was received that Lord Beresford, who commanded the Anglo-Portuguese army, had set himself down before that place, after getting possession of Olivença. On this news, Marshal Soult again collected the troops at Seville, and with several regiments which were in cantonments in Estremadura, hastened to the relief of

* *Memoires sur la guerre d'Espagne, par M. de Naylies, officier, &c. des Gardes du Corps de Monsieur.*—p. 290.

Reports that Marshal Massena was collecting his army to succour Almeida, had called Lord Wellington back to the north; and at daybreak on the 2d of May, the

Badajoz. His force was estimated at 16,000 foot and 4000 cavalry; at whose approach, Lord Beresford abandoned his lines, sent his baggage and heavy artillery to Elvas, and marched to meet the French army at Albuera, four leagues from Badajoz. His army amounted to about 45,000 men, including the Spanish corps of Castanos, Blake, and Ballesteros, recently arrived from Cadiz. He placed his centre on a ridge, which was connected with other heights occupied by the Spanish troops who formed the right wing, this point being the key of the position. The left wing rested on the village of Albuera. In front of the allied army, was a stream, stretching along the whole line, and fordable only above a stone bridge situate, in view of the town, on the road to Seville. General Beresford had not occupied the latter, but its approach was commanded by three batteries. Marshal Soult arrived, on the 15th of May, in sight of Albuera, and encamped in a wood within cannon shot of the village. Having reconnoitred the position of the allies, he perceived that the success of the battle would depend upon getting possession of the ridge on the right, in which, if he succeeded, he would be enabled to cut off the retreat of the enemy upon Olivença, and his communications with Elvas. In conformity with this plan, the French army began the attack on the morning of the 16th. Beresford comprehended the manœuvre of Marshal Soult, and reinforced his right wing, although his adversary wished to deceive him, by making a demonstration upon his centre and left. A great part of the French infantry under General Girard, crossed the stream above the bridge, and moved in solid column up the hill. The cries of 'forward' were heard in all quarters, and our troops advanced at a quick step upon the enemy's lines. They were received with so terrible and well directed a fire, that our columns were thinned in an instant, and a great number of generals and other superior officers, were killed outright. Our soldiers hesitated for a moment, and many were heard complaining aloud of the manœuvre. Disorder and confusion succeeded this want of subordination, and the English general was not slow in perceiving and profiting by it. Several battalions were brought to act against our infantry, which had broken its order of battle; they drove it back beyond the stream, behind which it formed, under the protection of the artillery. This fruitless attack cost us a great many lives. The 27th chasseur, the 2d and 10th hussars made some good charges, took several pieces of artillery and a considerable number of prisoners. The dragoons of General Latour Maubourg, who endeavoured to turn the enemy by Valverde de Legare, had also some partial success. The Polish lancers particularly distinguished themselves on this day, by their brilliant charges on the infantry. The novelty of their arms threw terror into the ranks of the enemy, whom they overthrew several times. The two armies reoccupied in the evening the same positions they had previously possessed, and remained in this state all the 17th. We had about 1500 killed and 4000 wounded; the loss of the enemy was not so great. The French army, being in want of provisions, commenced its retreat on the 18th, leaving in its bivouacs and on the field of battle, a part of its wounded."

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main body of the French army actually crossed the Agüeda, at Ciudad Rodrigo. On the 3d, the French troops marched in the direction of Almeida, and the allied army assembled near the small village of Fuentes d'Onoro, with the exception of General Pack's column, which was ordered to continue the blockade of Almeida. The British position formed a line extending beyond the brook of Onoro, on a hill: the left was supported by Fort Concepcion; the right, which was more accessible, was at Navedeaver, and the headquarters at Villa Formosa. In this position, the allied armies had the rocky bed of the Coa behind them, and only a single carriage communication by the little town of Castello Bom. The object of Massena was to seize this communication, and for that purpose he proceeded in force against the right of the allies, and attacked Fuentes d'Onoro, which stands partly in front of the hill, while with another part of his army, he kept the centre in check. The attack was not made till the afternoon of the 3d, when Lord Wellington, penetrating the plan of his antagonist, threw reinforcements into the village. The enemy had, at one time, obtained possession of the disputed post; but that advantage was wrested from him before night put a stop to the action.

The following day was employed by the French general in making dispositions for a renewal of the attack; and on the morning of the 5th, two of his columns appeared in the valley of the Duas Casas, opposite to Poço Velho, having the whole of his cavalry on his left, under General Montbrun. On the advance of this force, General Houston, to whom the protection of the passage had been confided, was compelled to retire with some loss. The French having thus established themselves in the village, their cavalry turned the right of the 7th division, between Poço Velho and Navedeaver, whence Don Julian, the Spanish general, had been obliged to fall back. Lord Wellington, finding his line too far extended, concentrated his troops, by which movement his lordship lost his communication with Sabugal, but he thus prevented the approach of the French to Almeida, which was the ultimate object of Massena's attacks. Generals Houston, Crawford, and Sir Stapleton Cotton, were now ordered to charge the enemy's centre, while the right wing fell on his rear; this operation, which was executed with the greatest precision, had a powerful influence in deciding the fate of the day. About the same time General Montrun charged the cavalry of the allied army in columns, and gained some advantage; but

this attack, upon which the French marshal built his hopes of complete victory, was not attended by any decisive result. Against Fuentes d'Onoro, which was in front of the left, the chief efforts of the French were directed, and this place was several times won and lost in the course of the day; but the enemy were finally driven through the village by Colonel Mackinnon, and when night closed upon the combatants, four hundred of their dead were lying in that place, which continued in possession of the allied troops. (70)

For two days after the battle of Fuentes d'Onoro, the hostile armies remained in their position, the French feeling no inclination to repeat an attempt in which they had already suffered so severely; and Lord Wellington, from the inferiority of his numbers, and the emaciated state of his cavalry, not choosing to risk a general action. On the night of the 7th, Massena, having entirely failed in his intention to relieve Almeida, crossed the Agueda, and left that fortress to its fate, but not till he had sent orders to General Brennier, the governor, to blow up the fortifications, and to retire with his garrison to San Felices. These orders, owing to the culpable remissness of that part of the allied army which was stationed before Almeida, General Brennier was enabled to execute: at ten o'clock on the night of the 10th, giving his men the watchword, "Bonaparte and Bayard," he quitted the garrison in silence, and on the 11th joined the French army with 1500 men on the Agueda.

(70) The failure of the French army to drive that of Lord Wellington from its position, is attributed, by an author from whom we have already quoted, to a mistake in directing the attack against the right, instead of the left, of the latter. "Such," he concludes, "was the result of this action, the glory of which certainly belonged to us, since we remained masters of a great part of the field of battle. It is difficult to comprehend how Lord Wellington, who has displayed so much prudence and caution in all his military combinations, could venture to give battle in such a position. It is true that Almeida was the price, and that the importance of this conquest justified great sacrifices. But with what disasters would not a defeat have been followed. Behind him, an enemy's fortress, and a deep and rapid stream, and further in the rear a country full of defiles, and of every kind of difficulties. Such is the ground on which he would have been obliged to retreat. The loss of his baggage, of his artillery, and of all his munitions, would have been the inevitable consequence; and a considerable check would have brought with it other misfortunes. The conduct of the English general can hardly be excused, but by supposing him badly informed as to the state of our force, which he may have believed to have been considerably reduced, and little able to contend against his own, at the close of a campaign so trying to our troops; but he was nigh paying dear for so mistaken a calculation."—*Campaign des Français en Portugal, &c.* p. 312.

The failure of Marshal Massena inflicted a severe wound upon the military renown of that general, and determined him to resign the command of an army which seemed doomed only to disaster. After having recrossed the Agueda, he left Spain on the plea of bad health, and was succeeded in his command by Marshal Marmont, Duke of Ragusa.

On the 16th of May, Lord Wellington set out from Almeida, and on the 19th arrived at Elvas, where he first received the report of the battle of Albuera. His lordship learned also, with pleasure, that Badajoz was again invested by the allies, and that Marshal Soult's army was in full retreat towards Seville, harassed in their rear by Marshal Beresford. Lord Wellington, on receiving this intelligence, immediately undertook the direction of the operations on the Guadiana, and on the night of the 29th of May, the trenches were opened before Badajoz. On the 6th of June, the breach made in Fort San Christoval was judged practicable. The assault was made in the evening of the same day, about ten o'clock; but, notwithstanding the valour of the assailants, such were the preparations made by the French governor, Philippon, and such the determined courage of his troops, that the besiegers, after three sanguinary assaults, were obliged to retire. The English engineers, it appears, had not taken the precaution to make themselves masters of the ditch; and the governor, availing himself of this omission, had despatched his miners to clear the fort of the breach, which was thus rendered to a certain extent impracticable. The firing against San Christoval was again renewed on the following morning, and continued to the 9th, in the evening of which day another assault was made; but similar obstacles again presented themselves, and the troops, after displaying an ardour and bravery worthy of a better result, were once more forced to desist from the enterprise. The fatal issue of these repeated assaults, combined with the formidable preparations now making by the French armies under Soult and Marmont, induced Lord Wellington to raise the siege of Badajoz, and to take up a position within the Portuguese frontier.

General Graham, to whom the command of the British forces in Cadiz was confided, finding that the besieging army before that city had been much weakened by drafts for the purpose of raising the siege of Badajoz, resolved to profit by this circumstance, and after destroying the works of the enemy, to open a communication with the island of Leon. With this design, an expedition was prepared, consisting of four thousand British, and eight thousand Spanish troops,

commanded by the Spanish General Don Manuel de Lapena, and under whom General Graham consented to act. On the 20th of February, the expedition sailed from Cadiz roads, and on the 27th the combined army was collected on the coast between Tarifa and St. Roque; but, owing to the almost impassable state of the roads, it was not till the 4th of March that they came in sight of the French posts near Chiclana. The commander of the allied army having succeeded in establishing a communication with the Isle of Leon, directed General Graham to move down from Barrosa towards the Torre de Bermeja, leaving some Spanish regiments, under Brigadier-general Begines, upon the heights. About noon on the 4th, the British troops began their march, and had proceeded about half-way down the hill into the middle of a wood, when they were informed that the enemy, who had appeared in force upon the plain, was advancing towards the heights of Barrosa. On these heights, which formed the key of the position of Santi Petri, a body of Spaniards had been left, and General Graham resolved to measure back his steps, and if possible to attain the heights before the enemy could dislodge his allies. At the time this counter-march commenced, part of the British force was entangled in the wood, and before they could extricate themselves from its mazes, General Graham had the mortification to see the Spaniards quit the heights, to which General Victor, with eight thousand troops, was rapidly advancing. The situation of General Graham's corps was now such, that it could be saved only by the prompt arrangement of a judicious plan of operations, aided by the cool and determined bravery of his troops. The nature of the ground at Barrosa precluded the operations from being seen at Bermeja, where the main body of the Spanish army was posted, and the arrangements were so incomplete, that the communication between the two branches of the allied army was not duly preserved. General Graham, perceiving that he had nothing to expect from the co-operation of General Lapena, determined instantly to attack the enemy.

The brigade of guards, the flank battalions of the 28th, two companies of the 2d rifle corps, with a part of the 57th regiment, formed the right, under Brigadier-general Dilkes. The left consisted of Colonel Wheatley's brigade, with three companies of the Coldstream guards, and Lieutenant-colonel Barnard's flank battalion; while a powerful battery of ten guns opened from the centre. The battery was directed principally against the right di-

vision of General Victor's army under General Leval, which, however, still continued to advance, till it was received and checked by the left wing of the British. The three companies of guards, supported by the remainder of the left wing, charged the enemy with so much bravery as to decide the fate of General Leval's division. In this rencontre, an imperial eagle decorated with honorary distinctions, and the first the British had ever won, was captured from the 8th regiment of light infantry. The left division of the French army, under General Rufin, who had now attained the summit of the hill, animated by their numbers and their advantageous position, advanced to meet the right of the British under General Dilkes. For a short time, the battle raged furiously, and the issue seemed doubtful, but the French troops, unable to withstand British steel, gave way, and General Rufin, who was mortally wounded in the charge, withdrew with his corps from the heights. In less than an hour and a half from the commencement of the battle, the whole of the French army was in full retreat; and such had been the sanguinary nature of the conflict, that, in that short period, four thousand men had fallen, twelve hundred of whom were British, and the remainder French troops. The disasters of the enemy in the battle of Barrosa were aggravated by the loss of three general officers—General Belgrade, who was killed, and Generals Rufin and Rousseau, who were mortally wounded and taken.

While the British troops were engaged on the hill of Barrosa, an attack was made upon General Lapena at Bermeja, by the French forces under General Villatte; but this effort produced no decisive result. The battle of Barrosa, like that of Albuera, proved an unprofitable though glorious achievement, and, owing to a want of energy, skill, and judicious combination on the part of the Spanish commander, the object of the expedition, which was to raise the siege of Cadiz, entirely failed. (71)

(71) We find the following account of this engagement, about which so much has been said in England, in M. de Naylor's *Memoirs*. "While our armies obtained such brilliant success in Estramadura, a very sanguinary battle was fought at Chiclana, on the 5th of March, between the corps of Marshal Victor, 6,000 strong, which occupied the lines before Cadiz, and an Anglo-Spanish force of 15,000 men, which had landed at Algeiras, to raise the siege. The French performed prodigies of valour, maintained their position, and forced the enemy to retire into the place; but they lost 2,000 men, many superior officers, and two generals. This exploit, so honourable to the French arms, was only one of many glorious actions which distinguished the brilliant career of the Duke of Belluno in Spain."

In the month of August, Lord Wellington, with the main body of the allied army, advanced along the banks of the Tagus to the frontier of Portugal, and on the 5th of September, his lordship completed the blockade of the fortress of Ciudad Rodrigo. On the 22d, the French army of the north, under General Dorsenne, formed a junction with Marshal Marmont at Tamames, on the banks of the Tormes. The combined army, thus augmented, amounted to sixty thousand men, while the allied army did not exceed fifty thousand. This disparity of strength induced Lord Wellington to raise the blockade of Ciudad Rodrigo, and to retire to Fonte Guinalda, between Guarda and the river Agueda. The French, having thrown supplies into Ciudad Rodrigo, fell back upon Salamanca, and in these positions the two hostile armies remained, without undertaking any further operations of importance, during the present year. But though the main armies went into winter-quarters early in October, a very brilliant achievement was performed by the corps under General Hill, stationed at Portalegra. On the morning of the 28th of October, a French corps under General Girard, on its march to the south of Spain, was surprised and attacked by General Hill, in the neighbourhood of Arroyo del Molinos, with so much vigour and effect, that the French force, which consisted of about two thousand five hundred infantry, and six hundred cavalry, was routed and dispersed, with the loss of more than two thousand men, fourteen hundred of whom were made prisoners.

About the beginning of the year 1811, a regular and systematic plan appears to have been formed by Bonaparte for conducting the war in Spain, one leading feature of which was the occupancy of all the principal cities in the peninsula. The French general employed for the purpose of carrying this project into execution in the east, was Suchet, a man of uncommon enterprise and activity. About the end of the month of April, General Suchet, at the head of forty thousand infantry, and from six to eight thousand horse, with a hundred pieces of cannon, and all the battering train necessary for a vigorous prosecution of the siege, appeared before Tarragona, the ancient capital of Citerior Spain, and on the night of the 4th of May, the place was completely invested on the land side. The siege was carried on with great vigour and success on the part of the French troops, while Don Juan Senen de Contreras, the governor, in daily expectation of being relieved by the Spanish army under General Campo Verde, made repeated sorties, and continued to defend the fortress

to the last extremity. On the night of the 21st of June, the trenches were opened, and on the 28th of that month, the breach having become practicable, the French determined to carry the place by storm. On the 26th, an English force from Gibraltar, under Colonel Skerritt, arrived off the coast of Catalonia, and a conference was held between the British commander and the Governor of Tarragona; but when Colonel Skerritt perceived the inadequate means of defence, and the danger to which the place was exposed, he declined to land his forces. Every thing seemed to conspire against this unfortunate fortress. The Marquis Campo Verde made no efforts to afford the besieged relief; a division under General Miranda, sent by the Valencians to succour the garrison, instead of entering Tarragona, joined the army under Campo Verde; and Colonel Skerritt, having received a report from the chief of his engineers and artillery, that the place was incapable of further resistance, returned on board his ship; and yet they had all been despatched to the relief of the fortress.* The garrison, which, up to the moment of the assault, had displayed the greatest heroism, became intimidated when the French entered the breach. In vain, did the officers attempt to rally their forces: the panic increased every moment; and the Spanish troops suffered themselves to be cut down by their own officers, rather than face the enemy, who were pursuing them in every direction, and butchering their victims in the street.* In proportion as the garrison receded, the enemy occupied the ramparts of the old and new enclosures, and descended into the streets, where they killed, wounded, or robbed every one, without distinction of class, age, or sex: and the tragedy would have been still more sanguinary, had not the French officers, in their generous and heroic exertions to restrain these excesses, exposed themselves to the violence and fury of their own soldiery. More than eighteen thousand men, French and Spaniards, perished during the siege.*

Such is the description of the fall of Tarragona, as given by the governor of that fortress, and that the picture is not overcharged, may be inferred from the despatches of the French general: "The rage of the soldiery," says Suchet in his description of the assault, "was increased by the resistance of the garrison, which every day expected deliverance, and wished to ensure its success by a general sortie. The horrible example which I foresaw, to

* Despatch from General Contreras to the Spanish minister at war.

my sorrow, and foretold in my last report, has been made, and will long be remembered in Spain. Four thousand men were slain in the town; from ten to twelve thousand attempted to escape into the country by leaping from the walls; but one thousand of them were cut to pieces or drowned. About ten thousand, five hundred of whom were officers, have been taken prisoners and marched into France. Nearly fifteen hundred lie wounded in the hospitals of this town, where their lives have been spared in the midst of the slaughter. The governor and three major-generals are among the prisoners. Several other superior officers are numbered with the dead. Twenty stands of colours, three hundred and eighty-four battering pieces, forty thousand cannon balls or bombs, and half a million of quintals of gunpowder and lead, are in our power.*

Marshal Macdonald, anxious to emulate the conduct of General Suchet, pressed the siege of Figueras with great vigour; and on the 19th of August, the Spanish General Martinez, after an unsuccessful attempt made on the night of the 16th, to carry the French lines, at the head of three thousand men, found himself obliged to surrender the fortress.

After the fall of Tarragona, Marshal Suchet advanced towards Valencia, and prepared to lay siege to the capital of that province. Here, as in every part of Spain, the spirit of the people was decidedly hostile to the French, but in no place had that spirit been more miserably misdirected than in Valencia. Instead of animating the people to deeds of military renown, they were directed, by a fanatical priesthood, not to ask for cannon and gunpowder, but to fly to their altars; and the Marquis del Palacio, Captain-general of the kingdoms of Arragon, Valencia, and Murcia, besought the army of Valencia to look up for protection to the "adorable and generous Madre de Desamparades, the queen of angels, under whose staff the kingdom would obtain deliverance." Suchet, disregarding the invincible staff of the queen of angels, marched, in full confidence of success, into Valencia, and on the 20th of September laid siege to Murviedro, the ancient Saguntum. General Blake, one of the members of the regency of Spain, who at this time commanded an army of upwards of twenty thousand men, advanced from the city of Valencia to the relief of Murviedro. On the 24th, about noon, the Spanish general arrived with his army on the height of El Puig, and on the fol-

lowing morning the hostile armies met in the field. For some time the battle raged with great fury, but the ardour of the left division of General Blake's army, under Carlos O'Donnell, having separated that division from the other columns, the battalions were thrown into confusion, and it was found impossible to retrieve the fortunes of the day. This action, though one of the best general engagements that had been fought by the Spaniards, was most unfortunate in its result; the loss of General Blake amounted to about seven thousand men, of which number nearly five thousand were made prisoners. The French general, profiting by the victory of El Puig, hastened back to Murviedro, and the governor, despairing of succour, surrendered, after a siege of a few days, a place which had so long resisted the efforts of a powerful army under Hannibal.

The day after the surrender of this fortress, Marshal Suchet, continuing his victorious career, advanced to Valencia, and summoned that city to surrender; but the marshal, as celebrated for his dexterity as a courtier as for his intrepidity as a soldier, proceeded very slowly in his operations against this place, hoping in the issue to shed so much splendour around the conquest, as to obtain a dukedom, in addition to the marshal's staff which had been awarded to him on the fall of Tarragona. After fifty days spent in preparation for the passage of the Guadalaviar, the French crossed that river in the night of the 25th of December, in the face of the army of General Blake, and almost without resistance. The investment of Valencia, in which the Spanish army was now shut up, was completed before the close of the 26th, and Suchet, availing himself of these advantages, by which the Spaniards had so little profited, secured in every direction the canals and fosses against a sortie. Still the lines remained, which the Valencians had for three years been employed in constructing; but after all this labour and expense it was discovered that these works were untenable. While success thus continued to attend every effort of the enemy, General Blake resolved to make an attempt to escape from the fortress, with the army under his command; but the inhabitants, having obtained information of this intention, compelled him to give up the project, and to remain in patient expectation of a fate which he no longer seemed disposed to avert. The trenches being now prepared, they were opened on the 1st night of the new year, and on the 4th of January, 1812, they had advanced within fifty toises of the ditch. The desertions from the Spanish army had now become so numerous,

* General Suchet's despatches, dated Tarragona, June 29th, 1811.

that the garrison was under the necessity of abandoning their lines, leaving behind them eighty pieces of cannon. Animated to the highest degree by the success of his operation against a place which at that moment contained a population of two hundred thousand souls, Marshal Suchet continued to prosecute the siege with the utmost vigour. For three days and nights, the bombardment was incessant; and on the 8th of January, General Blake, wishing to spare Valencia the horrors of a storm, consented to capitulate. By the terms of capitulation, the troops became prisoners of war; the inhabitants and their property were to be protected, and the French prisoners in Majorca, Alicant, and Carthagea, were to be exchanged. In virtue of these stipulations, sixteen thousand efficient troops of the line, exclusive of two thousand in the hospitals, eighteen hundred cavalry and artillery horses, twenty-two generals, nine hundred officers, and three hundred and seventy-four pieces of cannon, were surrendered into the hands of the enemy.

The fall of Valencia, which obtained for Marshal Suchet the title of Duke of Albufera,* terminated the military career of General Blake: repeatedly and severely as he had felt the want of discipline in his troops, he pertinaciously resisted every attempt on the part of the English to regenerate the armies of Spain; and even with the example of Portugal before his eyes, he seemed determined rather to sacrifice his country than to subdue his national pride. But amidst all his errors and misfortunes, he obtained the character of a brave man and a real patriot; and his last despatch, in which he considers captivity to be his future lot, and consigns his numerous family to the protection of the state, cannot fail to awaken feelings of regret and commiseration.

While the events in Valencia doomed the Spanish commander to exile, fortune afforded Colonel Skerrett a favourable opportunity to remove the stigma cast upon his character by the Governor of Tarragona. Marshal Soult, sensible of the advantages to be derived from the occupation of Tarifa, ordered Marshal Victor to detach a corps of ten thousand men to obtain possession of that place. On the 20th of December, General Leval, to whom the expedition was intrusted, invested Tarifa on the land side, the other being the exclusive dominion of the allies. The garrison, which was under the command of Colonel Skerrett, consisted of about twelve hun-

dred English troops, with nearly an equal number of Spaniards. On the 25th, the trenches were opened, at a distance of a hundred and fifty fathoms from the place, and on the 29th the besiegers directed their batteries against the works. On the 31st, the breach being judged practicable, a strong French column, composed of grenadiers and voltigeurs, advanced, about eight o'clock in the morning of that day, to the assault. The attack, which was made with great energy and perseverance, was so gallantly resisted by the garrison, that the besiegers were at length obliged to retire, leaving the ground covered with their slain. This repulse proved so decisive, that on the night of the 4th the French retired from before the place in silence, leaving behind them part of their artillery, and all their besieging implements.

The junta of Seville, in the very infancy of the peninsular war, perceived that the real strength of the Spanish nation was to be found rather in her people than in her armies. Under this impression, they proclaimed a Moorish war—*Guerra de Moros contra estos infideles*; and reminded the Spaniards of the manner in which their fathers had exterminated a former race of invaders. The country, they said, was to be saved by killing their enemies day by day, just as they would rid themselves of a plague of locusts. The work would be slow in its progress, but sure in its issue, and the nation would thus be brought to the martial pitch of those times when it was a recreation to go forth and seek the Hagarenes. The old Castilian names were revived, for skirmishes, ambushes, assaults, and stratagems—*escaramuzas, celadas, rebatos, arides*, the necessary resources of domestic warfare, and the people were assured that the nature of the country, and the manners of the inhabitants, rendered Spain invincible. Whenever the Spaniards had no army, the contest assumed this character; and, from the moment that the French were masters of the field, and would in any other country have considered their conquest as complete, from that moment a wasting war commenced, against which discipline was of no avail, and which must ultimately consume any military power, however formidable. Every day, some post of the invaders was surprised, or some escort cut off; plunder was recovered, despatches were intercepted, and above all, vengeance was taken. In every part of Spain, leaders started up, who collected about them the most determined spirits: Don Ventura Ximenez extended his incursions from Badajoz to Toledo; Don Julian Sanchez was the terror of the enemy in Old Castile and

* The name of a lake in the vicinity of the city of Valencia.

Leon; Porlier distinguished himself in the Asturias; Mina began a glorious career in Navarre; and Don Juan Martin, the Empecinado, from the mountains of Guadalupe, baffled all the efforts of the French in Madrid, and alarmed King Joseph for his personal safety. Followers in great numbers were found to join in this guerilla war—induced, not only by the stimulating properties of a life of outlawry, but by a spirit of patriotism, and a thirst for vengeance.

To follow these bands through their predatory hostilities, is impossible, but it is a fact well ascertained, that their operations were more fatal and destructive to the enemy than the battles fought by the main armies—the armies seldom met, but the guerillas were at all times in active operation. Every Spaniard regarded the public cause as his own private quarrel, and the French troops had almost as many individual enemies to fight, as the Spanish peninsula contained inhabitants.* The priests hated the invaders from patriotism and from interest; and the people, so far from considering the French in the light of deliverers, for abolishing the inquisition and reducing the religious orders, hated them the more on that very ground. The religious people could not conceive how institutions, which they regarded as having always existed, could ever cease; and in these times of misfortune, every change made by an enemy's hand was regarded as an act of impiety. The terror of the French arms conferred no influence around them. The enemy being spread over the whole country, the different points occupied by the French were all, more or less, threatened, and the invaders were not in reality masters of more ground than that they actually trod upon. The length of the war had no effect upon the Spaniards; their hatred was inextinguishable, and in some provinces, the husbandman guided his plough with one hand, while he held a sword, always unsheathed, in the other, and which was only buried at the approach of the French, if they were too numerous to be assailed by the rustic warriors. Like avenging vultures, eager for prey, the Spaniards frequently followed the French columns at a distance, to murder such of the soldiers as, fatigued or wounded, remained behind. When the French sought to revenge the death of their comrades, the inhabitants fled, and nothing was found in the villages but deserted dwellings, on which the invaders

could not wreak their fury without destroying the places that were to afford them future shelter. This desultory and incessant warfare damped the ardour of the French soldier, and made him pant for the termination of the inglorious contest.*

In the mean time, the situation of the court of Madrid was deplorable in the extreme. Sick of his humiliating situation, Joseph Bonaparte paid a visit to France, to represent to his brother the exhausted state of the public treasury, and the daily and increasing difficulties and embarrassments of his situation; but Moscow, instead of Madrid, now occupied the attention of the Emperor Napoleon, and all that could be awarded to Joseph on his return to Spain, was a further supply of troops, for the support of which, in a country already exhausted, his motley administration was directed to supply the means.

The difficulties felt by the cortes were little inferior to those experienced by the intrusive government of Madrid. The chief pecuniary resources of the Spaniards, in the early stages of the contest, were drawn from their South American possessions; but owing to the spirit of independence which had begun to manifest itself in the colonies, this source of revenue was nearly dried up, and the internal supplies of Spain were reduced by the presence of the enemy to insignificance. Much good however was effected by the cortes: a constitution was formed, founded upon the declaration "that Spain belongs to the Spanish people, and is not the patrimony of any family;" the use of the torture was abolished by acclamation; feudal jurisdictions were destroyed; and the African slave-trade was prohibited.

The year 1811, although one of the most sanguinary epochs in the history of Spain, was crowned with no results decisive of the contest in the peninsula. On the western frontier of that kingdom, Britain had gained little except glory. In the east, the most unexpected misfortunes had befallen the Spaniards, and those provinces which, in the early part of the war, had been the theatre of the bravest resistance, were almost entirely subjugated. A desire to relieve this fine country from the presence of an enemy by which it was overrun, formed one great inducement with the British commander to open the campaign of 1812 at an early period of the year, and with a spirit of enterprise which promised the most brilliant issue.

It was necessary to the plan of operations which Lord Wellington had formed, that he should, in the first place, make him-

* Memoirs of the war of the French in Spain, by M. de Rocca, a French officer of Hussars, and knight of the order of the legion of honour.

* M. de Rocca.

self master of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz. Early in the month of January, therefore, the allied army crossed the Agueda, and on the 8th, the first of these fortresses was invested. General Hill was in the mean time detached against Dombrowski, who was posted at Merida, and who retreated with precipitation on the approach of the British. The British general next proceeded against Drouet, who commanded the fifth division of the French army, at Almendralejo; but this officer, having been apprized of these movements, retired upon Zafra, abandoning his stores and ammunition. By these operations, Marmont and Soult were effectually separated; the country between the Tagus and Guadiana was cleared of the enemy; Drouet was thrown back on Llerena; and Badajoz, which was soon to be attacked, was reduced to the utmost extremity for want of provisions. Lord Wellington was thus left to pursue his operations against Ciudad Rodrigo; and on the evening of the very day on which the siege was begun, a detachment of the division under Lieutenant-colonel Colbourne, of the 52d regiment, stormed and carried the redoubt on the hill of St. Francisco, took some prisoners, and put their comrades to the sword. These important successes enabled the British to break ground near the works. On the evening of the 14th, a fire was opened from the first parallel with twenty-two pieces of ordnance, and three batteries; and on the same evening, the besiegers established themselves in the second parallel, within a hundred and fifty yards of the place. In ten days after the opening of the siege, the approaches were completed; several breaches were made in the wall; and the resolution was taken to carry the works by storm. The storming parties, in five separate columns, composed of the 3d and light divisions of the army, and of Brigadier-general Pack's brigade, were ordered to advance. Lieutenant-general Picton, and Major-general Crawford, took a conspicuous part in the operations, and the efforts of all the columns were crowned with success. The loss of the British in this brilliant affair amounted to about twelve hundred killed and wounded; but the conquest was of great importance in the present state of the campaign, and reflected the highest honour on the assailants. In the short space of ten days, one of the strongest fortresses on the Portuguese frontier had thus been wrested from the enemy; and the satisfaction which this triumph diffused over the country, was enhanced by the favourable report which the British commander gave of the patriotism of the Spanish people.

The honour of an earldom, accompanied by an additional parliamentary grant of two thousand a year, was conferred upon Lord Wellington, in consideration of the eminent and signal services performed by his lordship in the campaigns in Spain and Portugal; and, by a singular coincidence, it so happened, that as the services of the gallant earl were the latest object of reward conferred by the royal authority before it was placed in abeyance, so the reward of those services was the first act that emanated from the unlimited exercise of the sovereign power in the person of the prince-regent. In those countries where the governments had the most immediate means of appreciating the merits of Lord Wellington, honours and riches were showered down upon him with a degree of liberality that sufficiently indicated the estimation in which his services were held. In addition to the title of Conde de Vimiera, and the rank of Marshal of the kingdom of Portugal, a reward of 12,000*l.* a year was offered to his lordship by the regency; and in Spain, the elevated office of captain-general, with which he was invested by the government, was accompanied by a salary of five thousand a year. These pecuniary rewards, though offered by foreign gratitude, were declined by the distinguished person on whom they were bestowed: "No," said his lordship, "in the present situation of Spain and Portugal, I will not receive these munificent donations; I have only done my duty to my country, and to my country alone I will look for a recompense."*

As soon as Lord Wellington had repaired the works of Ciudad Rodrigo, and Marshal Marmont, who had advanced to give him battle, had again retired, and cantoned his army on the banks of the Tormes, his lordship moved towards Badajoz with a determination to push the siege with vigour, and to direct the operations in person. By the middle of March, this fortress was completely invested, the first parallel having been formed within two hundred yards of the outworks of La Picorina. On the 19th, the garrison made a sortie against the right of the British works, but were instantly repulsed with considerable loss by Major-general Bowes. On the 25th, the besiegers carried Fort La Picorina by storm, and put the garrison to the sword. The progress which had thus been made, is unexampled in the history of sieges. By the 6th of April, no less than three breaches had been made, which were considered practicable; and the storming of

* Mr. Canning's speech in the house of commons.

the place was immediately determined upon. Lieutenant-general Picton, with the third division, was ordered to attack the castle of Badajoz by escalade; Major Wilson, with a detachment from the fourth division, was to assail the ravelin of St. Rocque; Major-general Colville, with the remainder of the 4th, and the light division, was to attack the bastions of La Trinidad and Santa Martha; and the conduct of a false attack was committed to Lieutenant-general Leith, with instructions to turn it into a real assault, should circumstances prove favourable.

About ten o'clock in the night of the 6th of April, General Picton set out on his arduous enterprise. He crossed the river after some resistance, and in the short space of an hour and a half was master of the castle of Badajoz. Major Wilson, with two hundred men, carried the ravelin of St. Rocque. The light division, advancing to the covered way, descended into the ditch, and proceeded to storm the breaches; but such were the obstacles which the contrivance of the enemy had thrown in the way, that although the assault was often renewed, the British troops were unable to establish themselves in the place. The false attack, however, under General Leith, was converted into a real one; and the besiegers, having succeeded at all points except at the bastions, the light division was drawn off. Both the castle and the town were now in possession of the British. The French governor, General Philippon, with his staff, retired into Fort St. Christoval, and surrendered on the following day. The garrison, which amounted originally to five thousand men, had lost twelve hundred killed and wounded in the previous operations, besides that those perished in the assault. The British and Portuguese sustained a loss of two thousand eight hundred killed and wounded, a loss which must be thought considerable, notwithstanding the value of the service, and the rapidity of the operations. Thus, had the allied army, in the short space of one month, reduced a great fortress, improved by all the resources of art, and defended by a strong garrison.

The sagacity of Lord Wellington in pressing the siege of Badajoz with so much vigour, soon became manifest: Soult was rapidly advancing to the relief of this important fortress; and Marmont, after an unsuccessful attempt to carry Ciudad Rodrigo and Almeida by a *coup-de-main*, was marching into the interior of Portugal. The British commander, feeling the necessity of promptitude of action, instantly moved forward to check the progress of Soult; but that officer, having, on his ar-

rival in Estramadura, been apprized of the fall of Badajoz, measured back his steps into Andalusia. Marmont's advance was checked at Castle Branco, by the progress of the British arms, and his retreat precipitated by the apprehension that the fall of the fortresses would leave the conquerors at liberty to follow up their success, and press upon his rear. Such, was the auspicious opening of a campaign which was yet to exhibit events still more brilliant.

Marmont was now at Salamanca, Drouet at Aguazel, and Soult at Seville. Lord Wellington, in prosecuting the ulterior operations of the campaign, directed his efforts in the first place to break up entirely the communication between these armies; and for this purpose, General Hill was despatched to destroy the bridge of Almaraz, which, crossing the Tagus on the northern frontier of Estramadura, formed the only remaining line of connection below Toledo. On his approach to the Tagus, General Hill found the bridge strongly protected, both sides of the river being provided with works, which the enemy had thrown up, while the castle and redoubts of Mirabet added much to the difficulty of the enterprise. Finding it impossible, owing to the bad state of the roads, to arrive at an hour sufficiently early to form his columns before daybreak, the French were of course fully apprized of his intention, and opened a heavy fire on the advancing corps; but the British, undismayed by this resistance, made an assault upon the fort, by which the left bank of the river was protected. In a moment, the works were escaladed at three different points, and carried at the point of the bayonet. The enemy, incapable of withstanding this fatal instrument, fled in all directions, and attempted to escape by the bridge; but their comrades, on the opposite bank of the river, had already cut off the communication, and those who had escaped destruction by the bayonet, perished in the stream.

All the operations of the French generals, during the present campaign, strikingly illustrated the talents and enterprise of their adversary; and their movements were generally made when the object of those movements was no longer attainable. Thus Marmont advanced to the relief of Ciudad Rodrigo, when, to his astonishment, that fortress was already reduced: thus, also, did Soult march to the relief of Badajoz, when the works had been stormed and carried; and thus did Marmont now move tardily to the protection of the bridge of Almaraz, when the communication across the Tagus had been destroyed. These

movements, which exhibited the appearance of distraction rather than of system, proved the entire dependence of the French operations on those of their enemies, while they evinced at the same time the paramount genius of the British commander, which was now rising to its meridian altitude.

Every preparation having been made for the advance of the British army into Spain, Lord Wellington crossed the *Agueda* on the 13th of June, and on the 16th arrived in the neighbourhood of *Salamanca*. *Marmont*, contrary to the general expectation, retired with the main body of his army from that city without attempting its defence, and took up a position on the eastern bank of the *Tormes*. Having collected his whole force, he moved forward on the 20th, with the apparent design of offering Lord Wellington battle; but the British army was found to be so advantageously situated, that the enemy again retired, leaving the forts of *Salamanca*, the defence of which had been confided to about eight hundred men, to their fate. Owing to the want of the necessary implements, and to a defective supply of ammunition, the reduction of these forts proved a work of greater difficulty than was at first anticipated. On the 23d, General *Bowes*, who was ordered to carry *Fort San Cayetano* by storm, was wounded at the commencement of the action; but the moment his wound was dressed, he returned to the assault, and in a fresh attack gloriously, but unprofitably, perished at the head of his brigade. The arrival of a supply of ammunition having enabled the besiegers to renew their efforts, the breach in the principal fort became practicable on the 27th, when *La Merced* and *San Cayetano* were carried by storm, and *San Vincente* capitulated. These convents, which had been converted into forts, served as depôts for clothing and stores, the whole of which fell into the hands of the British. Lord Wellington himself, when he examined the works, expressed his surprise at the rapidity with which they had been carried, and the French marshal was, as usual, filled with astonishment.

The great event so long expected was now approaching, but a new series of manœuvres was first to be executed. Marshal *Marmont*, presuming upon his experience in the art of war, hoped, by a combination of skilful movements, to draw the allies from *Salamanca*, and to cut off their communication with *Ciudad Rodrigo*; while the object of Lord Wellington was to frustrate this purpose, by counter-movements.

On the morning of the 21st of July, the whole British army was concentrated

on the *Tormes*, and in the afternoon of that day, the enemy crossed that river, and advanced in the direction of *Salamanca*. Two armies, each amounting to about fifty thousand men,⁽⁷²⁾ moving in so small a space of ground, must soon come to a general engagement; and this result was hastened by the intelligence received by Lord Wellington on the night of the 21st, that General *Clausel* was advancing with the cavalry and the horse artillery of the northern army, and that he would form a junction with *Marmont*, within two days from the time at which the accounts reached his lordship.—During the night of the 21st, the enemy had taken possession of the village of *Calvarosa d'Arabi*, and of the neighbouring height; the allied army being in possession of *Calvarosa d'Abexo*: and soon after daylight in the morning of the 22d, the enemy's position was materially strengthened by a successful effort to obtain possession of the more distant of two hills from the British right, called *Dos Arapiles*.

After a variety of evolutions and movements, *Marmont*, who seems to have determined upon his plan of operations about two o'clock in the afternoon of the 22d, extended his left, under cover of a heavy cannonade, and moved forward his troops, apparently with an intention to embrace that single post of the *Arapiles* which Lord Wellington occupied, and thence to attack and break his line. In the execution of this operation, the French marshal, in person, advanced to the ridge to remedy some irregularities in his divisions, at which moment he was struck by a shell, which broke his right arm and made two large wounds in his side: under the torture of these wounds he was obliged to retire from the field, leaving the command of his army to General *Clausel*.* This extension of the enemy's line, however bold and judicious, comprised within itself the elements of his defeat; and gave to the allied army an opportunity of attacking him to advantage, for which Lord Wellington had long been waiting. His lordship, seizing the opportunity, instantly reinforced his right with the 5th division, under Lieutenant-general *Leith*, which he placed behind the village of *Arapiles*, on

(72) The comparative force of the two armies is here grossly mistated. Most of the French writers on the subject of this campaign, represent the numbers of their army at about 35,000, and those of the allies at not less than 80,000; and when we consider the great drafts made by Napoleon for his Russian campaign, the accounts of the latter will appear most likely to be true.

* Report of Marshal the Duke of *Ragusa* to the French minister at war.

the right of the 4th division, with the 6th and 7th divisions in reserve. As soon as these troops had taken their stations, Lord Wellington detached Major-general Pakenham to move forward with the 3d division; and General D'Urbans, with two squadrons of the 14th light dragoons, under Lieutenant-colonel Hervey, to turn the enemy's left on the heights; while Brigadier-general Bradford's brigade, the 5th division under Lieutenant-colonel Leigh, the 4th division under the Hon. Major-general Cole, and the cavalry under Sir Stapleton Cotton, were ordered to attack in front; supported in reserve by the 6th division under Major-general Clinton, and the 7th division under Major-general Hope; the Spanish division of Don Carlos d'Espagna, and Brigadier-general Pack's division, being at the same time ordered to support the left of the 4th, by attacking the position of Dos Arapiles.

By these movements, Lord Wellington extricated his army from the danger of being outflanked, and instead of continuing to act on the defensive, actually became the assailant. The meditated attack on the enemy's left was now made, and General Pakenham, fully comprehending the plan of his commander, formed the third division across the enemy's flank, and overthrew every thing that opposed him. These troops were supported, in the most gallant style, by the Portuguese cavalry and Lieutenant-colonel Hervey's squadron, who defeated every attempt made by the enemy on the flank of the third division. At the same time, Brigadier-general Bradford's brigade, the fourth and fifth divisions, and the cavalry under Lieutenant-general Sir Stapleton Cotton, attacked the enemy in front, and drove his troops before them from height to height. This attack, which had been combined with much skill, and executed with so much bravery, became irresistible; but General Pack was less fortunate; all his efforts to obtain possession of the Dos Arapiles failed, except in diverting the attention of the enemy's corps, placed on that eminence, from the troops under the command of Lieutenant-general Cole. The cavalry, under Lieutenant-general Sir Stapleton Cotton, made a brilliant charge against a body of infantry, which they overthrew and out to pieces; but this success was dearly purchased by the loss of that "most noble officer,"* Major-general Le Marchant, who fell at the head of his brigade.

After the crest of the height had been carried, one division of the enemy's infan-

try made a stand against the 4th British division, which was obliged to give way, and Lieutenant-general Cole was severely wounded in the retreat. The French now redoubled their efforts to regain the ground which they had lost, and Marshal Sir William Beresford, and General Leigh, who were appointed to support General Cole, having both been wounded, the expectations of the French became sanguine; but at this critical moment, General Clinton, at the head of the 6th division, marched to their assistance, and restored the former success. Still, the contest continued to rage: the enemy's right, reinforced by the troops which had fled from his left, and by those which had retired from the Arapiles, maintained their ground. Lord Wellington, seeing the determined stand made by the enemy at this point, ordered the reserve, consisting of the 1st and light divisions, and the brigades under Colonel Stubbs and Major-general Anson, to turn the right, while the 3d and 5th attacked the front. At length, this bravely contested point was carried, and the enemy fled through the woods towards Tormes; but night, which had now come on, rendered the pursuit difficult, and favoured the escape of the retreating army.

On the 23d, the pursuit was renewed; when the allies were enabled to reach the enemy's rear-guard near Le Serna. Here, a desperate charge was made upon the fugitives by the brigades of cavalry under Generals Bock and Anson, which was completely successful, and the whole body of the infantry, consisting of three battalions, were made prisoners. The pursuit was continued until the evening of the 23d, and extended as far as Peneranza; while the scattered remains of Marmont's army passed through Flores d'Avila towards Valladolid, where they were joined by the cavalry and artillery of the north. It is difficult to estimate the enemy's loss in the battle of Salamanca; but it probably amounted to about thirteen thousand men, of whom seven thousand were prisoners, including one general, three colonels, three lieutenant-colonels, and a hundred and thirty officers of inferior rank; and in addition to which, eleven pieces of cannon, two eagles, and six standards, were taken. Such a victory could not be achieved without a heavy loss on the side of the allies, but it was not of a magnitude to distress the army, or to cripple its operations. The total loss of killed, wounded, and missing, in the allied army, amounted to five thousand two hundred and twenty, of whom three thousand one hundred and seventy-six were British; two thousand

* Lord Wellington's despatches.

and thirty-six Portuguese; and six Spaniards.

In reporting the disastrous issue of this battle to the French minister at war, Marshal Marmont says, "It is difficult to express the different sentiments which agitated me at the fatal moment, when the wound which I received caused me to be separated from my army. I would with delight have exchanged this wound for the certainty of receiving a mortal stroke at the close of the day, on the condition that the faculty of command should have been preserved to me during the battle; so well did I know the importance of the movements which had just taken place, and how necessary the presence of the commander-in-chief was at the moment when the shock of the two armies was approaching. Thus, one unfortunate moment has deprived me of the labours of six weeks of wise combinations."

The battle of Salamanca was distinguished from all other battles hitherto fought in the peninsula, by several important circumstances: it was more masterly in the design, more gallant in the execution, and followed by consequences of far greater importance. By the reduction of the strong fortresses at the beginning of the campaign, and the separation of the French armies, the contending parties were placed in an attitude towards each other, very different from that in which they formerly stood, and incomparably more favourable to the allies. In the former battles, the allies had acted in a great measure upon the defensive, and by a display of bravery, had, in very unfavourable circumstances, repulsed the enemy; but here their triumphs might be said to end. A battle however had now been fought, which united at once all that was brilliant, with all that was useful. While one of the mightiest hosts of the enemy had been dispersed, his other armies were disjoined; the capital of Spain was laid open; and an opportunity was offered to the Spaniards themselves to come forward and seal the deliverance of their country. But all hopes founded upon their simultaneous exertions proved illusory. If the Spaniards loved the independence of their nation much, they loved their own ease still more; if they hated the French, they contented themselves with showing their hatred by an irregular and petty warfare, marked with features of ferocity, which could scarcely be justified, even when practised against their invaders.

Lord Wellington having left a force at Valladolid, under General Paget, to watch the motions of the enemy, advanced with the main body of his army to the Spanish

capital. Joseph Bonaparte, who had under his command about twenty thousand troops, hastily evacuated Madrid on the approach of the British, and retreated to Amaroza, on the frontiers of Valencia and Murcia; a position from which he could communicate either with Soult or with Suchet. On the 12th of August, the British army entered the capital; the Retiro, garrisoned by fifteen hundred men, immediately surrendered, while Guadalaxara was at the same time taken by the Empecinado. Intelligence was also received, that an army of sixteen thousand men, consisting of British and Neapolitan troops from Sicily, with some Spaniards from Majorca, had reached the eastern coast of Spain, and disembarked at Alicante, under the command of General Maitland.

The allies found at Madrid about two hundred pieces of ordnance, nine hundred barrels of gunpowder, and twenty thousand muskets. The joy of the inhabitants was unbounded; the whole population came out to meet their deliverers; and every individual embraced either the officers or the soldiers. The 12th of August was a day of universal jubilee, and in the evening, the ancient form of government, the cortes and Ferdinand VII. were proclaimed anew, in the midst of the acclamations of the whole city. But political events are to the inhabitants of a great metropolis, what winds are to the sea. The enthusiasm of the Spaniards, which appeared so universal on the entrance of the allied army, vanished when Lord Wellington solicited a loan of two millions of piastres.* This attempt to raise contributions upon the impoverished Castilians, as might have been foreseen, entirely failed, and instead of enriching the military chest, lowered the British general in the estimation of the inhabitants.

The recovery of Madrid was not the only immediate consequence of the battle of Salamanca. The raising of the siege of Cadiz was another, which might have been turned to very great advantage by the Spaniards. Marshal Soult now became convinced, "that there would be no way of preserving Spain, but by abandoning Andalusia for a time;†" under this persuasion, the siege of Cadiz was raised on the 25th of August, and the army of the south was united with the French forces of the north, the centre, and the east.

The disasters of the French in Spain had hitherto arisen in a great measure from their separate and ill-combined plans

* The Spanish piastre is of the value of 3s. 7d. sterling.

† Letter of Marshal Soult to Joseph Bonaparte.

of operation; but they now determined to profit by experience, and, if possible, to avoid so flagrant an error in future. Their whole force, under Clausel, the successor of Marmont, Suchet, Soult, and Joseph Bonaparte, amounted to a hundred and fifty thousand effective troops; and by their present plan of operation, Clausel's army, reinforced by the troops from Biscay, was to move in the direction of Burgos, to watch the British forces destined for the siege of that fortress, while Soult, with Joseph Bonaparte and Suchet, should advance upon Madrid, and compel the allies to evacuate that capital.

The presence of Lord Wellington was now required in the north, and on the 1st of September, his lordship quitted Madrid, with the determination to lay siege to Burgos. On the 19th, Lord Wellington reconnoitred the works, and on the following night General Pack carried the enemy's horn works by assault, and established himself on the hill of St. Michael. This service was performed with the same success which had marked all the other operations of the army; but so thick was the darkness, that some mistakes were made by the assailants, in consequence of which their loss was more than usually severe, amounting at least to three hundred men. The French stationed in the works were five hundred in number, only sixty-three of whom were made prisoners, the remainder having all perished in the fury of the assault. The rapidity of Lord Wellington's advance had prevented him from bringing up his heavy artillery, without which nothing but the imperious necessity which he felt at this time for the most vigorous operations, could have justified him in attempting to take the castle of Burgos. He was thus compelled to abandon the ordinary method of attack, for want of a proper artillery train, and to resort to the slow and more uncertain process of sapping the works. The defence was conducted with great skill and resolution by the garrison; and General Dubreton, who had instructions to hold out to the last extremity, acquitted himself with distinguished valour and success. As soon as the British had got possession of St. Michael's Hill, they erected a battery, which commanded the outer line of the works, connecting the fortress with the town. This line was escalated at two points by a British and Portuguese detachment; the Portuguese, however, failed in the attempt, and the British had advanced so far that it was not without some difficulty they were drawn off. The French, after this, did not remain altogether on the defensive: they made successively two sorties against the

works of the besiegers, neither of which was attended with very important consequences. The besiegers, in spite of all the efforts of the garrison, still continued to make rapid progress; they established themselves within one hundred yards of the enemy's interior line; they effected a breach in another part of the same line, accomplished a lodgment; and carried on their mines under ground with the utmost celerity. On the 11th of October, a mine was successfully sprung; the breaches were instantly stormed, and the lines escalated, and part of the British troops actually entered the works; but the fire from the garrison was so heavy, that they were unable to sustain themselves, and retired, after suffering a severe loss. Notwithstanding these repeated repulses, the most confident hopes still existed that Burgos was doomed to share the fate of Badajoz and Ciudad Rodrigo; but a series of unforeseen accidents occurred, which prevented the fulfilment of these expectations, and tarnished the splendour of the closing scenes of the campaign.

In the east, the Spanish General O'Donnell, sustained a severe defeat from the French under General Harispe, by which the operations of General Maitland were paralyzed, and his army doomed to a state of inactivity at Alicante. From the side of Galicia, Lord Wellington was promised the co-operation of a well-appointed Spanish army, amounting to thirty thousand men; but to his extreme mortification, he found that this body of men did not exceed ten thousand, and that they were without discipline, and destitute of all the requisites of soldiers. Ballasteros, the commander of the army of the south, was at this time meditating the ambitious project of seizing on the chief command of the Spanish armies, and instead of falling upon the flanks of the French, conformably to the orders of Lord Wellington, he answered these commands by an appeal to his soldiers, and to the Spanish nation; for which contumacious proceeding, he was superseded, arrested, and exiled.

In consequence of the inaction of the Anglo-Sicilian expedition, the inefficacy of the Spanish army of Galicia, and the refusal of Ballasteros to act under Lord Wellington, his lordship found himself in a situation of considerable difficulty and embarrassment. The French army of Portugal, for by that name it was still designated, greatly reinforced, was advancing under General Souham, who had now taken the command, with a view either to raise the siege of Burgos, or to force the allies to an engagement under great disadvantages. The movements of Souham and Soult were

nearly simultaneous, and formed part of the same plan which the latter general had adopted for the recovery of Madrid. On the 21st of October, Lord Wellington received information that the whole of the French forces, under Soult, Suchet, and Joseph Bonaparte, were fast approaching the passes, and threatened General Hill. This intelligence determined his lordship to raise the siege of Burgos, to recall General Hill from Madrid, and to retreat in the direction of Valladolid. It is difficult to describe the feelings of the British people, when they learned that the Spanish capital was again in possession of the enemy, and that the siege of Burgos had been raised by an army which had been so lately broken and almost dispersed by the besiegers.

During the retreat, the British army displayed, under its illustrious leader, its wonted steadiness and bravery; and, although closely pressed at different points by very superior numbers, the enemy was kept in check, and the best order preserved. In the course of the retreat, the French endeavoured to turn the flanks of the retiring army at various points; the main body of Souham's force, advancing to Toro and the Jacama, threatened its left,

while Soult marched to Avila, in hopes of turning the right. Lord Wellington immediately put his whole force in motion, and retired to Salamanca, where he hoped to be able to establish himself; but the united forces of the enemy were too numerous and powerful, and he was obliged to evacuate this city, and continue his retreat. In the movements from Salamanca to Ciudad Rodrigo, Sir Edward Paget, a brave and able officer, to whom the command of the centre column was confided, unfortunately missed his way in the dark, and fell into the hands of the enemy. The allies in the mean time continued their retreat, with very little loss or inconvenience, except from the wretched state of the roads, till they reached the Portuguese frontier. Here, they were distributed into extensive cantonments; and, as the season of the year, and the state of the roads, no longer admitted of military movements, the conquerors of Salamanca were allowed to enjoy the repose necessary to recruit their exhausted strength, and to prepare them for the toils of another campaign, which was to be scarcely more glorious in its progress, but much more decisive and happy in its results.

CHAPTER XVII.

BRITISH HISTORY: Meeting of Parliament—Establishment of the Royal Household—Negotiations for an extended Administration—The Prince-regent invested with the unrestricted Powers of the Sovereign—Mr. Perceval retained in his Situation as Prime Minister—Alarm occasioned by the Murders in the Metropolis—Inquiry instituted into the Policy and Operation of the Orders in Council—Assassination of Mr. Perceval—Trial and Execution of Bellingham, the Assassin—Sketch of the Life and Character of Mr. Perceval—Motion of Mr. Stuart Wortley for an Address to the Prince-regent, beseeching his Royal Highness to appoint a strong and efficient Administration—Carried by a Majority of four—Negotiation for a new Ministry consequent thereon—Failure of the Negotiations, and Continuance of the existing Administration in Office under certain Changes and Modifications—List of the Administration, as constituted in June, 1812—Revocation of the Orders in Council—Finances—Motion in favour of the Catholics—New Toleration Act—Dissolution of Parliament—Overtures for Peace made by France—Political Relations between Great Britain and America—Captain Henry's Mission—War declared by the United States against England—Historical Sketch of the Rise, Progress, and Suppression of the Commotions in the Manufacturing Districts of England, popularly styled "*Luddism*."

THE year 1812, by reuniting all the prerogatives of the crown in the person of the prince-regent, may be considered as the actual commencement of a new reign, while the ministerial negotiations by which this period was distinguished, put to the test the strength of the different political parties, and demonstrated the existence of a preponderating mass of power on the part of the executive, which, when brought into exercise, reduces them all to comparative insignificance. The parliament was convened at an early period, as well on account of the important concerns of the country in general, as for the purpose of

delegating to his royal highness the prince-regent, the full powers of government, which had, during the preceding year, limited him in the exercise of the royal prerogative. Both houses met accordingly on the 7th of January, when a speech was delivered by the lord chancellor, in the name of the prince-regent. The speech, after lamenting the disappointment of the hopes so confidently entertained of his majesty's speedy recovery, congratulated parliament on the skill and valour displayed by the British army in the peninsula of Spain and Portugal, as well as upon the extinction of the colonial power of the

enemy in the east; and concluded with an assurance on the part of his royal highness, that he would continue to employ all such means of conciliation for adjusting the existing differences between Great Britain and America, as might be consistent with the honour and dignity of his majesty's crown.

The state of the king's health was the first object that engaged the attention of parliament, after the usual address on the speech had been passed. Two reports by the queen's council on this melancholy subject, the first dated the 5th of October, 1811, the second, the 5th of January, 1812, were laid before parliament; and committees were appointed by both houses to examine his majesty's physicians. These inquiries proved the improbability of the king's complete and final restoration to health, although the physicians, with one exception, concurred in declaring that they did not entirely despair. The history of this most afflictive case was altogether singular. During the early stages of his majesty's illness, the most sanguine hopes were cherished; the king was visited by his family; he took exercise in the open air; the bulletins, for a short time, were discontinued; and his subjects, with that feeling of loyalty which his numerous virtues inspired, rejoiced in the prospect presented by these favourable appearances. A marked change, however, took place about the beginning of July, 1811, and although, from that period downwards, his majesty had been able at intervals to converse with his medical attendants, yet the symptoms of his illness gradually became more discouraging, until, in the beginning of the present year, they had assumed such an aspect as almost to close the door of hope against his complete restoration to mental health.

At a very early period of the session, Mr. Perceval came forward with a plan for the arrangement of his majesty's household, which seemed to imply neither confident hope nor absolute despair of his recovery. Parliament, he said, had last year made full provision for supplying the exercise of the royal authority; and as the law now stood, all the prerogatives, as well as all the duties of the sovereign, would, on the 18th of February, devolve on the prince-regent; and as the civil list would of course at that time be transferred to his royal highness, it became necessary to make some provision for the personal comfort and dignity of the king. His majesty's civil list, he considered as the proper fund for such a provision; and, as separate establishments for the regent and the king would now be necessary, he had to propose that an addition of 70,000*l.* per annum should

be made to the civil list, out of the consolidated fund. He then proceeded to state, that as the lord steward and lord chamberlain had duties to perform immediately connected with the royal functions, it would be necessary that these officers should be placed round the person of the regent; and that, in their room, the first gentleman of the bed-chamber should be substituted as the chief officer of the king's household, with the vice-chancellor as his deputy; that four lords and as many grooms of the bed-chamber, a master of the robes, and seven or eight equerries, together with his majesty's private secretary, should form the new officers of the proposed establishment, which of course must be placed under the control of the queen, to whom the care of his majesty's person must continue to be intrusted. The annual expense of this establishment was estimated at a hundred thousand pounds, and this sum it was proposed to take from the civil list, with a reservation that any deficiency should be drawn from the treasury, and that any surplus should go in aid of the public supplies. In the circumstances in which the queen was placed, it was judged proper to add ten thousand a year to her income. It was further proposed, that all pensions and allowances which the king was accustomed to grant to the objects of his bounty, were to be paid as formerly out of the privy purse; that the expenses incurred for medical assistance should be paid out of the revenue of the duchy of Lancaster; and lastly, that a commission of three persons should be appointed, one of them to be a master in chancery, and the other two to be named by the queen and the prince-regent, for the management of the king's private property. In virtue of this arrangement, one hundred thousand pounds were to be appropriated to the king's household, together with sixty thousand pounds, the amount of the king's privy purse, and ten thousand pounds to the queen, making an aggregate sum of 170,000*l.* a year. To meet these charges, the prince-regent consented to give up his exchequer income of fifty thousand a year, which, with the seventy thousand pounds voted by parliament, would leave a deficiency of fifty thousand pounds; but this sum, it was judged, might be dispensed with, as the prince had not so large a family as his royal father. To this plan, it was objected, that it was involved in unnecessary perplexity; and that, by establishing two courts, one for the prince-regent, and another for the queen, a great unnecessary expense was incurred, and a dangerous and conflicting influence created. These objections were not thought of sufficient weight to influence the

decision of parliament, and the plan proposed by Mr. Perceval ultimately passed both branches of the legislature, together with a cotemporary bill, by which the sum of a hundred thousand pounds was voted to the prince regent, to meet the expenses which his royal highness had incurred, or might yet incur, on his assumption of the royal authority. In addition to the ample provision made for the royal household, the liberality of parliament was this year called forth in favour of the Princesses Augusta, Elizabeth, Mary, and Sophia, to each of whom a grant of nine thousand per annum was made, exclusive of four thousand per annum, granted to each of the princesses from the civil list, in the 18th and 39th years of his majesty's reign. The princesses had hitherto lived in family with their royal parents, but the melancholy circumstances which had recently occurred, placed them in the same condition as if the demise of the crown had actually taken place, and it became necessary therefore to make a suitable provision for the establishment of these august females.

The near approach of the period when the restrictions upon the royal authority, as exercised by the prince-regent, expired, awakened in the minds of the political parties into which the country is divided, a deep and general interest; and their expectations, their hopes, and their fears, were respectively predominant, according to the light in which they viewed the conduct of the royal personage by whom the question that had so long hung in suspense was to be decided. When the prince first resolved to continue Mr. Percival in his office as prime minister, he considered himself as acting solely as his father's representative, and expressly declared, that an impulse of public duty alone dictated that decision.* These motives were not only expressly laid open to Mr. Perceval, but every opportunity seemed, in the early period of the regency, to be taken to prove, to that gentleman and his colleagues, that their services were merely tolerated, and that the attachments of the prince towards his own political and personal friends remained unaltered. Only a few months, however, elapsed before it became manifest that the dislike of the prince had gradually passed to endurance; and long before the period arrived for the removal of the restrictions, it began to be conjectured that this feeling had given place to something approaching to interest and attachment. The evidence of this fact was displayed in the month of February, when the prince took a decisive step, such as left

little doubt in the minds of cool and impartial persons, that he wished for no material change in the policy of his government, and that his wish for a change of men to administer public affairs, was by no means ardent.

On the 13th of February, when the restrictions were on the eve of their termination, the prince-regent addressed a letter to the Duke of York, in which, after stating the motives by which his mind had been influenced, while he considered himself in the situation of the representative of his royal father, he adds, "A new era is now arrived, and I cannot but reflect with satisfaction on the events which have distinguished the short period of my restricted regency. Instead of suffering in the loss of any of her possessions, by the gigantic force which has been employed against them, Great Britain has added most important acquisitions to her empire. The national faith has been preserved inviolate towards our allies; and if character is strength as applied to a nation, the increased and increasing reputation of his majesty's arms will show to the nations of the continent how much they may still achieve, when animated by a glorious spirit of resistance to a foreign yoke. In the critical situation of the war in the peninsula, I shall be most anxious to avoid any measure which can lead my allies to suppose that I mean to depart from the present system. Perseverance alone can achieve the great object in question; and I cannot withhold my approbation from those who have honourably distinguished themselves in the support of it. I have no predilections to indulge—no resentments to gratify—no objects to attain, but such as are common to the whole empire. If such is the leading principle of my conduct—and I can appeal to the past in evidence of what the future will be—I flatter myself I shall meet with the support of parliament, and of a candid and enlightened nation." This letter concludes with the expression of a wish on the part of his royal highness, that some of those persons with whom the early habits of his public life were formed, would strengthen his hands, and constitute a part of his government. Two days after the date of this letter, Lords Grey and Grenville, to whom the Duke of York had, in compliance with the request of the prince-regent, communicated his sentiments, addressed a reply to his royal highness, in which they confined themselves to those passages in the prince's letter which they supposed to have a more immediate reference to themselves: in this reply, they beg leave most earnestly to assure his royal highness, that no sacrifices, except those of honour and duty, would

* See chap. xii. p. 148.

appear to them too great to be made, for the purpose of healing the divisions of the country, and uniting both its government and its people. All personal exclusions are entirely disclaimed; they rest solely on public measures; and it is on this ground alone that they express the impossibility of uniting with the present government. Twice before, they had acted on this impression; the reasons then given still existed, and were strengthened by the increased dangers of the times; nor had there, down to the moment of writing this letter, appeared even an approximation towards such an agreement of opinion on the public interests, as could alone form a basis for the honourable union of parties previously opposed to each other. Into a detail of these differences, they expressed an unwillingness to enter; they embraced, however, almost all the leading features of the present policy of the empire; but, on the affairs of Ireland, so far were they from concurring in the sentiments of his majesty's ministers, that they entertained opinions directly opposite, and were firmly persuaded of the absolute necessity of a total change of the present system of government in that country, and of the immediate repeal of those civil disabilities under which so large a proportion of his majesty's subjects still labour, on account of their religious opinions.

This answer, which was the only one which could be expected from statesmen who had, on former occasions, repeatedly declined to sacrifice their honour and consistency, to the acquirement of the patronage and emoluments of office, was decisive, and proved the utter hopelessness of all attempts to accomplish a fair and honourable union between Lords Grey and Grenville and the present ministers. The regent, in offering to include some of his former friends in the ministerial arrangements, had evidently been prompted by considerations of consistency rather than of inclination; and by the result of this negotiation, Mr. Perceval was fixed more firmly than before in his office of prime minister. The ministry, as it was at present constituted, consisted of two parties; at the head of one of which was Mr. Perceval, and at the head of the other the Marquis Wellesley. The differences between these statesmen were partly personal and partly political: the high and aspiring views of the Marquis Wellesley would not permit him to serve *under* Mr. Perceval, though he had no objections to serve *with* him, or to serve *under* either Earl Moira or Lord Holland;* and when it appeared, at the expiration of

the restrictions, that the prince-regent intended to continue Mr. Perceval at the head of his councils, the marquis resigned the seals of his office into the hands of his royal highness. The Marquis Wellesley, in assigning the reasons for this step, expressed a conviction, founded on experience, that the cabinet, as then constituted, neither possessed ability nor knowledge to devise a good plan, nor temper and discernment to adopt it; but his principal objection arose from the narrow and imperfect scale on which the efforts on the peninsula were conducted.* On the subject of the Catholic claims, against the concession of which Mr. Perceval was decidedly opposed, the Marquis Wellesley declared, that, in his judgment, an intermediary principle should be adopted, equally exempt from the extreme of instant, unqualified concession, and of peremptory, eternal exclusion.* On the resignation of this minister, the seals of the foreign department were put into the hands of the Earl of Liverpool, *pro tempore*; but Lord Castlereagh was afterwards appointed to that department; and the earl continued in his station of secretary of state for war and the colonies.

These negotiations and arrangements, which engrossed so large a share of the public attention, were thought by Lord Boringdon to demand the intervention of parliament; and on the 19th of March, that nobleman submitted to the house of lords a motion for an address to the prince-regent, beseeching his royal highness to form an efficient administration. This motion, which was strenuously opposed by his majesty's ministers, called forth the whole strength of the upper house of parliament, and, on a division of that assembly, there appeared for the motion, seventy-two; and against it, one hundred and sixty-five voices.

Although the first year of the regency had been eminently distinguished by the success of the British arms abroad, yet at home great distress and dissatisfaction prevailed; in various parts of the country, disturbances of a very alarming nature burst forth; and in the metropolis, events occurred during the winter of 1811, which excited the alarm and apprehension of the inhabitants in a most extraordinary degree. Although offences against property have increased in this country in full proportion to the growth, wealth, and luxury of the people, it is to the honour of the national character, that crimes of aggravated cruelty and enormity have been little known among us; and when the solitary malignity of a wretch, whose name will in future

* Statement of the Marquis Wellesley.
VOL. II. 2 B 17

* Statement of the Marquis Wellesley.

be classed with those of the monsters who have outraged humanity, exterminated two families of innocent and unoffending beings, the metropolis was in a ferment; the character of the British nation, it was said, was entirely changed; assassination was charged upon us as a national crime; our houses were no longer our castles; and we were considered as unsafe in our beds.* The nature and extent of the evils by which society was assailed, were for some time unknown, and as no one could imagine that any single human being, however deep his depravity, could require so

much blood to satiate his appetite, it was generally supposed that these horrid murders formed part of a system, the object of which no one could fathom, and to the extent of which the human mind, always prone to magnify danger, could fix no limits.

Some radical defect, it was supposed, must exist in the system of police, which exposed the inhabitants of the first city in the empire to such dangers, and many persons, in the moment of panic, seemed disposed to surrender their liberties, with a view to secure the protection of their persons. Under such impressions, a cry was raised for the establishment of an armed police; but the rashness of this proposal was soon detected, and the principal measure resorted to by government on this occasion was the establishment of a more efficient nightly watch than had hitherto existed in London.

The bill for improving the police of the metropolis was succeeded by a motion for an inquiry into the state of the nation. This motion, which was made by Sir Thomas Turton, and involved the whole system of government, foreign and domestic, was chiefly remarkable for the exhibition it afforded of the strength of the parties in parliament, and a majority of seventy voices in favour of ministers, who resisted the proposed investigation, sufficiently proved, that under the powerful influence of royal favour, they were able to maintain their stand in the face of the opposition of their rivals, and the secession of their colleagues.

* The family of Mr. Timothy Marr, silk-mercer, No. 29, Ratcliffe-Highway, consisting of himself, his wife, an infant son, fourteen weeks old, and an apprentice boy, were all found murdered, between twelve and one o'clock on Sunday morning, the 8th of December, 1811. On entering the house, the horrid spectacle presented itself, of James Gohen, the apprentice, lying on his face in the shop, with his brains dashed out, and part of them actually covering the ceiling. On further search, Mrs. Marr was found lying on the floor, near the street door, and Mr. Marr behind the counter, in the shop, both weltering in their blood, from mortal wounds in the head; and the child in the cradle, finding in its innocence and infancy no protection from the barbarous hands of the assassin, had its throat cut from ear to ear. Plunder was no doubt the object of the ruthless murderer; but the unexpected return of the servant maid, who had been despatched, about twelve o'clock at night, on some little domestic errand, created an alarm, and obliged him to decamp without his booty. On the 19th of the same month, another family was murdered in Gravel-Lane, only two streets distant from the house of Mr. Marr, and with circumstances which led to the suspicion that the bloody intent was formed in the same sanguinary mind, and executed by the same relentless hand. The scene of this second series of murders, was the King's Arms public house, and the victims were Mr. and Mrs. Williamson, the keepers of that house, and their servant maid. A lodger, roused by the cries of murder, let himself out of a two pair of stairs window by the sheets of his bed, and alarmed the neighbourhood. On the outer door being forced open, the mistress of the house, and the maid servant, were found lying one upon the other, by the kitchen fire, quite dead, with their throats cut from ear to ear; and on continuing the search, Mr. Williamson was found in the cellar, a lifeless corpse, with one of his legs broken, and his head nearly severed from his body. The murderer, unfortunately, had escaped.

But the retributive finger of Providence speedily pointed to the person of John Williams, alias Murphy, a sailor, who had, for some months, lodged at a neighbouring public house; and the evidence of the guilt of this wretch was every day accumulating, when, on the 27th of December, he terminated an existence which had become intolerable, by hanging himself with his neck-handkerchief, in his cell in the Cold-Bath-Fields prison. The coroner's inquest assembled on this occasion, returned a verdict of *felo de se*, and the body of the assassin and suicide was committed to the earth with every possible mark of ignominy, while his memory was consigned to universal execration.

But the subject which occupied the attention of parliament most closely during the present session, and in the existing state of the country, was of the highest importance, was an inquiry into the policy and operations of the orders in council,* not so much as they regarded other countries, but as they affected the interests of the manufacturing and commercial classes in our own. There were several points at issue between those who maintained that the British orders in council ought to be repealed, and those who held an opposite opinion; they differed respecting the nature, extent, and causes of the distresses which prevailed in the manufacturing districts, and respecting the manner in which those distresses might be most effectually removed. The evil was so manifest, that its existence could not be denied; but the advocates for the orders in council insisted, that it had been greatly exaggerated; that similar distresses had prevailed at former periods; that, in fact, the present state of things necessarily resulted from

* See chap. iv. page 36.

the unusual fluctuations in trade; and that its removal was probably not far distant. However that might be, they held, that the repeal of the orders in council would not remove or greatly diminish the distress, and that it was unfair to hold out such an idea, since it excited expectations which certainly could not be realized.

Notwithstanding this reasoning, the belief that the orders in council were the principal causes of the decay in trade, and of the consequent distresses, both among the merchants, the manufacturers, and the labouring classes, was very strongly prevalent. Petitions were poured into the house of commons from all the principal manufacturing districts in the kingdom, and from those seaports which chiefly depended for their commerce on the intercourse with America; and the petitioners begged for permission to be allowed to establish their case by evidence before parliament. They asserted, that if the prayer of their petitions were complied with, they could prove that unparalleled distresses prevailed throughout the most populous parts of Great Britain, and that these distresses had been gradually increasing ever since the promulgation of the orders in council, till they had at length become intolerable. This subject was brought before parliament in the house of lords by the Marquis of Lansdowne, and in the commons by Mr. Brougham, who both, with distinguished force of eloquence, pressed for the appointment of a committee, to take into consideration the present state of the commerce and manufactures of the country, particularly with reference to the orders in council, and the trade by licenses. But the inquiry was resisted by ministers, and their adherents, in both houses of parliament, and the motions were rejected by considerable majorities. The petitioners, feeling the urgency of the case, still persevered; the distresses and agitations in the country increased and extended themselves; and dissatisfaction spread among many descriptions of persons, who had been remarkable for their peaceful and contented demeanour. Still, however, it is probable, that Mr. Perceval would have continued firm in his determination, not to appoint a committee, nor to hear evidence, had not many of the members of the house of commons, who usually supported his measures, and possessed great weight in the house and in the nation, expressly declared, that they thought a committee ought to be appointed, and that, as the petitioners were so numerous and so urgent, it would have the appearance of slighting their distresses, if they were denied the opportunity of proving

their allegations. At length, ministers gave a reluctant consent to the appointment of a committee, and to the hearing of evidence. On the 29th of April, the evidence began, but on the 11th of May the progress of the investigation was interrupted, and the whole nation thrown into the utmost consternation and horror, by the atrocious assassination of the prime minister.

On Monday, the 11th of May, at half-past five o'clock in the afternoon, Mr. Perceval was entering the lobby of the house of commons, when a person, who had some time before taken his station in the recess of the doorway, drew out a small pocket pistol, and shot him in the lower part of the left breast. Mr. Perceval, on receiving the shot, merely moved forward a few steps, and as he was in the act of falling, a gentleman stepped forwards, and caught him in his arms. The only word that escaped his lips after receiving the shot was "murder," or "murdered," uttered in a low, faint, and nearly inarticulate voice. A surgeon was immediately sent for, but the ball had entered the heart, and before the return of the messenger Mr. Perceval had breathed his last. Amidst the general horror and dismay, no attempt was made for some time to secure the assassin; but when a spectator at last exclaimed, "Where is the villain who fired?" a person, who had remained unobserved, stepped forward, and coolly said, "I am the unfortunate man." The prisoner, who had made no attempt to escape, was seized by General Gascoigne, and conveyed to the bar of the house of commons. An immediate examination took place in the house of commons, before several of the members who were in the commission of the peace; and the assassin himself, when questioned on the subject, said—"My name is John Bellingham—it is a private injury—I know what I have done—it was a denial of justice on the part of government." Being cautioned not to criminate himself, he added—"I have admitted the fact—I do admit it—I have been ill-treated—they all know who I am, and what I am, through the secretary of state and Mr. Beckett, with whom I have had frequent communications—they knew of my intention six weeks ago, through the Bow-street magistrates—I have sought redress in vain—I am an unfortunate man, and feel here," pointing to his heart, "sufficient justification of the act I have committed." At the conclusion of the examination, the prisoner was committed to the prison-room of the house of commons, and at one o'clock in the morning, conveyed, under an escort of dragoons, to Newgate. An opinion in-

stantly became prevalent, that the murder of Mr. Perceval was the first act of a deep and extensive conspiracy, and the departure of the post was delayed till despatches could be made out, and instructions prepared, for the civil and military authorities in the different parts of the kingdom, particularly in the disturbed counties.

It was desirable, in a case of this nature, that no unnecessary time should be lost between the commission of the crime and the infliction of the punishment awarded by the law against the delinquent; but it was equally desirable that the purposes of substantial justice should be answered, and that the decorum and solemnity of a judicial process should be preserved. These observations are suggested by the precipitancy of the proceedings instituted against Bellingham. The deed was committed on Monday evening; the prisoner was tried and convicted on the Friday following; and his friends, who resided at Liverpool, not being aware that the trial would take place so soon, had not time to repair to London, to appear in his behalf. Of the fact of the murder, the evidence was too clear to admit of any doubt, but the sanity of the prisoner was involved in a high degree of uncertainty, and the presence of his friends seemed indispensable, to show whether the assassin could, by a fair and liberal construction, be considered as a moral agent. On his trial, he conducted himself with great coolness and self-possession; he displayed a mind not wanting in quick perception, but apt to draw erroneous conclusions; he discovered intellectual powers which could discern all the tendencies of human action, and estimate its several qualities; bewildered, however, by passion, and stimulated to the confines of madness, by an acute sense of supposed injury, he considered himself as the judge of his own actions, and claimed the right to avenge his own wrongs; he seemed fully and deeply impressed with the idea that the act he had committed was perfectly justifiable; that his acquittal was certain; and that his conduct would be approved by the nation. His defence was remarkable for its acuteness; he stated that he had been engaged in extensive mercantile concerns in Russia; that, by the tyranny and oppression of that government, he had been stripped of nearly all his property, and thrown into prison; that he had applied repeatedly, but unsuccessfully, to Lord Granville Leveson Gower, the British ambassador at St. Petersburg, for redress. In consequence of this, he had returned to England, where he had laid the hardship and injustice of his case before his majesty's ministers, but they

also had refused to do any thing in his behalf. He then formed his resolution: this resolution he had communicated to the officers at Bow-street, and they had transmitted it to the treasury; but instead of obtaining redress, he was told, he might do his worst; and he had obeyed these instructions. Towards Mr. Perceval, he had no antipathy or ill-will. He was sorry—as sorry as any of the friends of that gentleman could be, for his fate; but he was convinced that much public good would result from it, and that ministers would be taught, by the lesson he had given them, to pay more attention to the just claims of individuals. He concluded by expressing his firm persuasion, that it was impossible to convict him of the crime of wilful murder, unless it were proved that he had malice prepense towards the unfortunate gentleman for whose death he was then on his trial, and towards whom he utterly denied all personal ill-will. At the close of this singular defence, his counsel wished to put in a plea of insanity; but this the prisoner rejected, declaring, that he acted from a well-defined motive; that reflection, instead of creating compunction and remorse for the deed which he had done, only tended to convince him of the propriety of his conduct, and to console him under its consequences; and that he should prefer a thousand deaths to the injuries and indignities he had experienced. After a suitable charge from Mr. Justice Mansfield, the jury retired, and on their return into court pronounced the fatal verdict of guilty. On the Monday following, the execution of Bellingham took place—just one week after the perpetration of the deed for which the malefactor suffered; and in the brief interval, his behaviour had been composed and tranquil. To the last, he laboured under the delusion that the murder he had committed was justifiable; and the moment before he was led from his cell to the scaffold, he solemnly declared, in answer to the inquiries of the lord mayor and sheriffs of London, that he had no accomplices.

The assassination of Mr. Perceval has no parallel in the annals of British history; neither the murder of the Duke of Buckingham by Felton, in the reign of Charles I., nor the attempt on the life of the chancellor of the exchequer, Harley, by Guiscard, a Frenchman, in the reign of Queen Anne, were similar cases. In both instances, the assassins believed they had been injured by the objects of their vengeance, while it was proved in this instance that the claims of Bellingham had never been submitted to his victim. The day after the assassination of Mr. Perce-

val, a message was sent down to parliament by the prince-regent, expressing the wish of his royal highness that a suitable provision should be made for the family of the deceased premier. A grant of two thousand a year was accordingly made to Mrs. Perceval, and the sum of fifty thousand pounds voted by the liberality of parliament to her twelve children. It was afterwards proposed that the annuity of Mrs. Perceval should, at her demise, descend to her eldest son, and this alteration in the original proposition was sanctioned by the legislature.*

* **The Right Honourable SPENCER PERCEVAL.**

—The biography of this elevated statesman lies within very narrow limits. Mr. Perceval was the second son of John, the late Earl of Egmont, by Catharine Compton, sister of Spencer, Earl of Northampton, from whom he took his Christian name. His mother was, in the year 1770, created a peeress of Ireland in her own right, with the title of Baroness Arden; and dying in 1784, she was succeeded by her eldest son, Charles George, who, in July, 1808, was raised to the peerage of England. Mr. Perceval, after having passed the usual time at school, was entered of Trinity College, Cambridge, where he formed some of the most valuable connexions of his future life. As soon as he had completed his collegiate studies, he entered himself a member of Lincoln's Inn, and pursued the study of the law as a profession. He was remarkable for close and regular application—aware that eminence is not to be obtained without industry and perseverance, and in these he studied to excel. On the death of his uncle, in 1796, a vacancy was created in the borough of Northampton, which place introduced Mr. Perceval to parliamentary life. He immediately gave his support to Mr. Pitt, and pursued the same line of politics, regularly and consistently, through the whole of his parliamentary career. In 1801, at the formation of the Addington administration, Mr. Perceval, then in his 39th year, was appointed solicitor-general: and in 1802, he was promoted to the situation of attorney-general, on the elevation of Edward Law, now Lord Ellenborough, to the chief-justiceship of the court of king's bench; and the only *ex officio* prosecution worthy of notice, instituted by Mr. Perceval in his character of attorney-general, was that against M. Feltier, the editor of a French journal, printed in London, for a libel inciting to the assassination of Bonaparte. He first came forward after the death of Mr. Pitt, as a public speaker on the side of opposition, and in this character he was animated, without asperity; earnest, without ostentation; and attached to his party, without an indiscriminate contention with his adversaries. When the Fox administration quitted office, in the early part of the year 1807, Mr. Perceval was appointed chancellor of the exchequer; and, on the death of the Duke of Portland, he became the ostensible, as he had for some time before been the real, prime minister. The situation of the country was at this period difficult and embarrassing, and the direction of the state vessel required great talents, exercised with uncommon delicacy, as well as a due degree of vigour and decision. The talents of Mr. Perceval were not of the first order; but his ready elocution and unwearied industry compensated in some degree for any deficiency in the brilliancy of his genius. The deci-

On the death of Mr. Perceval, which deprived the ministry of its ostensible head, it was deemed impossible, even by ministers themselves, to conduct the affairs of the nation without an accession of strength. The connexion which had hitherto subsisted between the members of Mr. Perceval's administration, and the Marquis Wellesley and Mr. Canning, with the general coincidence of their public principles, induced them in the first instance to direct their attention to those statesmen. But it soon became manifest that the object of Lord Liverpool, to whom the negotiation was confided, was not to introduce the Marquis Wellesley and Mr. Canning on equal terms into office, but to assign to them and to their friends subordinate situations. To such a proposal, only one answer could be returned, and, as might have been foreseen, the negotiation entirely failed.

In consequence of the general disappointment arising from the failure of this attempt to strengthen the existing government, Mr. Stuart Wortley brought the subject before the house of commons on the 21st of May, and moved an address to the prince-regent, praying him to take such measures as would enable his royal highness, under the present circumstances of the country, to form a strong and efficient administration. This motion, which was seconded by Lord Milton, was carried by a majority of one hundred and seventy-four to one hundred and seventy voices, and on the presentation of the address, by the mover and seconder, the prince assured them that he should take into his serious and immediate consideration, the address which he had received from the house of commons.

The Marquis Wellesley was now employed, not actually to form an administration, but to *sound* the expectations and principles of the leading statesmen who might be called to a situation in the cabinet. The principles upon which the ad-

sion of his mind sometimes assumed the character of obstinacy; and he seemed to have imbibed a principle, which a prime minister should never admit into his thoughts—that a measure once openly avowed, ought on no account ever to be abandoned. He was the decided and avowed enemy to those concessions to the Catholics, which many statesmen, with as much wisdom, and greater talents, have regarded as essential to the safety of the state. To his unyielding temper, the American war, in which the country was plunged, soon after his death, had been imputed. As a public speaker, he rose much in reputation after he had become minister; and in domestic life few men were more amiable or more deservedly respected. He fell, as has been already stated, by the hand of an assassin, in the 50th year of his age; and his warmest political opponents vied with his friends and supporters in the encomiums pronounced in the senate on his mild and engaging manners, and his inflexible political integrity.

ministration was intended to be formed, were stated to be,

"First, That the state of the laws affecting the Roman Catholics, and the claims of that body of his majesty's subjects, should be taken into immediate consideration, with a view to a conciliatory adjustment of those claims. Secondly, That the war in the peninsula should be prosecuted on a scale of adequate vigour."

The marquis was no sooner vested with this commission, than he addressed himself personally to Lords Grey and Grenville; and through the medium of Mr. Canning, to Lord Liverpool: from the two former noblemen, he ascertained that their sentiments on the Catholic question, and on the conduct of the war in Spain, were sufficiently accordant with his own to admit of a cordial union and co-operation; but Lord Liverpool replied to the overture, that himself and his colleagues should decline to become members of an administration formed by Marquis Wellesley.† At the close of this preliminary correspondence, full powers were received by the marquis; and on the 1st of June, his lordship declared to Lords Grey and Grenville, that it was the pleasure of the regent, that he, the Marquis Wellesley, should be first commissioner of the treasury, and that Lord Moira, Lord Erskine, and Mr. Canning, should be members of the cabinet. As the cabinet was to consist of twelve or thirteen members, the regent wished Lords Grey and Grenville to mention four persons, if of twelve, and five, if of thirteen, to become members, and the Marquis Wellesley was commanded to fill up the vacant situation from among his majesty's ministers, or such other persons as he might think proper.‡ To this novel mode of nominating an administration, Lords Grey and Grenville objected, that the proposal was founded on a principle of disunion and jealousy, the tendency of which, in their opinion, would be to establish, within the cabinet itself, a system of counteraction, which must necessarily defeat the very object which the house of commons recommended—the formation of a strong and efficient government. Such an administration, they added, could neither possess the confidence of the nation, nor act with that decision and unanimity which were absolutely necessary to secure its welfare;§ and upon this point the negotiation with the Marquis Wellesley closed.

* Communication made by the Marquis Wellesley to Lords Grey and Grenville, May 24.

† Lord Liverpool's letter to Mr. Canning, dated May 23d.

‡ Communication from the Marquis Wellesley to Lords Grey and Grenville, dated June 1st.

§ Letter from Lords Grey and Grenville to the Marquis Wellesley, dated June 2.

The next agent employed by the prince-regent in this delicate and embarrassing business, was the Earl Moira; and his lordship, in an interview with Lords Grey and Grenville, on the 6th of June, stated, that the prince-regent did not mean to lay them under any restrictions or limitations whatever; that such measures as they might conceive to be for the public advantage, they might pursue; and that not only were there to be no restrictions or limitations with respect to the measures of government, but the arrangement of the whole administration was committed entirely to Lord Moira and Lords Grey and Grenville. On further explanation, however, it appeared, that this unlimited power did not extend to the officers of the prince's household, though his royal highness expressed his readiness, if it were for the good of the nation, to consent to their removal; yet so impressed was Lord Moira with the unanimity of this resolution, that when it was communicated to him by the prince, he declared, "that he should not part with one of them." Lords Grey and Grenville assured Lord Moira, that in adverting to this subject they were actuated solely by a sense of public duty; they considered that every administration should possess the character of efficacy and stability, and enjoy those marks of confidence, and that constitutional support from the crown, without which it was impossible to act usefully to the public service; hence, they were convinced, that on the first arrangement of any administration, the connexion of the great offices of the court should be clearly established. On this point, the conversation broke up; and two days afterwards the Earl of Liverpool stated in the house of lords, that his royal highness the prince-regent had been pleased that day to appoint him prime minister, and that the vacant offices would be filled up as soon as possible. Speedily after this announcement, the vacancies were supplied, and the new ministry, thus constituted, consisted principally of the members of the late cabinet.*

* LIST OF THE ADMINISTRATION, FORMED IN JUNE, 1812.

Cabinet Ministers.

Earl of Harrowby, Lord President of the Council
Lord Eldon, Lord High Chancellor.
Earl of Westmoreland, Lord Privy Seal.
Earl of Liverpool, First Lord of the Treasury
(Prime Minister).
Rt. Hon. Nicholas Vansittart, Chancellor and Under Treasurer of the Exchequer.
Lord Viscount Melville, First Lord of the Admiralty.
Earl Mulgrave, Master-general of the Ordnance.
Lord Viscount Sidmouth, Secretary of State for the Home Department.
Lord Viscount Castlereagh, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.

In the midst of all this political fermentation, the inquiry regarding the policy and influence of the orders in council was proceeding in both houses of parliament with little interruption; and in the prosecution of this inquiry, it was proved, that in all the manufacturing districts in the kingdom, an unusual degree of poverty and misery prevailed among the labouring classes; that their wages were in many places little more than one-half the regular sum; that not nearly so many were employed at this low rate of wages, as formerly; and that, were it not for the subscriptions that had been set on foot in these districts, the numerous instances of wretchedness and misery pointed out in the evidence, would have existed to a still more alarming magnitude. It was attempted to be shown, that this misery arose principally from the high price of all kinds of provisions, and the other necessities of life: but in answer to this supposition, it was satisfactorily proved, that in the years 1800 and 1801, when the necessities of life were equally dear, the distress was not nearly so great and extensive, because work was then more plentiful. With respect to the master manufacturers, these might be divided into two classes: the first, comprehending those whose capitals were very large, and who consequently could bear the pressure of the times with comparatively little suffering, though even of this class, there were many who had nearly their whole capital locked up in goods for which they could obtain no demand; and in order to keep their work-people from absolute starvation, they were continuing to manufacture, notwithstanding they had no prospect of a

market. With respect to the second class, namely, those whose capitals were trifling, many of them had sunk into the rank of labourers; numbers were plunged into a state of insolvency; and others had been obliged to dispose of their stock at a very inadequate price, in order to keep themselves and their families from the parish.

The circumstance of the misery of the manufacturing districts being thus established, the next inquiry was, to what cause was the decline of trade to be attributed? On this point, also, the evidence was full and satisfactory. America was the market which took off a large portion of their goods; while this market was open and free, trade was brisk, wages were high and steady, manufactures flourished, and the labouring classes could maintain themselves and their families in a decent and comfortable manner; but when that market was suspended or closed, as at present, the reverse took place. The nature of the evil suggested the remedy; and the petitioners had the authority of the American government, frequently expressed in public documents, for declaring, that if the British orders in council were rescinded, the ports and markets of the United States would be opened to British ships and British merchandise.

Those who advocated the cause of the orders in council, on the contrary, maintained, that other causes of dispute existed between the British and the American governments; and that such was the attachment and partiality of America to France, and such her hostile spirit towards Britain, that it was absurd to expect that she would be satisfied with the repeal of the orders in council; so that by revoking those edicts, we should, without benefiting our own trade, deprive ourselves of an engine which had greatly annoyed the enemy. Ministers, however, being no longer directed and animated by the unbending spirit of Mr. Perceval, consented to the repeal of the orders in council, and on the 23d of June a declaration from the prince-regent appeared in the London Gazette, absolutely and unequivocally revoking these orders, as far as they regarded American vessels;* with this proviso, that if, after the notification of this repeal by the

* This act of revocation was grounded upon a certain instrument, purporting to be a decree passed by the French government, on the 28th of April, 1811, and transmitted to his majesty's government for the first time on the 20th of May, 1812, by which the decrees of Berlin and Milan are declared to be definitively repealed, and from the date of the 1st of November next, considered as never having taken place (*non avenue*) with regard to American vessels.

Earl Bathurst, Secretary of State for the Department of War and Colonies.

Earl of Buckinghamshire, President of the Board of Control for the Affairs in India.

Marquis Camden.

Not of the Cabinet.

Earl of Clancarty, President of the Board of Trade.
The Hon. F. Robinson, Vice President of the Board of Trade.

Rt. Hon. George Rose, Treasurer of the Navy.

Lord Palmerston, Secretary at War.

Lord C. Somerset, Rt. Hon. C. Long, Joint Paymasters-general of the Forces.

Earl of Chichester, Earl of Sandwich, Joint Postmasters-general.

Richard Wharton, Esq., Sir Charles Arbuthnot, Knt., Secretaries of the Treasury.

Sir William Grant, Master of the Rolls.

Sir Thomas Plumer, Attorney-general.

Sir W. Garrow, Solicitor-general.

PERSONS OF THE MINISTRY IN IRELAND.

Duke of Richmond, Lord-lieutenant.

Lord Manners, Lord High-chancellor.

Rt. Hon. Robert Peel, Chief-secretary.

Rt. Hon. W. Fitzgerald, Chancellor of the Exchequer.

British minister in America, the government of the United States should not revoke their interdictory acts against British commerce, that revocation on our part should be null and void. But the determination to repeal the orders in council had already been deferred too long; and it afterwards appeared, that five days before the document announcing their repeal appeared in the London Gazette, the government of the United States of America had declared war against Great Britain.

The office of chancellor of the exchequer had now devolved upon Mr. Vansittart, and on the 17th of June, that gentleman, rising in his place in the house of commons, declared, that it was impossible to perform the duty which it had fallen to his lot to discharge, without sensations unusually painful, from the recollection of the singular situation in which he was placed. Considering in whose place he stood, whose papers he held in his hands, and whose plans he was about to state to the house, he felt rather that he was executing the last official duties of his lamented friend, than the first act of his own. Happy should he have thought himself, if he could, at the close of this day, have resigned those papers into the hands that had formed them, but happier still if he could inherit the talents and virtues of their author, and close a life of public service with the same testimonies of public approbation and equal consciousness of unblemished integrity.*

The whole amount of the charges to be provided by the supplies, he stated at 62,376,348*l.*, from which 7,025,700*l.* was to be deducted for Ireland, leaving a total to be provided for by Great Britain for the year 1812, of 55,350,648*l.* This sum certainly was an enormous, he might even

say, a terrible extent of charge; but, he had the consolation to reflect that, great as it was, the resources of the country were still equal to support it; and by an enumeration of the ways and means, he produced a result of 55,390,460*l.*, including a loan made on the preceding day, for 15,650,000*l.* In the course of the present year, a former loan had been obtained, to the amount of 6,789,625*l.*, which added to the loan as stated above, and to the exchequer bills funded in 1812, created an annual interest of 1,905,924*l.*, which was to be provided for by new taxes. For this purpose, the chancellor of the exchequer proposed to discontinue the bounty on the exportation of printed goods; to double the duty on tanned hides and skins; to double also the duty on glass; to add one-tenth to the existing duty on tobacco; to subject all property offered to sale by auction to the auction duty, under certain modifications; to make an addition of one penny to the postage of all letters carried more than twenty miles; and to increase the assessed taxes on male servants, carriages, horses, dogs, and game certificates. The aggregate annual product of which taxes he estimated to 1,903,000*l.* Of the taxes proposed by Mr. Vansittart, that principally opposed in parliament, was the increased duty on leather, but this opposition, though very strong, was unavailing, and the entire budget received the sanction of parliament.

Notwithstanding the repeated failure of the attempts made in parliament to procure for the Catholics of this realm an equal participation in the rights and immunities of their fellow-subjects, the advocates of the Catholic cause, probably imputing the opposition to circumstances supposed now no longer to exist, resolved not to give up the contest, but to appeal

* FINANCES.

PUBLIC INCOME of Great Britain for the Year ending the 5th of January, 1812.

Branches of Revenue.	Gross Receipts.		Paid into the Excheq.	
	£.	s. d.	£.	s. d.
Customs, . . .	9,678,009	4 7½	7,825,235	5 6½
Excise, . . .	20,617,266	8 0	19,003,970	16 5½
Stamps, . . .	5,396,592	11 5½	5,291,224	9 10½
Land and Assessment Taxes, . . .	7,399,442	1 0½	7,280,919	4 8½
Post-office, . . .	1,709,869	1 9½	1,478,506	3 1½
Miscella. Permanent Tax, . . .	91,120	14 9½	86,998	17 2½
Here. Revenue, . . .	119,751	3 0½	127,436	7 6
Extra-Resources.				
Customs, . . .	3,013,723	2 4½	2,633,919	0 10
Excise, . . .	6,543,963	1 0	6,484,961	19 7½
Prop. Tax, . . .	13,234,896	13 11½	13,451,966	4 8½
Miscel. Income, . . .	3,310,664	3 10½	3,288,060	11 10½
Loans, including 4,800,000 <i>l.</i> for the service of Ireland, . . .	16,636,375	3 9	16,636,375	3 9
Grand Total, . . .	£87,749,963	9 9	£83,609,593	5 2

Whitehall, Treasury Chambers, 26th March, 1812. } (Signed) RICH. WHARTON.

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE of Great Britain for the Year ending the 5th of January, 1812.

Beds of Expenditure.	Sums.	
	£.	s. d.
Interest, . . .	22,100,845	1 0½
Charge of Management, . . .	228,349	16 0½
Reduction of National Debt, . . .	12,502,850	0 11½
Interest on Exchequer Bills, . . .	1,566,735	0 5½
Civil List, . . .	1,472,403	11 9½
Civil Government of Scotland, . . .	109,693	6 1
Payments in anticipation, &c. . .	586,549	5 1
Navy, . . .	19,540,678	14 10
Ordnance, . . .	4,557,509	8 6
Army, . . .	13,753,163	0 0
Extraordinary Services, . . .	10,116,196	0 0
Loans to Sicily, Portugal, and Spain, including 4,432,202 <i>l.</i> 15 <i>s.</i> 3 <i>d.</i> to Ireland, . . .	7,410,039	15 3
Miscellaneous Services, . . .	1,962,636	8 2½
Deductions for Sums forming no part of the Expenditure of Great Britain, . . .	96,907,569	8 3½
Grand Total, . . .	£91,418,196	10 0½

Whitehall, Treasury Chambers, 26th March, 1812. } (Signed) RICH. WHARTON.

again to the legislature, under more auspicious circumstances. In pursuance of this line of policy, Mr. Canning rose in the house of commons, on the 22d of June, to propose a motion on this subject. The honourable gentleman assumed as a general rule, 1. That citizens of the same state, living under the same government, are entitled *prima facie* to equal political rights and privileges. 2. That it is at all times desirable to create and maintain the most perfect identity of interest and feeling among all the members of the same community. 3. That where there exists in any community a general permanent cause of public discontent, which agitates men's minds without having any tendency to subside of itself, it becomes the duty of the supreme power in the state to determine in what mode this discontent may most advantageously be removed.—Upon each of these several heads, Mr. Canning enlarged with his accustomed force and eloquence, and concluded by moving, "That the house will, early in the next session of parliament, take into its most serious consideration the state of the laws affecting his majesty's Roman Catholic subjects in Great Britain and Ireland, with a view to such a final and conciliatory adjustment as may be conducive to the peace and strength of the united kingdom; to the stability of the Protestant establishment; and to the general satisfaction and concord of all classes of his majesty's subjects. This motion, which was supported by Lord Castlereagh, was carried by the decisive majority of two hundred and thirty-five to one hundred and six voices.

A similar motion made in the house of lords, by the Marquis Wellesley, on the 1st of July, displayed an extraordinary balance of opinion in that assembly, where it was supported by one hundred and twenty-five, and opposed by one hundred and twenty-six voices. On this occasion, ministers and their usual supporters were ranged indiscriminately on opposite sides of the house; of the royal dukes, two voted on one side, and three on the other; and even the bench of bishops was divided, though less equally, three of them voting for, and fifteen against the pledge to consider the subject.

During the discussion on the bill brought into parliament by Lord Sidmouth, in the course of the last session, "to explain and amend the act of toleration," it was stated that different constructions had been put upon that act at the quarter sessions, and that in some instances the justices had assumed to themselves a right to withhold licences from persons wishing to become

preachers, when required, to take the oath and declaration set forth in the 19th of George III. cap. 44; and upon justices of the peace, to administer such oath and to take such declaration when applied to for that purpose. Meetings for worship, in which the persons assembled did not exceed twenty, above the family of the occupier of the house, were, by this bill, exempt from all restrictions, but other places of religious worship were required to be registered at the quarter sessions, and held with open doors; and persons disturbing such assemblies were made liable to a heavy penalty. Although this bill did not recognise the great principle of the dissenters—That the civil magistrate has no right to interfere in matters purely religious; yet, as an act of toleration, it was more complete than any legislative measure ever passed in this country; and to the honour of the British senate, the bill advanced through all its stages in both houses of parliament, and passed into a law, not without observation, but without opposition.

In the month of April, at the time when the French emperor was meditating a war against Russia, and when that war was on the eve of its commencement, overtures for peace with England were made by the government of France, and a correspondence took place upon the subject, which terminated unsuccessfully, after the interchange of a single despatch between the foreign ministers of the two governments. No notice of the correspondence was taken in parliament before the 17th of July, on which day, Lord Holland requested to know from the premier whether ministers were in possession of any further information respecting the overture made by the French government, than what had been published in the foreign journals? and whether it was the intention of the executive government to take the subject into their consideration?

Lord Liverpool had no hesitation in admitting that the correspondence alluded to, as published in the Paris papers, was substantially correct. With respect to the answer returned to the French minister, he was persuaded that there were few in this country who would not agree, that if the

acknowledgment of Joseph Bonaparte as King of Spain were made a necessary preliminary basis by the French government, no negotiation could be entered into; it had therefore been thought requisite to call for an explicit declaration on that head in the first instance; and as no communication in reply had been received from the French minister, there the matter was suffered to drop.*

The long session of 1812 now drew to a close, and on the 30th of July, parliament was prorogued by a speech delivered in the name of the prince-regent by commission. Ministers at the time of the prorogation of parliament appeared in full possession of all the usual influence of government, and the regent's terminating speech expressed full satisfaction in the measures which had been adopted by that assembly; but this parliament was not to meet again, and on

* This correspondence commenced on the 17th of April, and the following was the basis proposed by the French government:—"That the integrity of Spain shall be guaranteed. France shall renounce all idea of extending her dominion beyond the Pyrenees. The present dynasty shall be declared independent, and Spain shall be governed by a national constitution of her cortes. The independence and integrity of Portugal shall be also guaranteed; and the house of Braganza shall have the sovereign authority. The kingdom of Naples shall remain in possession of the present monarch; and the kingdom of Sicily shall be guaranteed to the present family of Sicily. As a consequence of these stipulations, Spain, Portugal, and Sicily, shall be evacuated by the French and English land and naval forces. With respect to other objects of discussion, they may be negotiated upon this basis—that each power shall retain that of which the other could not deprive him by war."—*Letter from the Duke of Bassano to Lord Castlereagh.*

The reply of the English government was dated on the 23d of April, and as a preliminary to negotiation, inquired what precise meaning was attached by the French government to the following passage:—"The actual dynasty shall be declared independent, and Spain governed by the national constitution of the cortes?" "If," says the answer, "the meaning of this proposition is, that the royal authority of Spain and the government established by the cortes shall be recognised as residing in the brother of the head of the French government, and the cortes formed under his authority, and not in the legitimate sovereign, Ferdinand VII. and his heirs, and the extraordinary assembly of the cortes now invested with the power of the government in that kingdom, in his name, and by his authority; the obligations of good faith do not permit his royal highness, the Prince-regent of England, to receive a proposition for peace founded on such a basis. But if the expression cited above apply to the actual government of Spain, which exercises the sovereign authority in the name of Ferdinand VII., upon an assurance to that effect from the French government, the prince-regent will feel himself disposed to enter into a full explanation upon the basis which has been transmitted in order to be taken into consideration by his royal highness."—*Lord Castlereagh's answer to the Duke of Bassano.*

the 29th of September, a proclamation was issued by the prince-regent, announcing its dissolution. The remainder of the year was occupied with all the bustle of a general election; but the shortness of the notice, combined with the circumstances of the times, served to abridge the usual proportion of contests. As far as the sentiments of the people could be collected from the returns of the representatives to parliament, the cause of opposition had gained no ground by the events of the year. In the metropolis, and the towns of Bristol and Liverpool, the candidates in that interest sustained a defeat, and their success in some other places was not sufficient to counterbalance these losses. In Liverpool, the contest was not only extremely keen, but attended by circumstances of peculiar interest. The candidates were Mr. Brougham and Mr. Creevy, on one side; and Mr. Canning and General Gascoigne, on the other. Mr. Brougham, a young man of first-rate talents, had distinguished himself by the active, zealous, and successful part which he took against the orders in council, and to his exertions the country was chiefly indebted for their repeal; and as Liverpool had suffered extremely by the suspension of the commercial intercourse with America, Mr. Brougham was very popular in that place. Mr. Canning, however, had the decided support of the government party; and though the contest was well maintained, that interest ultimately prevailed. Indeed, the friends of Mr. Brougham attempted too much; they aspired to the return of two representatives, and failing in that purpose, they lost both their candidates.

The relations subsisting between Great Britain and the United States of America, had for many years exhibited a singular aspect; the nations were not indeed in a state of open war, but the conflict of opposite pretensions, the angry discussions of many intricate questions of international law, the charges and recriminations which had for a number of years formed the only subject of their diplomatic intercourse, had diffused over both countries a spirit of distrust and animosity, which seemed likely to find in war alone its natural gratification. In Great Britain, an idea prevailed, and seemed in a considerable degree to influence the ministry, that America had displayed a very unjustifiable spirit of hostility towards this country, while she had manifested a decided leaning and partiality towards the interests and views of France; this opinion appeared to justify those who were decidedly for war with the United States, in giving currency to their hostile feelings. But another circumstance had

operated towards the same end: a war with America, it was argued, would be not only just but of short continuance, and would exhibit a scene of uninterrupted and splendid successes on our part, and of defeat and disgrace on theirs. The Americans, on the other hand, were galled and irritated by the attacks made on their commerce; by the right of search, as claimed and exercised by England, not always on the best grounds, or in the least offensive manner; and by the impressment and detention of their seamen; and to these motives for war, was probably added the hope of conquering Canada, and of enriching themselves by the capture of our merchant ships.

As no doubt could be entertained, that in the event of a war between the two countries, Canada would be attacked, Sir James Craig, the governor of that province, very judiciously took every measure which he thought could be effectual or conducive to its protection and defence. Had he confined himself to this line of conduct alone, no blame could have been imputed to him; but he thought himself justified in sending a person, of the name of Henry, into the United States on a very ambiguous and reprehensible errand. This man was seized by the American government, who obtained possession of his instructions, as well as copies of the communications which he had made to Sir James Craig; (73) and, according to the statements submitted to Congress, the object of Captain Henry was to ingratiate himself with the federal party; to ascertain its strength, its wishes, and its views, in the different states; and more particularly to encourage, with the promise of British assistance, any design they might be disposed to form for a separation of the states. This conduct on the part of Great Britain, originating in one of her highest authorities in North America, the president, in a message to the senate, represented as a flagrant breach of public faith, committed at a time when Great Britain and America were employed in discussions of amity and reconciliation. When the subject of the mission of Captain

Henry was brought before the British parliament, ministers refused to produce the correspondence and papers connected with these mysterious transactions, nor did they give a very clear and satisfactory account of the business. They denied, however, that Captain Henry was accredited by them, or that they were acquainted with the intention of Sir James Craig to employ him. Notwithstanding this disavowal, the British government had all the disgrace of having acted contrary to the law of nations, and at the same time, the mortification to perceive that the American people were more closely united by this most injudicious and unjustifiable attempt to divide them.

Before the intelligence of the assassination of Mr. Perceval reached America, that government had determined on war with Great Britain: and early in the month of June a message was sent to the senate and house of representatives, containing a recommendation to that effect. In this state paper, the president complains of the violation which the American flag had so repeatedly suffered from British vessels "on the great highway of nations;" of the practice of impressing American seamen;* of the violation of the American waters, and of the infraction of the fundamental principles of the law of nations, by the pretended "blockades." But all these causes of war, are in the message held as subordinate to the orders in council, both in the injustice which they display, and in the injury which they inflict. These orders were, it is said, evidently framed so as best to suit the political views and the commercial jealousies of the British government; the consequences which would result from them to neutral nations were never taken into the account, or if contemplated or foreseen as highly prejudicial, that consideration had no weight in the minds of those by whom they were imposed. It was, indeed, attempted to justify them, by an appeal to similar measures adopted and carried into execution by France; as if America could be satisfied with the unjust and injurious conduct of

(73) The circumstances relating to the disclosures made by this agent of the British government, are somewhat incorrectly stated. He was not "seized by the American government," but made a voluntary discovery of the plot, in consequence of the neglect he experienced from the British ministry, and from the still stronger inducement of a pecuniary compensation, to the amount of fifty thousand dollars, paid him by the American administration. It is proper to add, that it did not appear from the papers laid before Congress, that a communication had taken place between Captain Henry, and any individuals of the federal party, on the subject of a separation of the union, or a connexion with the British government.

* In a publication, issued by the authority of the American government, entitled, "An Exposition of the Causes and Character of the War with Great Britain," it is stated, that up to March, 1811, Great Britain had impressed from the crews of American vessels peaceably navigating the high seas, not less than six thousand mariners, who claimed to be citizens of the United States, and who were denied all opportunity of verifying their claims. And in the same publication it is added, that when war was declared, the orders in council had been maintained with inexorable hostility, until a thousand American vessels, with their cargoes, had been seized and confiscated under the operation of these edicts.

one belligerent, by that belligerent proving that she had been treated in an equally unjust and injurious manner by the other. But, what was the fact? France, indeed, by her Berlin and Milan decrees, manifested her willingness and disposition to impede and injure neutral commerce, in order that she might thus cripple the trade of Great Britain; but these decrees were almost a dead letter; British superiority at sea prevented them from being acted upon in any effective or permanent manner; it was therefore absurd to attempt to justify the mischief which actually flowed on America from the orders in council, by appealing to decrees which, while Britain remained mistress of the sea, were utterly without effect. The British government was surprised and indignant that America viewed the conduct of France more coolly than the conduct of England; not recollecting that edicts executed against millions of American property, could not be a retaliation on edicts comparatively impossible to be executed. Besides, this plea of retaliation was untenable, when viewed in another light: to be just, retaliation should fall on the party setting the guilty example, and not on the innocent party; which, moreover, could not be charged with an acquiescence in the injustice practised by France.

This message, which was dated the 1st of June, was on the 18th of the same month, succeeded by an act of Congress, containing a formal declaration of war against Great Britain. Five days after this declaration of war, the orders in council were rescinded by the British government; but the arrival of this intelligence in America, did not appear in the slightest degree to restore a pacific disposition on the part of that government. The orders in council, she said, had not been repealed, because they were unjust in their principle and highly detrimental in their effects on neutral commerce; on the contrary, the motive of their repeal was obviously selfish, and had no reference to the rights of neutral nations. America, to protect herself, and to avenge her wrongs, had prohibited all commercial intercourse with Great Britain; the latter power, thus deprived of her best customer, had no longer a sufficient and regular market for her manufactures and colonial produce; her merchants and her manufacturers were nearly ruined; distress, discontent, and poverty, spread over her territory; complaints and petitions poured in from all quarters; and the orders in council were repealed, not to render justice to America, but to rescue a large portion of the British people from absolute starvation. It was,

however, stated, that if the revocation of the orders in council had taken place sufficiently early to have been communicated to the United States before they had actually declared war, the repeal of these decrees against neutral commerce would have arrested the resort to arms; and that one cause of the war being removed, the other essential cause—the practice of impressment, would have been the subject of renewed negotiation. But the declaration of war having announced the practice of impressment as one of the principal causes, peace could be the result only of an express abandonment of that practice, or of a cessation of actual sufferance, in consequence of a peace in Europe.*

Such are the causes of war, as stated in the official papers put forth by the government of America; but in a declaration promulgated by the Prince-regent of England, some months after letters of marque and reprisals against America had been issued, it was stated, "that the real origin of the contest was to be found in that spirit which had long unhappily actuated the councils of the United States—their marked partiality in palliating and assisting the aggressive tyranny of France; their systematic endeavour to inflame the people against the defensive measures of Great Britain; their injurious conduct towards Spain, the immediate ally of Great Britain; and their unworthy desertion of the cause of other neutral nations." "It is through the prevalence of such councils," says the declaration, "that America has been associated in policy with France, and committed in war against Great Britain: and under what conduct on the part of France has the government of the United States thus lent itself to the enemy? The contemptuous violation of the commercial treaty of the year 1800, between France and the United States; the treacherous seizure of all American vessels and cargoes, in every harbour subject to the control of the French arms; the tyrannical principles of the Berlin and Milan decrees, and the confiscations under them; the subsequent condemnation under the Rambouillet decree, antedated or concealed, to render it more effectual; the French commercial regulations, which rendered the traffic of the United States with France almost illusory; the burning of their merchant ships at sea, long after the alleged repeal of the French decrees—all these acts of violence on the part of France, produced from the government of the United States only such complaints as end in acquies-

* Exposition of the Causes and Character of the War with Great Britain.

cence and submission; or are accompanied by suggestions for enabling France to give the semblance of legal form to her usurpations, by converting them into municipal regulations. This disposition of the government of the United States—this complete subserviency to the ruler of France—this hostile temper towards Great Britain, are evident in almost every page of the official correspondence of the American with the French government, and form the real causes of the present war between America and Great Britain.*

Towards the close of the year 1811, a spirit of riot and insubordination had manifested itself in the county of Nottingham, which, in the course of the present year, extended to the counties of Derbyshire, Leicestershire, Lancashire, Cheshire, and Yorkshire, and, in some degree, pervaded all the manufacturing districts of England. The avowed and immediate object of the insurgents, who assumed the name of Luddites,† was the destruction of certain articles of machinery, the use of which had superseded or diminished manual labour, in the manufacture of the articles to which they were applied. These disturbances, which had now attracted the attention of parliament, and excited apprehensions of the most alarming nature, first manifested themselves by the destruction of a great number of newly-erected stocking-frames, by small parties of men, principally stocking-weavers, who assembled in various places round the town of Nottingham. The men engaged in the disturbances, were, at first, principally those thrown out of employment by the use of the new machinery, or by their refusal to work at the rate of wages offered by the manufacturers, and they particularly sought the destruction of frames owned by those ho-siers, or worked by those men who were willing to work at the lower rates. In consequence of the resistance opposed to the outrages of the rioters, in the course of which one of their number was shot, on the 11th of November, at Bulwell, near Nottingham, they became still more violent, and the magistrates found it neces-

sary to call in the assistance of a considerable armed force, which was promptly assembled, consisting, at first, principally of local militia and volunteer yeomanry, to which were added about four hundred special constables. The terror of this force seemed for a time to allay the spirit of insubordination; but before the end of the month of November, the outrages were renewed, and assumed a more serious and systematic character. In several villages, the rioters not only destroyed the frames, but they levied contributions for subsistence, which rapidly increased their numbers, and enlarged their sphere of action.

A considerable regular military force was now sent to Nottingham, and in January, 1812, two of the most experienced police magistrates were despatched from London to that place, for the purpose of assisting the local authorities in their endeavours to restore tranquillity in the disturbed districts. The systematic combinations with which the outrages were conducted, the terror which they inspired, and the disposition of many of the lower orders to favour, rather than to oppose them, made it very difficult to discover the offenders, or to obtain evidence to convict those who were apprehended.—Some, however, were afterwards proceeded against at the spring assizes of 1812, at Nottingham; and seven persons, convicted of different offences connected with the riots, were sentenced to transportation. In the mean time, acts were passed by the legislature, for establishing a police in the disturbed districts, upon the ancient system of watch and ward, and for making the destruction of stocking-frames a capital crime, punishable by death.

Early in the year, the spirit of riot and disturbance spread itself into Cheshire and Lancashire; at Tentwistle, in the former county, the cotton machinery in Mr. Rhode's mill, was totally destroyed; and at Stockport, the house of Mr. Goodwin was set on fire on the 14th of April, and his steam-looms destroyed. On the 20th of the same month, the manufactory of Messrs. Daniel Burton and sons, situated at Middleton, six miles from Manchester, was attacked by a mob, consisting of several thousand persons, and, although the rioters were repulsed, and four of their number killed by the military force assembled to protect the works, a second attack was made on the following day, when Mr. Emanuel Burton's dwelling-house was set on fire, and destroyed. About the same time, riots took place in Manchester, of which the alleged cause was the high price of provisions. At West Houghton, near Bolton-le-moors, the rioters, taking

* Declaration of the prince-regent, dated January 9th, 1813.

† Probably with a view of inspiring their adherents with confidence, the malcontents gave out that they were under the command of one leader, whom they designated by the fictitious name of Ned Ludd, or General Ludd, calling themselves *Ludds, Ludders, or Luddites*. There is no reason however to believe that there was in truth any one leader. In each district where the disaffection prevailed, the most aspiring man assumed the local superiority, and became the General Ludd of his own district.—*Preface to the Official Report of the Trials at York, in January, 1813.*

advantage of the absence of the military, assailed the large manufactory of Messrs. Wroe and Duncuft, and after having forced the doors, and set fire to the mill and machinery, dispersed before the soldiers could be assembled.

Symptoms of the same lawless disposition appeared at Newcastle-under-line, Wigan, Warrington, and Eccles; and the contagion had spread to Carlisle, and into Yorkshire. In Nottinghamshire, the machinery obnoxious to the rioters was wide weaving frames; in Lancashire, looms wrought by steam; and in Yorkshire, gig-mills, or machinery used in the shearing of woollen-cloth—all inventions of modern date, and each calculated to supersede or diminish the demand for manual labour. In the immediate neighbourhood of Huddersfield, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, the destruction of dressing machines began early in February. In March, the machinery belonging to Mr. Francis Vickerman, in that neighbourhood, was destroyed. In April, the destruction of Bradley Mills was threatened; but the execution of these threats was frustrated by the presence of a military guard, to which the protection of that extensive concern was, for many months, confided. The inhabitants of Leeds had for some time been much alarmed by information that attacks were intended to be made on various places in that town and neighbourhood; and early in the month of January, an assemblage of insubordinate workmen, with their faces blacked, and armed with offensive weapons, took place. On the first night of their meeting, they were surprised by the vigilance of the magistrates, and prevented from committing any outrage; but on the 19th of that month, the gig-mill of Messrs. Oates, Wood, and Smithson, was wilfully set on fire, and considerable damage done to the building and machinery. This incendiary act was succeeded by a regular and systematic attack upon the mill of Messrs. Thompson and brothers, at Rawden, in the same neighbourhood, on the night of the 23d of March, when the shears used in dressing the cloth were broken, and the machinery rendered useless. Previous to the attack, the rioters seized and secured the watch; and when the mischief, which occupied only a few minutes in the perpetration, was effected, they assembled on a neighbouring eminence, and called over the numbers by which they were severally designated, and instantly dispersed. Only two nights afterwards, a quantity of woollen-cloth, of the value of five hundred pounds, dressed by machinery, the property of Messrs. Dick-

inson and Co. was cut in shreds in their dressing-shops, at Leeds. At Horbury, near Wakefield, the mill of Mr. Foster was attacked by an armed body of men, supposed to consist of three hundred, who marched in regular sections to the assault, and destroyed the machinery, having previously secured two of the sons of the proprietor, by tying them together in their bed-room.

These outrages, which had hitherto been practised in the county of York almost with impunity, were at length doomed to receive a check; about midnight on Saturday, the 11th of April, an attack was made by a body of armed men, supposed to amount to about one hundred and fifty, upon the shearing mill of Mr. William Cartwright, situated at Cleckheaton, at about an equal distance from Leeds, Huddersfield, and Halifax. The mill was defended with so much gallantry by Mr. Cartwright, the proprietor, assisted by two soldiers, and four of his work-people, that the assailants, after a number of desperate efforts, were completely repulsed, and two of their number left upon the field mortally wounded.

From this period, the insurgents determined upon a different course of conduct: they had found one of the mills invulnerable, and it was supposed that other proprietors, animated by the success of Mr. Cartwright, would in future defend their property; it was therefore determined no longer to attack the mills, but to strike at the life of the owners: in pursuance of this sanguinary resolution, Mr. William Horsfall, a respectable merchant and mill-owner at Marsden, in the neighbourhood of Huddersfield, was waylaid by four assassins, on Tuesday, the 28th of April, on his return from the market, and mortally wounded by shots fired at him from behind a wall, in open day, on the public road. A reward of two thousand pounds was offered for the discovery of the murderers; but, although the fatal secret was known to many persons besides the parties concerned, such was the spirit of the times, that it was several months before the perpetrators of this atrocious crime were discovered. About the same time, a shot was fired at Mr. Armistage, a magistrate in the neighbourhood of Huddersfield, which happily did not take effect; and Colonel Campbell, the commander of the Leeds district, was equally fortunate in escaping two shots, fired at him within twenty yards of his own door.

At Sheffield, the store-house of arms of the local militia was surprised in the month of May, and a large part of the arms broken and taken away; but this disturbance was

followed by no further consequence, and seems to have been a popular ebullition arising from the high price of the necessities of life. During the months of May and June, depredations of different kinds, and particularly the seizure of arms, continued to be nightly committed in the neighbourhood of Huddersfield and Halifax, where almost all the arms of the peaceable inhabitants were swept away by bands of robbers, who, availing themselves of the general panic, sallied forth nightly to raise contributions upon the public.

The causes alleged for these alarming proceedings, were generally the want of employment for the working manufacturers—a want, however, which was the least felt in some of the places where the disorders were the most prevalent; another of the alleged causes was the application of machinery to supply the place of labour; and a third, the high price of provisions. An opinion also prevailed at the time, that the views of some of the persons engaged in these excesses, extended to revolutionary measures, and contemplated the overthrow of the government; but this opinion seems to have been supported by no satisfactory evidence; and it is admitted on all hands, that the leaders of the riots, although possessed of considerable influence, were all of the labouring classes.

That societies existed for forwarding the objects of the disaffected, was clearly manifested, all which societies were directed by a secret committee, which might be considered as the great mover of the whole machine; and it was established by the various information received from different parts of the country, that these societies were governed by their respective secret committees; that delegates and messengers were continually despatched from place to place for the purpose of concerting plans and conveying information;* that an illegal oath of the most atrocious kind was extensively administered;† and that

* A small weekly contribution paid by every member of these combinations, formed a fund, by which the delegates and messengers were wholly, or in part, supported, according to the nature and extent of their service. This fund, there is reason to suppose, was also applied to the support of the imprisoned Luddites; and its application in this way, combined with the nature of the oath, may in some degree account for the paucity of information collected from them while in prison, and even in the prospect of death. In fact, they made no disclosures. All their secrets, whether they related to the organization of their societies, the names of their leaders, or their depots of arms, died with them.

† Several copies of the oath were discovered, but the following appears to be the correct version:—

OATH—"I, A. B. of my own voluntary will, do declare, and solemnly swear, that I never will re-

veal to any person or persons under the canopy of heaven, the names of the persons who compose this secret committee, their proceeding, meetings, places of abode, dress, features, complexion, or any thing else that might lead to a discovery of the same, either by word, deed, or sign, under the penalty of being sent out of the world by the first brother who shall meet me, and my name and character blotted out of existence, and never to be remembered but with contempt and abhorrence; and I further now do swear, that I will use my best endeavours to punish by death any traitor or traitors, should any rise up among us, wherever I can find him or them, and though he should fly to the verge of nature, I will pursue him with increasing vengeance. So help me God, and bless me to keep this my oath inviolable."

secret signs were arranged, by which the persons engaged in these conspiracies were known to each other. The military organization, carried on by persons engaged in these societies, had also proceeded to an alarming length: in some parts of the country, they assembled in large numbers, chiefly by night, upon heaths or commons, taking the usual precaution of paroles and counter-signs. The muster-rolls were called over by numbers, not by names; they were directed by leaders, sometimes in disguise; they placed sentries to give alarm at the approach of any person, whom they might suspect of an intention to interrupt or give information of their proceedings: and they dispersed instantly at the firing of a gun, or other signal agreed upon, and so dispersed as to avoid detection. In some instances, signals were made by rockets and blue lights, by which they communicated intelligence to the parties, and the whole system evinced an extraordinary degree of concert, secrecy, and organization. The collection of arms and ammunition, and the progress in discipline, as manifested in the attacks upon some of the mills, could not fail to produce in the country a great degree of alarm; and the system of intimidation produced by the oaths administered to the initiated; the destruction of property; and the threats held out against, and, in some cases, executed upon their opposers; greatly aggravated this alarm, and for a long time tended to baffle every effort made to bring the offenders to justice.

In consequence of the report of the secret committee appointed by parliament, from which the foregoing relation is principally drawn, government determined to adopt decisive and vigorous measures against the insurgents. A bill was immediately brought into the house of commons, which made it a capital offence to administer illegal oaths; and the power of the magistrates in the disturbed districts was considerably enlarged. These measures were strongly objected to by Mr. Whit-

bread, Sir Francis Burdett, and several other members, on the ground that the report of the secret committee had been entirely made up from documents and evidence which were by no means entitled to implicit belief; and which ought not to guide parliament when they were about to legislate for the purpose of curtailing the liberty of the subject and increasing the number of capital crimes, already much too great in the criminal code of this country. That, at any rate, if measures so strong and severe as those proposed by ministers were to be resorted to, it would be but just that government should, at the same time, as much as lay in their power, remove the cause of the disturbances which they were about to punish; that their principal cause must be sought in the extension of taxation, and the destruction of commerce and manufactures; and that these, in their turn, originated in the foolish and wicked continuance of a war without object and without hopes, and in the profligate expenditure of the public money. These representations, however, had no effect; and it must be confessed, that when certain classes of the people, in any country, are so ill-advised as to have recourse to violence and force for the purpose of removing their real or imaginary grievances, it is the first and most imperious duty of government to protect the peaceable and well-disposed, and to restore public tranquillity by subduing the lawless. After order and tranquillity are restored, government have another duty to perform, equally imperious—the removal of every real and well-founded cause for complaint and dissatisfaction: and a government, which, with equal judgment and promptitude, performs both these duties, will be at once respected and loved, and will best secure the well-being of the nation committed to its charge.

The exertions of the magistrates in Lancashire and Cheshire, had, early in May, filled the jails of those counties with prisoners, charged with various offences; and in the interval between the spring and the summer assizes, special commissions were issued to try the offenders. These commissions were opened at Lancaster on the 23d of May, before Mr. Baron Thompson and Sir Simon Le Blanc; and at Chester on the 25th of the same month, before Mr. Justice Dallas and Mr. Justice Barton. Under each of the commissions, numerous convictions took place for every gradation of

offence; and of the capital convicts, eight at Lancaster, and two at Chester, suffered the penalty of the law.

Although the excesses in the west-riding were checked by the executions in the neighbouring counties, and by the laws passed by parliament, yet no very important discoveries were made in the county of York, earlier than the month of July. At that time, some commitments took place, and information was obtained, principally through the zeal, perseverance, and energy of that intrepid magistrate, Joseph Radcliffe, Esq. of Milns-Bridge, near Huddersfield,* by which sixty-four persons, charged with offences connected with the disturbances in the west-riding, were, before the close of the year, apprehended and lodged in the castle at York. Government now determined to issue a special commission for the trial of these prisoners, which was directed to Mr. Baron Thompson, and Mr. Justice Le Blanc, who appointed the 2d of January for opening the assize. The trials exhibited a scene of moral turpitude, at which the mind shudders: of sixty-four prisoners, eighteen were capitally convicted;† of whom, three, the murderers of Mr. Horsfall, were executed on Friday the 8th of January, and fourteen others on Saturday, the 16th of the same month, the sentence of the remaining capital convict being commuted to transportation for life. Six were convicted of administering, or of aiding in, and consenting to, the administration of unlawful oaths, and sentenced to be transported for seven years; seven others put upon their trials were acquitted; seventeen, against whom bills of indictment had been found for capital offences, were discharged on bail; and sixteen others by proclamation.

For some months before the special assize, the disturbances in Yorkshire, as well as in all the other manufacturing districts of the kingdom, had nearly subsided; and this tremendous example, made to the offended laws of the country, served to confirm and render permanent the public tranquillity.

* As a mark of the royal favour for the distinguished services rendered to the country at the period now under consideration, this gentleman was, in the course of the following year, created a baronet.

† Three for murder; five for the attack on Mr. Cartwright's mill; and the remainder for burglaries, committed ostensibly for the collection of arms, but really for the acquisition of plunder.

CHAPTER XVIII.

Russian Campaign: Causes of the War—Austria and Prussia become Parties in the War against Russia—Preparations for Opening the Campaign—Bonaparte quits Paris to assume the Command of the French Army—Opening of the Campaign—Passage of the Niemen by the French—Retreat of the Russian Army, and Advance of the French to the Capital of Russian Poland—The French interpose between the First and Second Russian Armies—Concentration of the First Russian Army on the Dwina, under the Commander-in-Chief, General Barclay de Tolly—Critical Situation of General Bagration—Advance of the French Army to the Dwina—The French possess themselves of Vitepsk—Defeat of Marshal Oudinot by Prince Wittgenstein on the Dwina—Junction of Prince Bagration with the First Russian Army—Advance of the Russians, under Admiral Tschichagoff from the Dnube into the Government of Minsk—Operations in the North—The Intention of Marshal Oudinot and General St. Cyr to penetrate to St. Petersburg defeated—Battle of Smolenak, and Advance of the French Army—Arrival of the French at Viasna—Command of the Russian Armies transferred from General Barclay de Tolly to Prince Kutusoff—Battle of Borodino—Entrance of the French into Moscow—Destruction of that Magnificent City.

THE campaign of the French in Russia will form one of the most interesting and extraordinary portions of history; whether we consider the mighty interests which depended on its issue, the magnitude of the means employed, the singular and impressive events which marked its progress, or the momentous consequences that flowed in rapid succession from this prolific source. Here, all the efforts of genius, discipline, and numbers, were rendered abortive. The army, which, in the arrogance of the invader's calculation, was to lay the foundation of universal dominion, was itself annihilated; the stupendous fabric of power and conquest, raised by a life of adventurous and successful enterprise, was shaken; and the enemies of the conqueror of Austerlitz and Friedland, gathering strength as they advanced, and animated by a succession of triumphs, were at length enabled to execute an awful retribution for all the humiliation they had experienced, and all the wrongs they had suffered.

The principal article of the treaty of Tilsit, was that by which Russia bound herself to accede to the continental system, and to exclude from her ports all British manufactures and colonial produce.* On this article, Bonaparte laid so much stress, that he was willing to purchase the acquiescence of Russia by foregoing all the advantages of his victory over her. Finding all direct efforts to subjugate Great Britain impracticable, he resolved on measures for gradually exhausting her resources; but, while his edicts were limited in their operation to the states over which he exercised a direct control, they were found to be in a great measure ineffectual. His plan, therefore, was to render them general throughout the continent; to seduce or to compel all the nations of Europe to give them effect, and in this way to dissolve the com-

mercial relations of Great Britain with continental Europe. The Emperor of Russia, not aware of the consequences of his engagements at Tilsit, had placed himself in a situation of great difficulty and embarrassment: if he attempted to fulfil the treaty so far as to interdict the trade between Great Britain and the Russian empire, he deprived his subjects of the best market for their produce, and roused his nobility against him—and the nobility in Russia, as in all despotic and semi-barbarous countries, are as frequently the masters as the subjects of their sovereign. A regard, therefore, to his own tranquillity and safety, as well as to the well-being of his subjects, prompted him to deviate from the continental system; while, on the other hand, his apprehensions of the power of Bonaparte, were so strong and well founded, that he determined upon a series of compromise; and as he could not strictly prohibit British manufactures, for which the produce of Russia was exchanged, the emperor issued a ukase on the 10th of December, 1810, forbidding the introduction of all British produce and manufactures into his dominions, except by special license, and in neutral ships. This partial prohibition was by no means satisfactory to Bonaparte: the slightest tendency to favour British commerce did not fail to rouse his indignation; and the natural irritability of his temper was whetted the more sharply against Russia, because she had bound herself by treaty to adhere to the "Continental System," and in consequence of this agreement, had experienced more favour from him in the other articles of the treaty of Tilsit, than she would otherwise have acquired, or indeed had, in her portentous situation, any right to expect.

But while Bonaparte was thus peremptory with Russia, respecting the rigid fulfilment of the secret article of the treaty of Tilsit, he did not himself hesitate to violate its open and avowed stipulations. In con-

* See vol. i. chap. ii. p. 602.

travention of this treaty,* he seized the dominions of the Duke of Oldenburg, the brother-in-law of the Emperor Alexander, and the ally of Russia; and with most insulting sophistry, attempted to justify this act of spoliation by representing it to be in conformity with the spirit of the treaty of Tilsit. The French minister, assuming the language of complaint, upbraided Russia with having abandoned the engagements to which she had pledged herself at Tilsit, and with violating that treaty, the principle of which she had solemnly espoused in her declaration of war against England:

"From the moment," says the French minister, "the ukase of the Russian government permitted the importation of British goods under neutral flags, the treaty of Tilsit was at an end. Russia had broken her solemn engagements; she forgot what she owed to the clemency and magnanimity of the French emperor, in not only not stripping her of part of her dominions, but in even permitting her to enlarge them by the annexation of Moldavia and Wallachia. Russia further discovered that she had abandoned the continental system by protesting against the occupation of the duchy of Oldenburg; that occupation was indispensable to the full execution of that system; but France, willing to pacify Russia, offered the Duke of Oldenburg an indemnity for his loss of territory; and that indemnity, by the advice of Russia, was refused. These events occurred in the course of the year 1810: in the subsequent year, the intentions of Russia were still more manifest: at the very time that she was dictating the terms of peace to the Turks, she was preparing for war against France: in the month of February, 1811, the Russian armies pressed so closely, and in such numbers, on the Vistula, that the army of the duchy of Warsaw was compelled to repass that river, and fall back on the confederation. At the very moment when the Russian armies were so powerful, and were collected in such a menacing posture and situation, all the French troops were within the Rhine, except a corps of forty thousand men stationed at Hamburg, for the defence of the coasts of the North Sea, and for the maintenance of tranquillity in the countries recently united; the reserved places in Prussia were occupied only by the allied troops: the garrison of Dantzic consisted of not more than four thousand men; and even the troops of the duchy of Warsaw were on the peace establishment. His majesty, nevertheless, was even yet unwilling to suspect Russia of breaking her most solemn engagements, or to imagine that, after the experience she had had of the result of a contest with France, she would again hazard it, unprovoked and without cause: he therefore proposed an arrangement on the following terms:—

"In the first place, the existence of the duchy of Warsaw:—this indeed was a condition of the treaty of Tilsit: secondly, the annexation of Oldenburg; this, the war with England had rendered necessary; and this also, though not contained in the treaty of Tilsit, was conformable to its spirit: thirdly, that Russia should pass clear and positive laws respecting trade in English merchandise and denationalized vessels; these laws to be regulated by the spirit and terms of the treaty of Tilsit: lastly, the recalling of the ukase of 1810,

by which the mercantile relations of France and Russia were destroyed, and the ports of the latter opened to English produce.

"The offer of articles so moderate in themselves, which would have been discussed and modified on the part of France with perfect amercity and an anxious desire to be at peace with Russia, and to secure her interests, was received, not with the same spirit which dictated them, but with evidences of a hostile disposition. All new offers made to Russia were answered by her with fresh armaments; she refused to enter into explanation, to propose any terms, to state what were her grievances, or the object she had in view, till at length it became apparent that it was not her own commerce, but the commerce of England, that she wished to protect and encourage; that she did not wish to secure the independence of Warsaw, but to seize it herself; and that it was not for the interests of the Duke of Oldenburg that she wished to interfere, but that it was an open quarrel with France that she wished to keep in reserve, till the moment of the rupture for which she was preparing."

Very soon after the differences began between Napoleon and the Emperor Alexander, the former took such measures as he thought would either awe the emperor into submission, or secure victory and success in case of hostilities; he assembled large bodies of troops in the north of Germany; instead of evacuating Prussia, which he was bound to do, he kept possession of a great part of that kingdom, especially of those places which were most conveniently situated for an attack on Russian Poland; and he forcibly occupied Swedish Pomerania. To all these circumstances, the Russian ambassador alludes in his reply to the communication from the French minister of foreign affairs:—

"The preservation of Prussia and her independence," says the Russian minister, "from every political engagement hostile to Russia, are indispensable to the interests of his imperial majesty: it is impossible that peace between France and Russia should be permanent, that it should not be frequently interrupted or endangered, if there does not exist between them a neutral country, neutral in reality, and not merely in name, and capable of making its neutrality respected: it is therefore absolutely necessary that all foreign troops should be withdrawn from Prussia; till they are withdrawn, Russia cannot consider herself safe, nor can she regard France as that sincere and real ally which she always wishes to consider her. The Emperor Alexander is convinced that it is his real policy to be at peace with France; and he therefore is extremely solicitous to remove every cause of suspicion or quarrel; but this cannot be done, while, by the occupation of Prussia, the Russian frontiers are threatened by the French army. Under these impressions, therefore, the Russian ambassador declares that the first basis of a negotiation must be a formal engagement, or a complete evacuation of the Prussian states, and of all the strong places in Prussia; a diminution of the garrison of Dantzic; the evacuation of Swedish Pomerania; and an arrangement with the King of Sweden, calculated to give mutual satisfaction to the crowns of France and Sweden:—If these terms are previously complied with, the Emperor Alexander engages in

* See vol. i. chap. ii. p. 602.

to adopt any change of the prohibitory measures established in Russia against direct trade with England; to agree with the French emperor respecting a system of licenses, to be introduced into Russia in the same manner as in France, provided such system does not augment the deterioration already experienced by the trade of Russia; to modify the custom-house duties of the Russian empire, in such a manner as may be desired by France; and, finally, to conclude a treaty of exchange for the dutchy of Oldenburg, and to withdraw the protest he was about to issue, on the subject of the seizure of that duchy, and on the claims of his family to it."

No answer was made by France to this remonstrance. The die was now cast, and Napoleon was preparing to place himself at the head of his army; but before he quitted Paris, the usual annual exposition on the state of France was presented by the minister for foreign affairs. In this document, the approaching war with Russia was avowed, and descanted upon with much formality. New charges against the Emperor Alexander were made, and it was asserted, that in the Austrian war of 1809, the Russian contingent of auxiliary troops had not been brought forward; Russia was bound by treaty to assist France with one hundred and fifty thousand troops; but so slow was she in her movements, and so inadequate in the force sent to co-operate with her ally, that only fifteen thousand men came into the field, and by the time they had crossed the Russian frontier, the fate of the war was decided. This exposé was accompanied by copies of treaties which had been entered into by France with Austria and Prussia; by the former of which the Emperor Francis engaged to furnish thirty thousand men to France in her war with Russia; to guarantee the integrity of the Turkish territories in Europe; and to recognise the principles of the treaty of Utrecht, which sanctions the favourite doctrine of the French emperor—that neutral bottoms make neutral goods, and that the flag covers and protects the merchandise, even though it be the property of a belligerent, provided it be not contraband of war. The treaty between France and Prussia was merely nominal; all the resources and troops of Prussia had long been at the disposal of France, and this treaty, which was defensive, contained no stipulation regarding the force which either party should bring into the field.

Preparations had been made by Russia, so early as the spring of 1811, to meet the crisis which was so fast approaching. Two hundred thousand troops were concentrated in the western governments of the Russian empire; the manufacture of arms was encouraged; five hundred thousand muskets, and two thousand pieces of ordnance, were manufactured with unex-

ampled rapidity; the cannon from the arsenals and in the interior was secretly despatched towards the frontier; and the fortifications of the Dwina were everywhere strengthened and improved. At this period, the Russian infantry of the line consisted of twenty-eight divisions, of six regiments each, and every regiment containing one thousand eight hundred men, forming a total of three hundred and two thousand four hundred; the cavalry consisted of seven divisions, of forty squadrons each, each squadron containing one hundred and forty-two effective men, so that the whole cavalry amounted to thirty-nine thousand seven hundred and sixty: besides these, there were fifty thousand Cossacks; making an aggregate of three hundred and ninety-two thousand one hundred and sixty men. But of this number, two divisions were employed against the Persians; five against the Turks; and two were stationed in Finland, as the system meant to be pursued by Sweden was not at that time ascertained. It follows, therefore, that the force which could have been brought to act against the French, nearly reached three hundred thousand men, exclusive of the militia. Such were the military preparations of Russia in 1811; and as the probability of war was continually increasing subsequent to that period, it is reasonable to infer, that her preparations and means were augmented when hostilities actually commenced.

Bonaparte had been more urgent and imperious in his demands, than active in his preparations. In 1811, he had about sixty thousand men in Germany, including the garrisons of Stettin, Custrin, and Glogau; from the dutchy of Warsaw, he might have drawn about the same number; while the confederation of the Rhine, whose contingent was one hundred thousand, could not, at this time, have supplied more than half that number. By the spring of the following year, however, the French armies had been greatly augmented; the troops of the confederation had been raised to the stipulated quota, and the Kings of Saxony and Naples had been induced to embark in the great enterprise against Russia. The armies which Napoleon had thus assembled on the frontiers of Russian Poland, amounted, by a moderate computation, to three hundred thousand infantry, and sixty thousand cavalry, in a state of the highest discipline and equipment, provided with fifteen hundred pieces of cannon, and commanded by the first military talents of the age. (74)

(74) Most of the French accounts carry this force much higher than is here represented. Bourgeois, an eyewitness of most of the opera-

The preparations made on each side corresponded to the magnitude of the interests embarked in the contest. The Russians were about to contend for the very existence and independence of their country; the French, on the other hand, were now to strike a blow, which would, if successful, place the whole of continental Europe under their dominion. In numbers, the combatants were not, at first, on a footing of equality; and in discipline, in science, and in organization, the French had a marked superiority. The whole of the military resources of a mighty empire, pre-eminent in civilization, yet devoted to war, were brought forth; every aid that experience and skill could give in the application of these resources, was contributed; the accumulated means and varied talents which twenty years of successful war had created, were concentrated in this formidable host. The French legions were composed of soldiers grown old in victory, or the successors of those who had perished in the midst of triumphs; all animated by the lively enthusiasm so characteristic of their nation, and so natural to the circumstances in which the army was placed.

The Russians possessed other advantages for the approaching contest, which may seem almost to have overbalanced those of the enemy. They had been impelled into a state of warfare by the necessity of defending their country from a foreign yoke. They had indeed few distinguished generals, but they had many men of bold and vigorous minds, who required only the extraordinary combination of circumstances which the enemy had hastened, to draw forth their talents. The science of war, it has been justly remarked, requires not the highest gifts, either of the head or of the heart; and barbarous nations, in general, possess a great deal more of that species of talent which qualifies a man for the conduct of a fierce and obstinate contest, than their more polished neighbours. The Russian soldiers, if they were less active than the French, were far more resolute and steady; if their onset

was less impetuous and vigorous, they could sustain the conflict with more firmness and determination; if they had less discipline, they had more native courage; if they could not rally so fast, neither were they so soon thrown into disorder; if they had not, in the present instance, the hope of conquest to animate them, they had a sense of duty, the feelings of patriotism, and the sanction of religion to confirm their native bravery.

On the 9th of May, Bonaparte left Paris, and on the 22d of June he arrived on the banks of the Niemen. The organization of the army was now fully completed, and placed under its respective commanders.* The Russian army at this time opposed to the French was composed of seven great corps.† The first, twenty thousand

* LIST

Of the principal French Commanders in the Russian Campaign of 1812.

NAPOLEON, Emperor of France.
Jerome, King of Westphalia, Commander of the Advanced-guard.
Joachim Murat, King of Naples, Commander of all the Cavalry.
Eugene Beauharnois, Viceroy of Italy, Commander of the 4th Corps.
Berthier, Prince of Neufchatel and of Wagram, Major-general.
Davoust, Prince of Eckmühl, Commander of the 1st Corps.
Oudinot, Duke of Reggio, . . . do. 2d
Ney, Duke of Elchingen, . . . do. 3d
Prince Poniatowski, . . . do. 5th
Marshal Count St. Cyr, . . . do. 6th
General Count Regnier, . . . do. 7th
Junot, Duke of Abrantes, . . . do. 8th
Victor, Duke of Belluno, . . . do. 9th
Macdonald, Duke of Tarento, . . . do. 10th
Prince Schwartzberg, Commander of the Austrian Auxiliary Corps.
Bossieres, Duke of Istria, Commander of the Cavalry of the Guard.
Caulincourt, Duke of Vicenza, General of Division, Grand Ecuyer.
Duroc, Duke of Friuli, General of Division, Grand-marshal of the Palace.
Count Rapp, Count Lauriston, Generals of Division, Aides-de-camp to the Emperor. &c. &c.

† LIST

Of the principal Russian Commanders in the Campaign of 1812.

ALEXANDER, Emperor of Russia.
Grand-duke Constantine.
Prince Kutsoff, Commander-in-chief.
Barclay de Tolly, Commander-in-chief before the arrival of Prince Kutsoff.
Prince Wittgenstein, Com. of 1st Corps
Gen. Bogawout, . . . do. 2d
Schomooloff, . . . do. 3d
Tutschkoff, . . . do. 4th
Prince Bagration, . . . do. 5th
Gen. Doctorow, . . . do. 6th
Tormasow, . . . do. 7th
Admiral Tschikakoff, Commander of the Army of the Danube.
Platoff, Hetman of the Cossacks.

tions of this campaign, computes it at 400,000, three-fourths of whom were French. (Tableau de la Campagne de Moscou, p. 5.) The author of the life of Marshal Ney, who appears to have drawn his information from official sources, estimates it at 400,000 infantry and 60,000 cavalry, independent of an Austrian corps of 30,000 men under Prince Schwartzberg. (Vie du Maréchal Ney, Paris, 1816.) Either these statements are incorrect, or but a small part of this army actually entered Russia, for it seems generally admitted, that at the battle of Borodino, or Mojaïsk, the forces on each side did not exceed one hundred and thirty thousand men.

strong, occupied Rossiena and Keidanoui; the second, of the same force, guarded Kowno; the third, consisting of twenty-four thousand, was posted at New Troki; the fourth corps was stationed in the country between New Troki and Lida; and these four corps, together with the guards, were designated by the name of the "First Army of the West." The "Second Army of the West" consisted of the 5th corps, amounting to forty thousand men; and of the 6th, consisting of eighteen thousand men; and was encamped at Grodno, Lida, and in other parts of Volhynia. General Marcoff organized in this province the 9th and 15th divisions, which formed the 7th corps, and which acted in the sequel under General Tormasow, against the duchy of Warsaw.

On taking the field, Napoleon, assuming a prophetic tone, issued the following proclamation at Wilkowsiki, dated the 22d of June:—

"SOLDIERS!—The second Polish war is begun; the first terminated at Friedland and at Tilsit: at Tilsit, Russia vowed an eternal alliance to France, and war to England. She now breaks her vows, and refuses to give any explication of her strange conduct; let not the French eagles repress the Rhine, to leave our allies at her discretion.

"Russia is hurried away by a fatality! her destinies will be fulfilled. Does she think us degenerated? Are we no more the same soldiers who fought at Austerlitz? She places us between dishonour and war. Our choice cannot be difficult. Let us march across the Niemen! and carry the war into her country. This second Polish war will be as glorious for the French arms, as the first has been; but the peace we shall conclude, will carry along with it its own guarantee, and will put a stop to the fatal influence which Russia, for fifty years past, has exercised in Europe."

On the 24th, the French army forced the passage of the Niemen at Kowno; and on the 25th the Emperor Alexander issued from Wilna the following proclamation:—

"For a long time past we have remarked, on the part of the Emperor of the French, hostile proceedings towards Russia; but we had always hoped to avert them by conciliatory and pacific means. At length, experiencing a continued renewal of direct offences, in spite of our desire to maintain tranquillity, we have been obliged to complete and to assemble our armies. But even then, we still flattered ourselves to succeed in a reconciliation, by remaining on the frontiers of our empire, without violating the peace, and being prepared only for our defence. All these conciliatory and pacific means could not preserve the

peace we desired. The Emperor of the French, by suddenly attacking our army at Kowno, has been the first to declare war. As nothing, therefore, can make him sensible of our desire to maintain peace, we have no choice but to oppose our forces to those of the enemy, invoking the aid of the Almighty, witness and defender of the truth. It is unnecessary for me to recall to the minds of the commanders, to the chiefs of the corps, and to the soldiers, their duty and their bravery; the blood of the gallant Slavonians runs in their veins. Warriors! you defend your religion, your country, and your liberty! I am with you. God is against the aggressor.

(Signed)

"ALEXANDER."

The plan of defence which the Russians had decided upon, was well adapted to the circumstances of the country, and the character of the army and of the people. A general battle in the early stages of the campaign, was to be avoided, because the superior discipline and tactics of the enemy must, in such a conflict, have given him many advantages. His progress was, however, to be retarded by a bold resistance at all points where a stand could easily be made, without committing the armies in a general engagement. The country, so far as the invaders might be able to penetrate, was to be laid waste; every thing useful to the enemy was to be destroyed or removed; and a scene of desolation was to be presented on every side. Should the enemy, in such circumstances, dare to advance into the heart of the country, his difficulties would every day accumulate; and should he be desperate enough to linger in the interior till the approach of winter, his doom would be sealed.

The passage of the Niemen, and the capture of Kowno, though in themselves events of little moment, were attended with very important consequences. The Russians, in pursuance of the plan of the campaign which they had resolved to follow, had marked out their first line of defence on the banks of the Dwina, and it is not easy to discover the military policy which induced them to push forward a large portion of their troops to the margin of the Niemen. By this disposition of their forces, the Russian line became too much extended, and in many places so disadvantageously posted, that it was exposed to the attacks of the enemy without any prospect of presenting a successful resistance to his advance. Bonaparte, instantly perceiving the error that had been committed, penetrated into Russian Poland with so much rapidity as to cut off the communication between the first and second Russian armies, and hoped to consummate his success by his favourite manœuvre of attacking and defeating his enemies in detail. In the former part of his plan, he was completely successful: but in the latter he was

Platoff, Son to the Hetman.

Orlov Densinow, General of the Advanced-guard.

Gen. Kamenski,
Ertel,
Essen,
Marcoff,

} Commanders in Volhynia.

Count Rostopchin, Military Governor of Moscow.
Miloradowitch, Commander-general of the Advanced-guard of Prince Kutsoff &c. &c.

foiled and disappointed, by the steady and persevering resistance of the troops to which he was opposed.

As soon as the French troops had crossed the Niemen, they pushed forward with great rapidity to Wilna. On many accounts, the occupation of this city was of the utmost consequence to Napoleon: the Emperor Alexander was still here; and though there was no chance of making so exalted a captive, yet the circumstance of Alexander flying before the French, served to give *eclat* to the commencement of the campaign; and the expectation might be entertained, that if he remained sufficiently long to witness the rapid advance and formidable numbers of the French army, he would be intimidated into submission. On the 28th of June, Bonaparte entered the capital of Russian Poland; and from the measures which he immediately adopted, it was plain that he expected considerable assistance from the Poles. He knew their just hatred to Russia; and though he had already deceived them, in the expectation of independence which he had held out on a former occasion, yet he knew how to inspire them with fresh confidence. France herself had never inflicted, because it was impossible to inflict, greater evils upon any nation, than those which Poland had suffered from Russia; and when the re-establishment of the kingdom of Poland was now proclaimed, and a diet assembled, under the guarantee of the French emperor, the national enthusiasm was raised in his favour, and the ranks of his army swelled by Polish levies.

The French troops, instead of following the Russians to the Dwina, whither they had retired, spread themselves towards the south, with the two-fold object of cutting off the second corps of the Russian army, under Prince Bagration, which was already separated from the first, under General Barclay de Tolly, the commander-in-chief, and of turning the intrenchments on the Dwina, without being exposed to the hazard of carrying them by storm. The bulletins issued by the French emperor during this campaign were read with avidity in every part of Europe; and never were they so interesting as they had now become. Already they began to change their character; no victories were gained, few prisoners were made; and the capture of cannon and colours, the trophies of war, no longer imparted a splendour to those military documents.

As soon as the Emperor Alexander became acquainted with the nature of the movements made by the enemy, he issued orders to the different divisions of the Russian army to re-unite at Drissa, at

which place a strong intrenched camp had been previously formed. In compliance with this order, General Wittgenstein advanced with the first corps from Vilkomer to Braslaw. General Doctorow was eagerly followed by the enemy, and had several affairs during his retreat with the corps of Soult, Borde, Nansouty, and Pajol, whom he continually repulsed, and on the 4th of July effected a junction with the main army. On the 6th, the rear-guard of the right of the army under Generals Knorrff and Kutusoff, was attacked near the Dwina by the troops under the King of Naples, supported by a strong corps of flying artillery under General Montbrun; but the assailants were received with bravery, and quickly repulsed by the Cossacks of the guards, who took some prisoners, among whom was the Prince Hohenloe Kirchberg, in the service of the King of Wirtemberg. The Russians were now enabled to pass the river without molestation, and on the 8th the main body of the first army effected their passage at Dinabourg. The divisions of the first army had thus been assembled without loss; but the movements of Prince Bagration were attended with infinitely greater difficulty. This general, who, when the orders of the emperor for forming a junction on the Dwina reached him, was stationed with the second army in the government of Minsk, in the neighbourhood of Bialystock and Volkovisk, ordered the Hetman Platoff, with his Cossacks, to advance upon Grodno, and thus protect the movements of the main body, on their advance in the direction of Wilna. But he soon discovered that the French army was already spread over his line of march, and that the junction with the first army in this direction could be effected only by great sacrifices. Under these circumstances, he thought proper to retrace his steps, and to direct his march towards Minsk; he had soon however the mortification to learn that here again he had been anticipated, and that the Prince of Eckmuhl was already in possession of that place. The situation of the Russian general had now become critical and embarrassing in the extreme; but with that presence of mind, which never deserts a brave and able commander, he instantly resolved to march towards Slutsk, in the hope that he might afterwards proceed by Mohilow towards Vitepsk, and there accomplish the object of his exertions.

The route on which Prince Bagration now determined, was circuitous, and his progress was attended with much hazard. To cover his movements, Platoff, with his Cossacks and light artillery, left Grodno, and passed towards Mir. This move-

ment of the Cossack chief probably saved the second Russian army. On the 7th of July, Platoff was met by the advanced guard of the French army, under the King of Westphalia, which he repulsed with great slaughter. The following day Platoff occupied the suburbs of Mir, and again repulsed a still greater force, under the Polish chief Rominaki. In the sanguinary affair which succeeded, the enemy was defeated; three entire regiments of Polish hulans were cut to pieces; and the commander narrowly escaped being made prisoner. The loss of the Russians also was severe; and their indefatigable leader had fresh obstacles to encounter. He no sooner directed his troops towards Romaroff, than he was again attacked by an enemy still more formidable; when an obstinate engagement again ensued, in which the first regiment of chasseurs a cheval, and the grenadiers a cheval, shared the fate of the Polish hulans. Two colours, sixteen inferior officers, and three hundred men, were made prisoners in this rencontre; and, after having pursued the enemy for three leagues, the Cossacks advanced to Mohilow, to maintain their communication with the second army, which was moving on this place by forced marches.

Notwithstanding these partial advantages, no effectual resistance had been made to the progress of the grand army of the enemy; and the Emperor Napoleon, in announcing his progress, exclaimed, "Ten days after the opening of the campaign, our advanced posts are upon the banks of the Dwina! Almost all Lithuania, a country containing four millions of inhabitants, is conquered. The Russians are engaged in concentrating their forces at Drissa. They now talk of fighting, after having abandoned, without a stroke, their Polish possessions. Perhaps they adopt this peaceful mode of evacuation as an act of justice, to make some restitution to a country which they had acquired neither by treaty nor the right of conquest." It now seems to have been the intention of the French to attack the right of the Russian army, and to force the works of the Dwina. With this view, Marshal Oudinot approached Dinabourg: and in the morning of the 18th attacked the bridge, where some works had been constructed. This attack was gallantly repulsed by the Russians; and although the attempt to force the passage was renewed with increased vigour on the following day, the enemy was again driven back with considerable loss. The project of forcing the Russian intrenched camp was now abandoned, and the enemy determined to push forward to Vitepsk, on which station

Beauharnois, Davoust, and Mortier, were already moving. The Russian left at the same time made a rapid movement on Polotsk; and the commander-in-chief finally resolved to abandon his intrenched camp at Drissa and to retire on Smolensk, where it was hoped that a junction might at last be formed with the second army. Prince Wittgenstein, who about this time began to display those military talents by which their possessor was enabled to act so distinguished a part in the deliverance of Europe, was in the mean time left to occupy the country to the north of the Dwina, and to keep in check the corps under Macdonald and Oudinot. On the 25th, the Russian corps under General Osterman was in motion; and three versts (two English miles) in advance of Ostrowno, they fell in with a large body of French cavalry under the King of Naples, who fought with determined bravery, but were ultimately compelled to give way. The Russians, too impetuous in following up their success, were in their turn repulsed, with a loss of twenty pieces of cannon. On the following day, the King of Naples, powerfully reinforced by the Viceroy of Italy, renewed the attack. The Russians had their right on the Dwina, their centre on the great road leading to Vitepsk, and their left covered by a wood, of which the French made several vigorous efforts to obtain possession. During the heat of the battle, the Emperor Napoleon was discovered on the road in the midst of a brilliant suite. After surveying the field from an eminence, he caused new dispositions to be made, which being executed with order and rapidity, the French army was soon in the middle of the forest, and at the close of the day this advanced-guard arrived at the foot of the hills of Vitepsk.

On the morning of the 27th, at the dawn of day, the French marched upon Vitepsk, and took possession of that city, from which the Russians retired, posting themselves upon an eminence which commanded the Smolensk road. The two grand armies, now in sight of each other, waited with impatience for the commencement of a general battle; but at the moment when every thing seemed to be prepared for the great struggle, the plans of the Russian general-in-chief were changed by the receipt of intelligence from Bagration, who, finding Mohilow in possession of the French, had determined to retire by another route upon Smolensk. The night of the 27th was passed by the French army under arms, with a confident expectation that the great battle would be fought on the following day. But what was their astonishment on the following

morning, to find that the Russians had effected their retreat during the night, in such perfect order that they had left neither cannon, nor wagons, nor even a single vehicle, to indicate the road they had taken.*

The French emperor determined to remain some time at Vitepsk, to afford his army a respite from the fatigues and privations to which they had already become exposed; but while the grand armies were thus reposing in a state of inactivity, the operations of the campaign were vigorously prosecuted in the neighbourhood of Polotsk, by the Russian corps under Prince Wittgenstein and the French division commanded by Marshal Oudinot. On the 11th of August, Wittgenstein encountered a detachment of French cavalry, from one of whom he learned that the French marshal had formed the project of advancing to St. Petersburg. The Russians however defeated this intention, and compelled Oudinot to retire upon Polotsk, where he was joined by a corps of Wirtemberg and Bavarian troops under the command of General Gouvion St. Cyr. Thus reinforced, Oudinot once more advanced on the route to the Russian capital; but the promptitude and penetration of Prince Wittgenstein again arrested his progress. The arrangements of the Duke of Reggio were made with consummate skill, but they availed not against the courage of the Russians, who bore down upon him with such fury, that after a brave resistance, which lasted for more than six hours, the enemy was repulsed with great loss. On the following day, Wittgenstein resumed the attack, and the Duke of Reggio had improved the few hours of darkness by which the conflict was interrupted, in such a manner as might have been expected from an able general. The contest was again maintained with great vigour, and attended with a heavy loss on both sides. On the third day, the French troops were completely overthrown, and the fugitives who escaped from the field sought shelter in the lines before Polotsk. The loss of the enemy in these obstinate and sanguinary engagements, was estimated at five thousand killed and wounded, and three thousand prisoners, besides artillery, baggage and ammunition wagons; and the Russians admit a loss of two thousand men, among whom was General Kouluff. "During the three days attack," says Prince Wittgenstein, "the corps I had the honour to command performed prodigies of valour.

Their resolution was not to be shaken; and their ardour, like a devouring flame, consumed all before it. The artillery and the bayonet were equally the instruments of their zeal; for where the one fell short of the mark, the other was pushed with a resolution that overthrew whole ranks of the enemy. Even the most solid columns of infantry, and batteries of cannon, were compelled to give way before the intrepid motions of our troops."

Another effort was now to be made by the Russian army, under Bagration, to effect a junction with the commander-in-chief, and with this view, he formed the hazardous determination to cross the Beresina at Bobruisk, and to cut his way through the divisions of Marshals Davoust and Mortier on the Dnieper. The battle which ensued was extremely bloody, and lasted for more than ten hours with various success; but at length the Russian troops opened themselves a passage, and on the 13th of August re-established, at Smolensk, that communication which had been lost, on the 24th of June, by a military error committed on the banks of the Niemen.

The Russians, concentrated at Smolensk, seemed to await the approach of the enemy, whose head-quarters were still at Vitepsk, but whose divisions were now pressing forward in all directions. Delay still promised advantages to the Russians; it was necessary in some measure to repair the strength of the second army, already exhausted by marches so harassing, and greatly reduced in numbers by the desertion of the Poles, and other adverse circumstances. The whole force under General Barclay de Tolly, did not, even including the second army, exceed one hundred and thirty thousand men, upon which the powerful divisions of Beauharnois, Murat, Ney, Davoust, Mortier, and Poniatowski, were fast advancing. Had the French, at this moment, been able to force their enemies to a general and decisive action, the integrity of the Russian empire might have been exposed to great peril; but the affairs of Russia were gradually improving, while every day that elapsed was as the loss of a battle to the fortunes of the invaders.

About the end of July, when the French armies had been six weeks in Russia, and had made the most alarming progress in the interior, the Emperor Alexander received intelligence that peace had been concluded with Turkey, and that the Russian army of the south, which had distinguished itself in the protracted contest on the Danube, was now at liberty to unite in repelling the invaders of the empire. This

* Narrative of the Campaign in Russia, by Eugene Labaume, an officer of engineers, serving in the fourth corps of the French army, during the whole of the campaign.

gratifying intelligence was at the same time accompanied by the annunciation, that peace with England, which all orders in Russia had so earnestly desired, was concluded: that from this time all the ports of Russia would be open to English vessels; and that every commercial relationship should instantly recommence between the empire of Russia and the kingdom of Great Britain.*

General Count Kutusoff, who became afterwards so famous in the campaigns of the north, had hitherto conducted the army of the Danube to victory, and had, by his wise policy, hastened that pacification with the Ottoman empire, which it was so much the interest of Russia to conclude. This gallant officer had been created a prince of the Russian empire, as a reward for his distinguished services, and as he was far advanced in years, he had retired to St. Petersburg, in the hope of spending the evening of life in tranquillity. A more brilliant destiny, however, was reserved for him; and the closing scenes of his military career were to be signalized in the defeat and destruction of the enemies of his country. The army of the Danube was, in the mean time, commanded by Admiral Tchikakoff, a man of singular and versatile powers, and of a genius for martial affairs which was not confined to one element. The first task imposed upon him in his new situation, was, to conduct his army through a long and difficult march; to bring up his troops from the Danube and the Pruth, and to encounter the Austrians under Prince Schwartzberg, and the Saxons, under General Renier, who had reached Kobrin, Slonim, and Minsk. At Kobrin, a detachment of Saxons, under General Kleingel, had been previously surprised by a Russian force, commanded by General Kamenski, and after an obstinate engagement, the Saxon commander, with seventy officers, and two thousand five hundred men, were made prisoners. General Tormasow resolved to follow up these successes by an advance on Slonim, where Renier and Schwartzberg were now posted. On the morning of the 12th of August, the attack was begun. Schwartzberg, observing that the whole attention of the Russians was directed to their left, made an unsuccessful effort to pass a morass, by which the right of their position was defended. The French general, rendered desperate by the unexpected difficulties which he had to encounter, brought immense reinforcements from his centre and left, and extending his front, endeavoured to outflank the Russians.

General Tormasow instantly adopted the only plan by which these movements could be counteracted, and charged the enemy in front, at the same time extending his line in a parallel direction with that of the hostile army. The battle was once more renewed with great fury; and six fresh battalions of infantry, and several regiments of hulans and hussars, were led on to the attack. Night alone parted the combatants, each of whom left on the field about five thousand killed and wounded. This immense expenditure of blood was attended by no decisive result; the enemy occupied his former positions, and the Russians, during the night, prepared to retreat to Kobrin, where they arrived on the following day without molestation.

While these events occurred in the south, great exertions were made by General Essen to strengthen the city of Riga, against which a division of the French army, under Marshal Macdonald, had been directed. In the month of July, an obstinate engagement was fought in the vicinity of that city, in which a strong Russian detachment, under General Lewis, was repulsed by the Prussian General Kliet, and obliged to seek refuge within the walls of the fortress. This was the first engagement in which the Prussians had entered the lists with their ancient ally; and it was not till the 23d of the following month that the contest in this quarter was renewed. On that day, General Essen, who had received intelligence that a strong force was advancing from the side of Germany to reinforce the besieging army, determined to attack the Prussians, and to drive them back to Mitau. The attack was made with great spirit, and the enemy's intrenchments were carried at the point of the bayonet. But the incautious intrepidity of the Russian troops having hurried them into an eager and disorderly pursuit, their ranks were laid open, and a large body of Prussian cavalry, perceiving the advantage that presented itself, rushed upon the advancing Russians, and inflicted a terrible slaughter. Notwithstanding the surprise of this assault, the Russians receded not from the field till it was covered with the dead bodies of their comrades, when they gallantly and deliberately retreated beyond their lines of defence. This adverse turn in the fortunes of the day gave the enemy time to rally his ranks, and to return to his guns, from which he had been driven. Battle was again offered, with an air of triumph, which roused the spirit of the Russian army, and the engagement was renewed with increased fury. The Prussians fought with distinguished bravery, but Russian energy at length prevailed,

* Proclamation of the Emperor Alexander.
VOL. II. 2 E 19

and the discomfited flank of the enemy assumed a retrograde movement, and ultimately abandoned the field.

Prince Wittgenstein, who continued to occupy the ground gained from the enemy on the Petersburg road, having now received reinforcements from Dinabourg, determined to dislodge Marshal Oudinot from his fortified position at Polotsk. On the 17th of August, the Russian general advanced in two columns, and after a few hours reached the ground on which he meant to give the French battle. A heavy fire from a Russian battery, directed against the enemy's masses, while they were yet unformed, created the utmost confusion; while a concentrated charge of cavalry completely laid open the flank of the French army. At this crisis, Marshal Oudinot received a dangerous wound in the shoulder, which obliged him to retire from the field; and at the close of the day, Prince Wittgenstein was enabled to take possession of the intrenchments, erected by the enemy, in front of Polotsk. General St. Cyr, on whom the command of this division of the French army had now devolved, animated by the hope of retrieving the disaster of the 17th, determined to renew the conflict on the following day. On this occasion, Count Wrede commanded the Bavarians on the right; General Maison was intrusted with the left; and General St. Cyr in person led the centre. Prince Wittgenstein, availing himself of the intrenchments obtained from the enemy on the preceding day, determined to remain on the defensive. The attack was commenced by a discharge of the Bavarian artillery, which was instantly followed by a general and destructive fire from the whole of the French line. The French had added to the strength of the left by a well-appointed battery, placed on the banks of the Dwina; but the Russians, regardless of this advantage, charged to the very mouth of the guns, and with the point of the bayonet, drove the front line back upon the reserve. The contest in the centre, where the commanders-in-chief on both sides were arrayed against each other, was maintained with the most obstinate bravery; but the steady courage of the Russians at length prevailed, and obliged St. Cyr to fall back upon his lines of defence. The right, yet unbroken, distinguished itself by memorable acts of bravery; but General Wrede, finding all his exertions to resist the Russian columns unavailing, felt himself obliged to follow the retreating legions, and, like them, to seek refuge within the walls of Polotsk. The battle continued for twelve hours; and the pursuit, which was continued into the streets

of the city, did not cease till midnight. The number of prisoners made by the Russians during the 17th and 18th amounted to three thousand, including thirty officers. The killed on both sides are variously estimated, but that the victory was purchased at a high price will appear clear, when it is stated, that three Russian general officers—Berg, Hamen, and Kazatichovsky, were numbered among the wounded. The splendid victories achieved in this quarter, were, however, of inestimable value, and it was probably to the successful efforts of the Russian armies under Prince Wittgenstein, that the city of St. Petersburg owed its deliverance from that disastrous fate which now awaited the ancient capital of the empire.

Bonaparte remained at Vitepsk until he received intelligence that his reinforcements from Tilsit were advancing upon Wilna; he then resolved immediately to attack Smolensk, and with this view, Murat and Beauharnois were ordered to advance on the 13th of August, and to force the passage of the Dnieper—the Borysthenes of the Greeks. The Russian general-in-chief, aware of these movements, ordered Prince Bagration to fall back on Smolensk on the Moscow road; while, on the 14th, he himself retired to the high ground on the right bank of the river by which Smolensk is commanded. Here he learned that the advanced posts of the Russian army had suffered a severe defeat at Krasnoi, and that their columns were rapidly advancing. The garrison of Smolensk was in the mean time strengthened, and the necessary preparations made to arrest the further progress of the invaders.

Smolensk, a town of importance in the empire, and like Moscow, honoured by the appellation of the sacred, and of the key of Russia, contains about 13,000 inhabitants. It is situated on the heights of the left bank of the Dnieper, and was then surrounded by fortifications of the ancient Gothic character. An old wall, in some places dilapidated, was defended by about thirty towers, which seemed to flank the battlements; and there was an ill-contrived work, called the Royal Bastion, which served as a species of citadel. The walls however, being eighteen feet thick, and twenty-five high, and there being a ditch of some depth, the tower, though not defensible if regularly approached, might be held against a *coup de main*. The greatest inconvenience arose from the suburbs, which, being adjacent to the wall of the town, preserved the assailants from the fire of the besieged, as they approached it.

The communication between the garrison of Smolensk, now thirty thousand

strong, and the army under Barclay de Tolly, was fully established by three bridges; and the ancient walls of that city, although ill adapted to resist the operations of modern warfare, were mounted with cannon, that no advantage might be left unimproved. Smolensk, which formed the only favourable position for defence on the west of Moscow, was an object of great importance to the enemy, and the ardour of the Russians in its defence was increased by an order given to the army by the Emperor Alexander, to give battle to the invaders, for the purpose of saving this ancient city.

On the 16th of August, Napoleon was at the head of his army before Smolensk, and no sooner had he ascertained the strength, and reconnoitred the position of the Russians, than he immediately decided on his plan of operations. The object of the emperor was to carry the intrenched suburbs of the city, and at the same time to destroy the bridges, by which a communication was maintained between the garrison and the army on the heights. With this view, Marshal Ney was ordered to take the position on the left, inclining towards the Borysthenes; the command of the centre was confided to Marshal Davoust; and Prince Poniatowski commanded on the right; the reserves, consisting of cavalry, under Murat and Beauharnois, formed the rear; and the emperor himself remained with the guards. On the 17th, about noon, the contest began, and the fire from the Russian cannon was answered by the French with energy and effect. Poniatowski was now ordered to advance, and, having succeeded in driving a body of Russians from a formidable position on the right, a battery was instantly constructed, and directed against the bridges. Animated by this success, the enemy pushed forward in great numbers, and drove the Russians before them into their intrenchments at the point of the bayonet. For two hours, this sanguinary and unequal contest was maintained with great firmness. Every moment, the fight became more arduous, and the operations of the Russians began to be impeded by the heaps of slain with which they were surrounded. In these desperate circumstances, they retired, still fighting, into the city, and already the French were under its walls. The centre of the enemy's army now penetrated into the city, and on the left the Russians were obliged to withdraw within the ramparts. General Barclay de Tolly, perceiving that the assault of the town was likely to be attempted, reinforced the garrison with two new divisions, and two regiments of infantry of the

guards. The battle continued to rage after the sun had sunk beneath the horizon. As the night advanced, it was discovered that the city was on fire; the flames were seen distinctly to communicate to the principal quarters; and in the middle of a fine summer's night, Smolensk presented to the contending armies the same spectacle that Vesuvius sometimes offers to the inhabitants of Naples. At two o'clock in the morning, the French grenadiers advanced to mount the breach; but, to their astonishment, they approached without resistance, and soon discovered that the place was entirely evacuated. All the streets were covered with the bodies of expiring Russians, over which the flames shed a melancholy glare, that filled the imagination with awe, and aggravated the horrors of the surrounding scene. When the French leader entered the city on the following morning, he found it a heap of ruins, and, in an agony of disappointment, he exclaimed, "Never was a war prosecuted with such ferocity; never did defence put on so hostile a shape against the common feelings of self-preservation. These people treat their own country as if they were its enemies."

It had hitherto been supposed that Napoleon would, for the present season, finish his conquests by taking the two towns of Vitepsk and Smolensk, which, by their position, closed the narrow passage comprised between the Borysthenes and the Dwina. His army considered these two towns as points for their repose on the approach of winter; and if their leader had limited the operations of this campaign to fortifying Vitepsk and Smolensk; and more especially if he had organized Poland, the whole of which had been conquered; there is little doubt that, in the following spring, he would have forced the Russians either to subscribe to his conditions, or to hazard the destruction of both Moscow and St. Petersburg. But, dazzled by his successes, and "hurried away by a fatality," he ventured upon the grand road to Moscow, through a country everywhere devastated at his approach, and with the hostile army under Tschikoff cantoned in his rear.

The condition of the French army at this period, presented nothing that could impart confidence to an invader. When Napoleon entered the country, only six weeks before, the corps which formed his operating army, amounted to two hundred and ninety-seven thousand men; and by the 5th of August, when preparing to break up from Vitepsk, that number was diminished to one hundred and eighty-five thousand, not two-thirds of their ori-

ginal number, and a great additional loss had been sustained in the movements and encounters on the Dnieper. The wounded of the army were in the most miserable state; and it was in vain that the surgeons tore up their own linen for dressings; they were under the necessity of using also parchment, and the down that grows on the birch trees: it is therefore not wonderful that few recovered.

After the fall of Smolensk, the pursuit by the French corps under Marshal Ney was so prompt, that Baron Korff, to whom the command of the Russian rear-guard was confided, found his progress interrupted, the enemy having pre-occupied his line of march. A furious battle ensued, which lasted till midnight, when the enemy was obliged to withdraw, and to leave the Russians at liberty to direct their future movements without molestation.

The Russians still continued to retreat, and on the morning of the 29th, the invaders arrived at Viasma. The retreating army, following up their determination to lay the country waste, had given up this city to the flames, and on the arrival of the French they found the dwellings of its ten thousand inhabitants reduced to a heap of ruins.

At this period, the chief command of the Russian army was transferred from General Barclay de Tolly, to Prince Kutusoff—a general grown hoary in arms, on whom the Muscovites reposed the hopes of their country, and whose arrival was hailed by the army with unbounded exultation. Kutusoff had scarcely arrived at head-quarters, when he announced to his troops that no more retrograde movements were to be made by the Russians; and that he might the better defend Moscow, he chose a strong position at the village of Borodino, about twelve versts in advance of Mojaisk. At a small distance from this village, there is a deep ravine, through which runs a rivulet, and of which the Russian general availed himself for the protection of his right and centre; the command of the former being committed to General Barclay de Tolly, and of the latter to General Benningsen, while the left, under Prince Bagration, stretched to the village of Semenovka. The general-in-chief communicated the plans which he had formed to his officers; he encouraged his soldiers by his presence and exhortations, and made every arrangement to secure success in the approaching conflict.

It was remarked, that as soon as Bonaparte was apprized of the appointment of Prince Kutusoff to the command of the Russian army, he became more cautious in his operations, and paid this silent and in-

voluntary tribute to the genius of his antagonist. On the 30th of August, the French emperor had reached Viasma, and on the 4th of September he advanced into the vicinity of Borodino. On the 5th, the reconnoitring parties of the enemy were rapidly succeeded by strong masses of infantry and cavalry, which by advancing on the Russian left, unequivocally indicated the intention of Bonaparte to direct his efforts against that part of the army under Kutusoff, which the prince expected would be the first assailed. The rear-guard of the Russian army, under Lieutenant-general Konovitzen, was still a little in front of the Russian left, where it was attacked with great impetuosity. After a short resistance, this corps was compelled to fall back on Prince Bagration's line, under cover of a redoubt which was erected on a height between two woods, where the Russians had placed a corps of nine thousand men. Napoleon, having reconnoitred this position, resolved to carry the height. Orders were accordingly given to Murat, to pass the Kaluga, while Prince Poniatowski, who had marched to the right, was directed to turn the position. At four o'clock the attack commenced; and an obstinate contest ensued. The post was abandoned and re-taken by the Russians four different times, but they were at last compelled to fall back, and to leave the fortified eminence in possession of the enemy. The whole of the 6th of September was employed in active preparations for the conflict which was expected to decide the fate of Russia.

The skill and activity of Napoleon were eminently conspicuous on this occasion. The height which his troops had carried on the 5th was now covered with a hundred pieces of artillery; three other batteries, two of which were directed against the centre, and one against the left of the Russians, were constructed; detachments of artillery were also distributed along the French line, and not less than a thousand pieces of cannon on each side, were ready to open their fire. It was obvious, that the chief efforts of the French army were to be directed against the Russian left; and every thing that military skill and enterprise could effect, was done to insure success in this quarter. Nor were the dispositions of the Russian commander less judicious. Kutusoff quickly penetrated the intentions of the enemy, and strengthened his left with the *elite* of his army, which he formed into two lines, supported by cavalry and artillery. A strong body of the militia of Moscow was posted in a wood on the left, that they might act on the enemy's right and rear, should he at-

tempt to turn the Russian flank. Strong batteries were also constructed for the protection of the centre and other parts of the army; a general battle had now become inevitable, and the combatants on each side were estimated at from one hundred and twenty to one hundred and thirty thousand.*

The veteran hero by whom they were commanded, well knew how to avail himself of the different principles of action which guide the Russian soldiers; and he did not omit on this great occasion to touch their feelings of religious enthusiasm. The sacred emblems, saved amidst the ruins of Smolensk, were carried along the lines by the priests attached to the army, and inspired the soldiers to a degree which cannot easily be conceived by nations far removed from these vivifying superstitions. While the minds of the troops were in this state of excitement, Prince Kutusoff pronounced a speech, which, as it was delivered on the eve of one of the greatest battles fought in modern times, and as it characterizes the general and his troops, is worthy of being preserved:

"BROTHERS AND FELLOW SOLDIERS!" said he, "Behold before you, in those sacred representations of the holy objects of our worship, an appeal which calls aloud upon heaven to unite with man against the tyrannic troubler of the world. Not content with defacing the image of God, in the persons of millions of his creatures, this universal tyrant, this arch rebel to all laws human and divine, breaks into the sanctuary, pollutes it with blood, overthrows its altars, tramples on its rites, and exposes the ark of the Lord (consecrated in these holy insignia of our church) to all the profanations of accident, of the elements, and of unsanctified hands. Fear not then, but that the God whose altars have been so insulted by the very worm his almighty fiat has raised from the dust, fear not that He will not be with you! that he will not stretch forth his shield over your ranks; and with the sword of Michael fight against his enemies!"

"This is the faith in which I will fight and conquer! This is the faith in which I would fight and fall, and still behold the final victory with my dying eyes! Soldiers! do your part. Think on the burning sacrifice of your cities—think of your wives, your children, looking to you for protection—think on your emperor, your lords, regarding you as the sinews of their strength;—and, before to-morrow's sun sets, write your faith and your fealty on the field of your country with the life's blood of the invader and his legions!"

The morning of the 7th of September at length appeared; and thousands beheld the dawn for the last time. The moment had arrived, when the discharge of two thousand cannon was to break the pause of expectation, and to arouse at once all the horrors of war. The opening day is thus described in the eighteenth bulletin of the French army:

* Eighteenth bulletin of the French army, dated Mojaik, September 10, 1812.

"On the 7th, at two o'clock in the morning, the Emperor Napoleon, surrounded by his marshals, appeared on the position taken up on the preceding evening. It then rained, but now the sun rose without clouds. '*It is the sun of Austerlitz!*' exclaimed the emperor, 'although but September, it is as cold as December in Moravia!' The army received the omen. The drums beat; and the order of the day was issued in these words:—

"Soldiers! Before you is the field you have so ardently desired! The victory depends upon you. It is necessary to you. It will give you abundance, good winter-quarters, and a quick return to your country. Conduct yourselves as when at Austerlitz, at Friedland, at Vitepsk, at Smolensk, and the latest posterity will cite with pride your conduct on this day. They will say—*He was in that great battle under the walls of Moscow.*"

At four o'clock in the morning, the corps of Marshal Davoust and Prince Poniatowski advanced by the wood which supported the Russian left; at six, the action commenced, and the enemy experienced the advantages derived from the possession of the redoubts which he had taken on the 5th. Marshal Ney, in the mean time, bore down with great force on the Russian centre, and the Viceroy of Italy assailed the right. General as the attack seemed, the corps of Prince Bagration had to sustain the accumulated weight of nearly half the French army. The resolution of the enemy's cavalry on his flank, was conspicuous; they charged the Russians even to the batteries, and both cavalry and infantry were mown down by the cannon. For three hours, this furious attack continued without effect; and Bonaparte, well aware of the importance of the station, ordered up reinforcements of troops under Marshal Murat and Count Caulincourt, supported by fifty additional pieces of cannon. The vigour of the onset, thus strengthened, was found irresistible, and Prince Bagration was compelled to fall back on the second line of the army, while the enemy turned against the retiring columns the guns which had just been abandoned. Prince Kutusoff, seeing the left of his army thus overpowered, ordered up to its support, from the reserve, a strong body of cavalry and grenadiers; and at the moment when they were making a desperate effort to regain their lost position, the militia and other troops which had been posted in the wood, rushed forward, and took a dreadful vengeance on the enemy. The shock of this concentrated force obliged the French in their turn to give way, and Napoleon had the mortification to behold the choicest of his troops driven from their dearly acquired conquest with immense loss.

On the other extremity of the line, a combat scarcely less obstinate was maintained: the viceroy made repeated efforts to carry the village of Borodino, and the

redoubts by which it was protected; but his failure in all of them was complete, and he was ultimately repulsed with great loss. The Russian commander was now enabled to reinforce his centre, where the battle still raged with undiminished violence. The thunder of a thousand pieces of artillery, was answered by an equal number on the part of the French. A veil of smoke shut out the combatants from the sun, and left them no other light to pursue the work of death but the flashes which blazed from the cannon and musketry. The sabres of forty thousand dragoons met each other, clashing in the horrid gloom; and the moving ramparts of countless bayonets, bursting through the rolling vapour, strewed the earth with heaps of slain.* Night at last arrived, and added to the sublime horrors of the scene.

Both parties claimed the victory;† but the impartial historian can award it to neither. The Russians failed in their object, which was, to arrest the progress of the enemy, and to preserve the ancient capital of the empire; and the French, instead of realizing another day of Austerlitz, were obliged at the close of the battle, to retreat for several versts, leaving their heroic adversary in possession of the field. The return of day presented a scene calculated to appal the stoutest heart. The carnage on both sides was immense. The Russians estimated their own loss, in killed and wounded, at 40,000 men, and that of the enemy at 60,000. The enemy, in putting in their claim to the victory, assert, that the loss of the French did not exceed ten thousand, while that of the Russians is rated at from forty to fifty thousand. "At eight o'clock in the morning," say they, "the Russian redoubts were taken, and our artillery crowned his heights. At two in the afternoon, the Russians had lost all hope; the battle was ended; the cannonade still continued; the enemy fought for retreat and safety, but no longer for victory. Never was there seen such a field of battle; out of six dead bodies there were five Russians for one Frenchman. Forty Russian generals were killed, wounded, or taken. The emperor (Napoleon) was never exposed; neither the foot nor the horse guards were engaged, or lost a single man." Such is the account given of the termination of the battle of Borodino, by the French. With

statements so contradictory, the present age and posterity must labour under great difficulty in arriving at a just conclusion, and in this, as in other battles of a dubious issue, the result alone must decide the validity of the conflicting claims.

The Russians lost some officers of distinction, among whom were Generals Touthchkoff and Konovitzén; and the gallant Prince Bagration afterwards died of his wounds. Of the French generals, Augustus Caulincourt and Montbrun were numbered among the slain, and Generals Plausanne, Houard, Grouchy, Rapp, and Morand, shared the same fate. (75)

A feeling of astonishment was universal among all those to whom the plans of the Russians were unknown, when they learned the determination of Field-marshal Kutusoff* to abandon Moscow to its fate—Moscow, the ancient and venerable capital of the Russians—the grand repository of their wealth, the centre of their patriotic affections. For such a city it might have been expected that even a beaten army would have continued to struggle, but that conquerors, who had shed so much blood in its defence, should willingly give up the stake for which the battle was fought, seemed wholly inexplicable. Yet no sooner did the Russian general learn that the French had been strongly reinforced, and were advancing to the gates of the ancient capital, than he marched his army through Moscow, and took up a position on the Calouga road.

To explain the extraordinary determination taken by Marshal Kutusoff, he address-

(75) Of the French officers here mentioned, only Generals Caulincourt, (brother of the celebrated Duke of Vicenza,) Montbrun, and Morand, were killed. General Grouchy was severely wounded. That the French gained a victory at Mojaïsk, no one can doubt who considers the result and the object which each commander had in view in giving battle. The French, from the best accounts, captured fifty pieces of artillery, and many thousand prisoners, and while their loss did not exceed 20,000 in killed and wounded, that of the Russians is supposed to have exceeded 30,000. The field of battle, too, was gained by the French, for in contradiction to the Russian statement, the former are said in most of the private histories (to which more credit ought to be given than to the official bulletins) to have encamped on the field of battle. The Russians, it is agreed on all hands, gave battle with the hope of saving Moscow, and were unquestionably defeated in this object. Still, they fought with unexampled courage and firmness, and their savage valour, strengthened by religion and love of country, was high baffling the skill and overpowering the intrepidity of the French troops.

* Sir Robert Ker Porter's Narrative of the Russian Campaign.

† *Te Deum* was celebrated nearly at the same time both in the Great Cathedral at St. Petersburg, and in the Church of Notre Dame at Paris, for the victory of Borodino.

* The rank of field-marshal was conferred on Prince Kutusoff, by his sovereign, for the gallantry and skill displayed by that general in the battle of Borodino.

ed a letter to his sovereign on the 16th. The sacrifice of Moscow was, he said, a dreadful alternative to every Russian; but it was a sacrifice of a great city, for the preservation of a mighty empire. Had Moscow been defended to the last extremity, the rich provinces of Toula and Kalouga, from which the resources of the army were drawn, must have been abandoned. The army would have been ruined, and the empire might have been lost. By relinquishing Moscow, the Russian army became master of the Toula and Kalouga roads, covered those fertile provinces, maintained its communication with the corps of Tormasow and Tschikakoff, interrupted the enemy's line of operations from Smolensk to Moscow, cut off the supplies which he expected from his rear, and actually blockaded him in the capital. The occupation of Tver by General Winzingerode completed the line drawn round the enemy; and the Russian general in conclusion promised, that "the invader should soon be compelled to evacuate the capital of the czars."

Count Rostopchin, the military governor of Moscow, had been unremitting in his labours to prepare for the defence or the evacuation of that city. Every exertion was made to equip and organize the inhabitants for the army. Orders had been issued for the removal of every thing in the capital that might be an acceptable spoil to the enemy. The archives of the empire, and the treasures of the Kremlin, were taken to places of safety; and the princes and nobles resident in Moscow had transported a large share of their property into the more distant provinces. Count Rostopchin was a man of worth and talent, of wit also, as we have been informed, joined to a certain eccentricity. Since the commencement of the war, he had kept up the spirits of the citizens with favourable reports and loyal declarations, suited to infuse security into the public mind. After the fate of Smolensk, however, and especially after the recommencement of Napoleon's march eastward, many of the wealthy inhabitants of Moscow removed or concealed their most valuable effects, and left the city themselves. Rostopchin, nevertheless, continued his assurances, and used various means to convince the people that there was no danger. Among other contrivances, he engaged a great number of females in the task of constructing a very large balloon, from which he was to shower down fire, as the people believed, upon the French army. Under this pretext, he is stated to have collected a large quantity of fire-works and combustibles, actually destined for a very different

purpose. The scene which imperial Moscow, so recently the pride of the Russian empire, now presented, was deplorable beyond all description. Two hundred and fifty thousand human beings, of both sexes and of all ages, were driven from their homes, ignorant where they might seek protection, and exposed to the inclemency of the approaching Russian winter. The great mass of them abandoned their homes with precipitation; others, whose minds were influenced by stronger impulses, and who had vowed to take vengeance on the invaders, remained in the city. The governor, having made every preparation, gave the signal for evacuating the place on the 13th of September, and placing himself at the head of forty thousand of its inhabitants, proceeded to join the grand army.*

On the 14th of September, at noon, while the rear-guard of the Russians was in the act of evacuating Moscow, Napoleon reached the hill called the Mount of Salvation, because it is there where the natives kneel and cross themselves, at the first sight of the holy city.

Moscow seemed as lordly and striking as ever, with the steeples of its thirty churches, and its copper domes glittering in the sun; its palaces of eastern architecture mingled with trees, and surrounded with gardens; and its Kremlin, a huge triangular mass of towers, resembling both a palace and a castle, which rose like a citadel out of the general mass of groves and buildings. But not a chimney sent up smoke, not a man appeared on the battlements, or at the gates. Napoleon gazed, every moment expecting to see a train of bearded boyards arriving, to throw themselves at his feet, and place their wealth at his disposal. His first exclamation was, "Behold at last that celebrated city!"—His next, "It was full time."—His army, less regardless either of the past or the future, fixed their eyes on the goal of their wishes, and a shout of "Moscow!—Moscow!"—passed from rank to rank.

The advanced guard, under the command of the King of Naples, entered the

* "The circuit of Moscow has been variously stated; it may perhaps be about 36 versts (36 miles), but this includes many void spaces. The population is, as usual, exaggerated. It is decidedly greater than that of St. Petersburg—perhaps three or four times as much, judging from the concourse in the streets. The extent, in comparison with that of Petersburg, is nearly twelve to one; yet, by the master of the police, of all men the most likely to know, the population is estimated at only 250,000 fixed inhabitants. The servants and numerous retainers of the nobles, may be perhaps estimated at nearly 30,000, who are only here in winter."—*Heber's MSS. Journal.*

gates with all the pomp and pride of conquest. The troops moved towards the Kremlin, where a body of the self-devoted citizens had stationed themselves; but, the "holy gate" was instantly forced, and the "sacred fortress," which, in confidence of superstition, was held to be impregnable, became an easy prey to the invaders.* Scarcely had the French troops entered the Kremlin, when Moscow appeared at different quarters in flames. The Governor Rostopchin, by whose orders this sacrifice was made, had ordered the fire engines to be removed from the city, and the invaders were too intent upon plunder, to supply their place by those zealous and persevering exertions which could alone arrest the progress of the devouring element.

Napoleon entered the city on the 15th in sullen silence, and took up his residence in the Kremlin. Immediately on his arrival, he directed that all the Russians who might be suspected of participating in the destruction of the city, by setting fire to its edifices, should be seized and brought to instant trial. One hundred of these unhappy persons were soon arraigned before the tribunal, and questioned as to their proceedings; but though offered a free pardon on condition of divulging the nature and extent of the conspiracy formed for the destruction of the city, they all remained silent; death had lost its terrors to them; and they received in succession the

balls of the executioner with no other emotion than that which was exhibited by each in a magnanimous contest to become the first victim.

One of the buildings first consigned to the flames, was that vast mercantile pile called the Exchange; numerous warehouses, containing every kind of merchandise, the productions of Europe and Asia, composed this edifice. The activity of the soldiery was never more visible—not in extinguishing the flames, that indeed was impossible, but in securing the plunder. No cry nor tumult prevailed in this scene of horror and destruction; every one found sufficient to satisfy his cupidity; and the falling roofs and exploding combustibles alone broke in upon the dreadful silence. On the morning of the 16th, a violent wind prevailed, which spread the flames in every direction. The whole extent of the capital, for many versts, seemed at length a sheet of flame. The immense tract of land about the river, which was formerly covered with houses, was one sea of fire; and the sky was hidden from the view by the tremendous volumes of smoke which rolled over the city.

The most heart-rending scenes were now presented: that portion of the population which had not abandoned the city, had concealed themselves in the interior of the houses;—but the fire, having penetrated to almost every part of the town, forced them to quit their asylums. The aged, borne down with grief, as much as with years, could hardly follow their families, and numbers of them, lamenting the ruin of their country, expired near the houses in which they drew their first breath. Parents, absorbed in the feelings of nature, were seen emerging from their places of concealment, saving nothing but their children from the universal wreck. The streets, public buildings, and particularly the churches, were filled with these unhappy people. Neither the accents of sympathy, nor the voice of lamentation, were heard; both the conqueror and conquered were equally hardened—the former from excess of fortune, the latter from excess of misery. The fire, which continued its ravages, soon reached the finest parts of the city. All those places which had been admired for the elegance of their architecture and the taste of their furniture, were buried in the flames; many of the churches, with their beautiful steeples, resplendent as gold, disappeared; and the hospitals, which contained more than twenty thousand wounded Russian soldiers, soon began to burn.* This occasioned a

* Moscow is divided into five circles, which lie one within another. The interior circle of the *Kremlin*, signifying a fortress, contains the old imperial palace, the patriarchal palace, nine cathedrals, five convents, four parish churches, the public offices, and the arsenal. The Kremlin is like nothing seen in Europe. In some parts, riches and even elegance present themselves; in others, barbarity and decay. Taken together, it is a jumble of magnificence and ruin. The second circle of the city is called *Kitaigorod*; in this circle, are five streets, two cathedrals, eighteen parish churches, four convents, thirteen noblemen's houses, and nine public edifices. The third circle, which surrounds the former, is *Belgorod*. Though the houses in this part of the city are many of them very mean, it includes eleven convents, seven abbeys, seventy-six parish churches, and nine public edifices and areas. *Semlanoigorod*, which is the fourth circle, is surrounded, as the name imports, by ramparts of earth, and contains two convents, one hundred and three parish churches, a cloth manufactory, an artillery arsenal, magazines for provisions, and a mint. Round these divisions of the city, lie the vast suburbs, or the *Sloboda*, which resemble villages, and in which are ten convents and sixty parish churches. The view of Moscow from the terrace of the Kremlin is grand beyond description. The number of magnificent buildings, the domes, the towers, and the spires, which fill all the prospect, make it perhaps the most novel and interesting sight in Europe.—*Crutwell's Gazetteer* and *Dr. Clarke's Travels* in 1800.

* Labaume's narrative.

most revolting and dreadful scene; almost all these poor wretches perished, and a few who still lingered, were seen crawling half consumed among the smoking embers. "But how," says the French officer from whom we quote, "shall I describe the tumultuous proceedings, when permission was granted to pillage this immense city! Soldiers, sutlers, galley-slaves, and prostitutes were running through the streets, penetrating into the deserted palaces, and seizing every article which could gratify their avarice. Some were covering themselves with stuffs, of the most costly fabrics; others, without any discrimination, placed rich and costly furs upon their shoulders; and even the galley-slaves concealed their rags under splendid court dresses; the rest crowded into cellars, and forcing open the doors, drank the most costly wines, and carried off immense booty. This horrible pillage was not confined to deserted houses alone, but extended also to those which were inhabited. All the asylums were soon violated; and the cries of the miserable wretches who fell under the hands of the murderer, and the shrieks and groans of young females seeking protection against the brutal outrages of a licentious soldiery, added inexpressibly to the horrors of the scene.

"Napoleon finding himself no longer safe in Moscow, the ruin of which had now become unavoidable, left the Kremlin, and established himself, with his suite, in the imperial palace of Petrovsky, four versts from the city. It now became necessary that the army should quit the ruins of Moscow, when a scene of the most dreadful confusion arose. A long line of carriages, loaded with plunder, was drawn through the streets of the capital. The soldiers, still stimulated by an ardent desire of pillage, ventured into the middle of the flames. They walked in blood, treading upon dead bodies, while burning fragments fell on their murderous heads. They would probably all have perished, had not an insupportable heat forced them at last to withdraw from the city and take refuge in the camp. During the four days that the army remained at Petrovsky, Moscow never ceased burning. In the mean

time, the rain fell in torrents: and the houses near the place being too few in number for the great multitude who were encamped there, it became impossible to obtain shelter, and men, horses, and carriages, bivouacked in the middle of the fields. Although it was forbidden to go into the city, the soldiers, drawn there by hope of gain, betrayed their trust, and continually returned loaded with provisions and merchandise. Thus the French camp no longer resembled an army, but a fair, where the soldiers, metamorphosed into merchants, sold the most valuable articles at an inconsiderable price; and, although encamped in the fields, and exposed to the injuries of the weather, by a singular contrast, they dined off china plates, drank out of silver vases, and possessed the richest and most elegant commodities of life, that luxury could invent. But the neighbourhood of Petrovsky at length became unhealthy and inconvenient. Napoleon returned to establish himself in the Kremlin, which had not been burned, and the guards and staff officers received orders to re-enter the city on the 21st of September. According to the calculations of the geographical engineers, one-tenth part of the houses still remained, and these being divided among the corps of the grand army, afforded them quarters."*

Napoleon and his officers toiled hard to restore some degree of organization to the army. The plundering, which could not be discontinued, was latterly set about more regularly; and detachments were sent to pillage the ruins of Moscow, as in turn of duty. The rest of the troops were withdrawn from the city, or confined to their quarters in the buildings which remained entire. Every thing was done, to protect the few peasants who brought provisions to the camp for sale. Nevertheless, few appeared, and at length not one was to be seen. The utmost exertion, therefore, could not, it was obvious, render Moscow a place of rest for many days; and the difficulty of choosing the route by which to leave it, became now an embarrassing consideration.

* Labaune's Narrative.

CHAPTER XIX.

RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN: Napoleon, impressed with the perilous Situation of his Army, proposes to open a Negotiation for Peace—Repeated Rejection of these Overtures—Moscow abandoned by the French—Battle of Touraino—Retreat of the French Armies—Advance of the Russian Auxiliary Corps from the North and South, to close in upon the Enemy and cut off his Retreat—Battle of Malo-Jaroslavitv—Battle of Viasma—The Winter sets in—Its Effects on the French Army—Passage of the Vope—Arrival at Smolensk—Battles of Krasnoi—Junction of all the Russian Armies—Dreadful Passage of the Beresina—Capture of the Bavarian Auxiliaries under General Wrede—Arrival of Napoleon at Molodetschno—The Twenty-ninth Bulletin of the French Army—The Emperor Napoleon abandons his Army, and repairs to Paris—Disorganization of the French Army—Ruin and Dispersion—Defection of the Prussians under General D'York—Surrender of the Prussian Fortresses, garrisoned by French Troops, to the Russians under Wittgenstien—Permission granted by the Russians to Prince Schwartzenberg to retire with the Wreck of his Army into Austrian Galicia—Result of the Campaign.

THE French emperor was now awakened from his vision of conquest, and all the horrors of his situation at once opened to his view. His soldiers became turbulent and clamorous; they demanded from their leader that peace which he had promised to dictate in the Russian capital. Napoleon soon perceived that peace alone could afford hope to himself and his followers: but he was yet unwilling to stoop from the attitude of conquest, and to implore the forbearance of those whom he had so deeply injured. His dignity seemed still to require that he should be addressed as a conqueror; and he was, no doubt, aware, that if he talked of peace, the weakness of his situation, and the extent of his fears, would be exposed to the enemy. He waited therefore in anxious expectation for proposals from Russia; he trusted to his erroneous impression of the character of the Russian monarch and people; but all the hopes resting on this foundation were disappointed. The fatal delay, which he required as a sacrifice to his pride, was increasing his difficulties every moment; his stores were exhausted, his supplies intercepted, and already his troops were becoming the victims of famine and disease. At this moment, the energetic proclamation issued by the Emperor Alexander on the entrance of the enemy into Moscow, was distributed through the Russian empire, and reached the French camp. This memorable, and almost prophetic document, was expressed in these terms:

"Moscow was entered by the enemy on the 3d of September, O. S. (the 15th, N. S.) At this intelligence, it might be expected that consternation would appear in every countenance; but far from us be such pusillanimous despondency! Rather, let us swear to redouble our perseverance and our resolution; let us hope, that, fighting in a just cause, we shall hurl back upon the enemy all the evil with which he seeks to overwhelm us. Moscow indeed is occupied by French troops; but it has not become theirs in consequence of their having destroyed our armies. The commander-in-chief, in concert with the most distinguished of our generals, has deemed it wisest to bend for

a moment to necessity. He recoils, only to give additional force to the weight with which he will fall on our enemy. Thus will the short triumph of the French leader tend to his inevitable destruction.

"We know that it is painful to every true heart in Russia, to see the desolators of their country in the ancient capital of the empire. But its walls alone have been suffered to fall into his hands. Deserted by its inhabitants, and dispossessed of its treasures, it offers a tomb rather than a dwelling-place, to the ruthless invader, who would there plant a new throne on the ruins of the empire.

"This proud devastator of kingdoms, on his entrance into Moscow, hoped to become the arbiter of our fates, and to prescribe peace to us upon his own terms. But the expectation is fallacious. He finds in Moscow not only no means for domination, but no means of existence. Our forces, already surrounding Moscow, and to which every day is bringing accession, will occupy all the roads, and destroy every detachment the enemy may send forth in search of provisions. Thus, will he be fatally convinced of his error, in calculating that the possession of Moscow would be the conquest of the empire; and necessity will at last oblige him to fly from famine, through the closing ranks of our intrepid army.

"Behold the state of the enemy. He has entered Russia at the head of an army of three hundred thousand men. But whence do they come? Have they any natural union with his aggrandizement? No; the greater number of them are of different nations, who serve him, not from personal attachment, not for the honour of their native land, but from a base and shameful fear. The disorganizing principle, in such a mixture of people, has been already proved. One-half of the invader's army, thus made up of troops that have no natural bond of union, has been destroyed; some part, by the valour of the soldiers; another, by desertion, sickness, and famine; and the miserable remainder is at Moscow.

"Without doubt, the bold, or rather, it should be called rash enterprise of penetrating into the bosom of Russia; nay, of occupying its ancient capital; feeds the pride of the supposed conqueror: but IT IS THE END WHICH CROWNS ALL!

"He has not yet penetrated into a country where one of his actions has diffused terror, or brought a single Russian to his feet. Russia clings to the parental throne of a sovereign, who stretches over her the guardian arms of affection: she is not accustomed to the yoke of oppression; she will not endure subjection to a foreign power. She will never surrender the treasure of her laws, her religion, and her independence; and we will

shed all our blood in their defence! This principle is ardent and universal; and is manifested in the prompt and voluntary organization of the people under the sacred banner of patriotism. Protected by such an *Egis*, who is it that yields to degrading apprehension? Is there an individual in the empire so abject as to despond, when vengeance is breathed by every order of the state? When the enemy, deprived of all his resources, and exhausting his strength from day to day, sees himself in the midst of a powerful nation, encircled by her armies; one of which menaces him in front, and the other three watch to intercept the arrival of succours, and to prevent his escape? Is this an object of alarm to any true-born Russian? When Spain has broken her bonds and advances to threaten the integrity of the French empire? When the greatest part of Europe, degraded and despoiled by the French ruler, serves him with a revolting heart, and fixing her eyes upon us, awaits with impatience the signal for universal freedom? When even France herself wishes in vain, and dares not anticipate an end to the bloody war whose only motive is boundless ambition? When the oppressed world looks to us for an example and a stimulus, shall we shrink from the high commission? No; we bow before the hand that appoints us to be the leaders of the nations in the cause of freedom and of virtue.

"Surely the afflictions of the human race have at length reached their utmost point! We have only to look around us on this spot, to behold the calamities of war, and the cruelties of ambition, in their extremest horrors. But we brave them for our liberties; we brave them for mankind. We feel the blessed consciousness of acting right, and that immortal honour must be the meed of a nation, who, by enduring the evils of a ruthless war, and determinately resisting their perpetrator, compels a durable peace, not only for itself, but for the unhappy countries which the tyrant had forced to fight in his cause! It is noble, it is worthy a great people, thus to return good for evil.

"All-powerful God! The cause for which we fight, is it not just? Look down then with an eye of mercy upon thy sacred church! Preserve the strength and constancy of thy people! May they triumph over their adversary and thine! May they be instruments in thy hand for his destruction! and, in rescuing themselves, may they rescue the liberty and the independence of nations and of kings!

(Signed)

"ALEXANDER."

This proclamation, which tended to rouse the patriotic feelings of the army and the people to the highest state of enthusiasm, sufficiently showed the determination of the Russian government. The pride of Napoleon was humbled; he was at last compelled to give way to circumstances, and to sue for peace to those over whom only a few days before he affected to exercise the rights of conquest. General Lauriston, a favourite diplomatist of the French emperor, was now sent with a flag of truce to the Russian head-quarters. After expressing the anxiety of his sovereign to prevent the further effusion of blood, he announced his readiness to treat with the Russian court. The answer of Prince Kutusoff was resolute: "As to the effusion of blood," said he, "there is not a Rus-

sian who is not ready to sacrifice his life in this contest, and no terms can be entered into while an enemy remains upon the Russian territory."

The discontent of the French army now became more alarming than before, and Bonaparte affected to believe that Kutusoff had exceeded his powers, and that as soon as the overture for peace should reach the Emperor Alexander, negotiations would be opened. Count Lauriston was accordingly despatched a second time to the Russian head-quarters, to demand, that if Prince Kutusoff would not listen to negotiation, he would forward a letter from Napoleon to the Emperor Alexander. "I will do that," replied Kutusoff, "provided the word *peace* be not expressed in the letter. I would not be a party in such an insult to my sovereign, as to forward to him, what he would instantly order to be destroyed in his presence. You already know the only terms on which offers of peace will be attended to. His imperial majesty will keep firm to his resolves, and we shall stand steadfast in ours to support the independence of his empire." This contemptuous rejection of Bonaparte's second offer, exasperated him to the highest degree; but such was the desperate situation to which he was reduced, that Lauriston was ordered to repair a third time to the Russian camp, with proposals for an armistice, and with an offer that the French would totally evacuate Moscow, and take up a position in the neighbourhood, where the terms of a treaty might be afterwards arranged. The Russians however were not to be diverted from their purpose; they had their enemies in their power; and having every thing to gain, and nothing to lose, by the continuance of the contest, the general-in-chief replied:—"It is not a time for us either to grant an armistice, or to enter into negotiations; the French indeed have proclaimed the campaign terminated at Moscow, but on our part it is only just opening."

Thus were extinguished all the hopes which had for a while sustained the drooping spirits of Napoleon and his army. The desire of vengeance was the first impulse of his mind; he determined that Moscow should bear lasting marks of his resentment, and that whatever of her magnificence yet remained should be sacrificed to his disappointed hopes. When a retreat was first determined upon, it was the intention of the French emperor to place a garrison in the Kremlin, and to retain military possession of Moscow. With this view, he employed the troops in fortifying the palace; but when the full extent of the perils to which he was exposed

presented themselves, he abandoned this project, and gave orders that the fortress should be destroyed. In assigning the reasons for taking these measures, his followers were told that the Kremlin had not sufficient natural strength to be defended by a garrison of less than twenty thousand men; that so large a body of troops could not be spared, without forfeiting advantages of greater moment; and that Moscow, now a heap of ruins, was not worth the sacrifice. The official report of the French army gave an exulting account of the success of this grand enterprise—"All the adjoining buildings," says this report, "have been emptied with great care, and the Kremlin, being judiciously mined, at two o'clock in the morning of the 23d of October it was blown into the air by the Duke of Treviso. The arsenal, the barracks, the magazines, all have been destroyed. This ancient capital, from which is dated the foundation of the empire, this first palace of the czars, exists no more!" This, however, is a very erroneous account of the mischief inflicted by the enemy; such was doubtless his intention; but the activity of the Russian corps, in the neighbourhood of Moscow, arrested the hand of the destroyer, and saved the principal part of this venerable edifice.

About the middle of October, General Winzingerode received intelligence that the enemy's force still remaining in Moscow was very much reduced; and on the 19th of that month, this general observed that the corps under Mortier, stationed on the Mojaisk road, had fallen back from the capital. The Russians, encouraged by these movements, gradually approached without opposition to the walls of the city. They were at length, however, assailed by a strong body of French infantry and cavalry, and must have been cut to pieces, had not the opportune arrival of General Iliovaskoy repulsed the enemy, and rescued them from their perilous situation. Winzingerode was thus enabled to draw his forces round Moscow; and on the 22d he passed the barriers of that city, overthrew the enemy, and drove them under the guns of the citadel. At this moment, the Russian general, accompanied by his aid-de-camp, rode forward to the French lines, carrying a flag of truce, to intimate that further resistance must be unavailing, and to propose to the enemy a capitulation. The French answered, as the Russians assert, by making the general and his aid-de-camp prisoners.* This singular viola-

tion of the usages of war, animated the Russians with resistless fury; and on the morning of the 23d of October, when the first mine was about to be sprung which was to level the Kremlin to the ground, they marched forward under General Iliovaskoy, and seized the incendiaries with the torches in their hands. In this way, the Kremlin was saved; and the French having on the same day finally evacuated Moscow, the inhabitants, with Rostopchin at their head, returned to their desolated city, where every effort was made to mitigate sufferings which no human power could altogether relieve.*

About the 16th of October, Napoleon made preparations for his retreat from Moscow. The conflagration of that city, he had now discovered, rendered it no longer a desirable or proper military station; it must therefore be abandoned, but not with an intention of flying from Russia; a stronger position, and an untouched and fertile country, was to be sought, in which the army having recruited itself, the campaign might be reopened in the spring with renewed vigour and fresh triumphs. But the difficulty of fixing on a line of retreat, was extreme; if possible, the route by which the army had advanced to Moscow was to be avoided; over that country, had already passed two large armies; the Russians had laid it so completely waste, that the French, when advancing, had found the roads almost impassable, and the country on all sides was completely stripped of provisions and accommodations. Nothing therefore but dire necessity could compel Bonaparte to retreat by this route. If he chose one more to the south, it would not only lead him along roads little injured, but through a rich and fertile country; and though necessarily circuitous, yet if he could accomplish his retreat in this direction, he would in the end arrive much sooner in a friendly country than if he marched by Smolensk.

Having decided, if possible, to penetrate

and threatened to send him back to his country, to meet the fate merited by his infamy. The general repelled the charge of treason, and replied with the utmost firmness, that he feared not death from whatever quarter it might come. The baron and his aid-de-camp, Captain Nariashkin, were however ordered to Hesse under an escort of gens d'armes; but the carriage breaking down at Minek, they were rescued by a body of Cossacks, and restored to the Russian army.

"Of 4000 houses, built with stone, which were in Moscow, not more than 200 remain. It has been said that a fourth remained, because in that calculation 800 churches were comprehended, some of which are damaged. Of 8000 houses of wood nearly 500 remain."—*Twenty-sixth bulletin of the French army, dated Borovsk, October 23d, 1812.*

* General Winzingerode, who is a Hessian by birth, was conducted to Verreia, and taken before Bonaparte, who charged him with being a traitor,

by the route of Kalouga and Toulâ, it was necessary, as a preliminary step, to drive back the Russian grand army, which occupied and defended the Kalouga road. Marshal Kutusoff, aware of the intention of the French, and having received information that a strong reinforcement was marching from Smolensk to assist in extricating Napoleon from the perilous situation in which he was placed, resolved to attack Murat, who commanded the advanced-guard. This division of the army, which consisted of forty-five thousand men, was attacked and defeated at Touratino, on the 18th of October, with a loss of thirty-eight pieces of cannon, two thousand slain, and fifteen hundred prisoners. Among the slain, were General Derie, who was piked by a Cossack, and twelve other field-officers. On the side of the Russians, General Baggavout fell, being struck with a cannon ball at the beginning of the action, and General Benningsen was severely wounded.

While these events occurred in the neighbourhood of Moscow, some affairs of considerable moment, and materially influencing the result of the campaign, took place in other parts of the Russian dominions. The army of General Steingel, after having obtained important advantages over the enemy in the neighbourhood of Riga, advanced along the left bank of the Dwina, and on the 10th of October, came in close communication with a part of General Wittgenstein's corps near Drissa. The plans and operations of these generals were combined with so much judgment, that while the former attacked the corps of Marshal Macdonald, the latter fell upon the division under St. Cyr. General Steingel succeeded in driving the army to which he was opposed, into the vicinity of Polotsk; and Count Wittgenstein, on the 18th of October, after a sanguinary engagement of twelve hours, compelled the enemy to seek safety in his intrenchments. On the following day, these intrenchments were assailed and carried by storm, and the enemy, who was now driven to the necessity of quitting the city, hastened to join the corps of Marshal Victor, which was on its march to reinforce the grand army. During the engagements of the 18th and 19th, the enemy lost two thousand prisoners, exclusive of the killed and wounded, among the latter of whom was General St. Cyr.

In the month of September, the army of the Danube had united with the Russian force under General Tormazow, in the neighbourhood of Sloutzk; while, the enemy had again overrun those parts of Volhynia, which he had for a time abandoned.

The Polish division under Dombrowski, once more communicated with those of Renier and Schwartzenberg; and several affairs, important only for the gallantry displayed on both sides, occurred between their detached parties and those of the Russians. When Renier and Schwartzenberg were apprized of the junction of Tormazow with the army of the Danube, they determined to retire; but they were actively pursued in their retreat, until their arrival at Bialystock, about the middle of October. At this juncture, Admiral Tschikakoff received orders from the commander-in-chief to hasten towards Minsk, for the purpose of co-operating with Wittgenstein, and on the 1st of November he arrived in that city. Such, were the arrangements made in this quarter, for the purpose of cutting off the retreat of the invaders, who had now begun their flight through the Russian territories.

On the 18th of October, the French corps in the neighbourhood of Moscow assembled, and on the following day the grand army quitted that city, taking the great road to Kalouga; but it had already become obvious that this movement was only a false manœuvre, to conceal from the Russians the project of retreating on Smolensk and Vitepsk. In the rear of the army, was a long train of carriages, loaded with the spoils of Moscow, which, in three or four ranks, extended for several leagues: these were succeeded by ammunition wagons filled with trophies, and Turkish or Persian draperies, torn from the palaces of the czars; and lastly followed the celebrated cross of St. Ivan, held in such high veneration by the members of the Greek church. The cohorts of Xerxes had not more baggage.

On the 22d, the French army had advanced to Borovsk. After the battle of the 18th Marshal Kutusoff had resumed his position at Touratino, that he might direct the movements of his armies according to the intelligence which he should receive of the enemy; while the Hetman, reinforced by twenty-five newly raised regiments from the banks of the Don, scourged the country in all directions, and harassed the march of the invaders. During the night of the 23d, the sixth Russian corps, under General Doctorow, arrived at Malo-Jaroslavitz, and took possession of the heights which command that place. Here, a sanguinary battle took place on the following day, in which the French claim the victory. "At daybreak, the battle commenced; at which time, the Russian army appeared quite entire, and took a position behind the town. The French divisions of Delzon, Broussier, and Pino,

under the Viceroy of Italy, were successively engaged. The town was taken and retaken not less than eleven times during the day, and was completely burned to ashes; but at ten o'clock at night the Russians were finally driven from the heights, and retreated so precipitately that they were obliged to throw twenty pieces of cannon into the river. General Delson fell, pierced by three balls; and General Levie shared the same fate. The loss on the side of the Russians was very severe: it amounted to from six to seven thousand.* On the following morning, Napoleon arrived on the field, and he soon perceived, that whatever glory the battle of Malo-Jaroslavitz had shed on the French arms, "two battles more, contested like this, would leave their leader without an army."† He also discovered that after the engagement the Russians had outflanked him; and that he had now no alternative left but to gain the road to Mojaïsk, and to cross that country which the retreating Russians and the advancing French armies had two months before reduced to a desert.

From the commencement of the campaign, the son of the Hetman Platoff, mounted on a superb white charger from the Ukraine, was the faithful companion of his father, and always at the head of the Cossacks. This gallant youth was the idol of his family, and the hope of the warlike nation who would one day have been under his command. But in a desperate charge of cavalry, which took place near Vereia, at the commencement of the retreat of the French army, between Prince Poniatowski and the Cossack chief, the Poles and the Cossacks, animated by a mutual hatred, fought with fury, and the young warrior received a mortal wound in the heat of the battle, from a Hulan Pole, which terminated his career of glory, and destroyed the hopes of his family.‡

* Twenty-seventh bulletin of the French army.

† Labeume's Narrative.

‡ The character of the Cossacks has been misunderstood: instead of forming the most barbarous, they may be ranked among the most polished subjects of the Russian government. The appearance, character, and habits of the natives of the Don, are thus delineated by a modern English traveller:—"There is something extremely martial, and even intimidating, in the first appearance of a Cossack. His dignified and majestic look; his elevated brows, and dark mustachios; his tall helmet of black wool, terminated by a crimson sack, with its plume, laced festoon, and white cockade; his upright posture; the ease and elegance of his gait; give him an air of great importance. A quiet life seems quite unsuited to the disposition of the Cossacks. They loiter about, have no employment to interest them; and, passionately fond of war, seem distressed by the indo-

With the battle of Malo-Jaroslavitz, the sun of Napoleon's Russian victories set, never more to rise. A scene of horrors now commenced, to which no parallel can be found in history. Flight, disgrace, fatigue, famine, and pestilence,—misery, in short, in all the various aspects it can assume, was before the French soldier. Napoleon and his generals could no longer close their eyes to the disasters that were approaching; yet a thousand efforts were made to conceal them from their followers, and to animate the drooping spirits of the soldiers, by hopes of plenty and repose, which were never to be realized. So sensible was the French emperor of the overwhelming difficulties of his situation, that he already meditated his own escape: already, did he cease to command men who were no longer entitled to the name of soldiers, among whom discipline no longer existed, and military subordination was forgotten, unless when it was called forth by despair. To his generals, he in a great measure consigned the direction of this unhappy multitude, and, surrounded by a few of his favourite generals, and accompanied by his guards, he began to retire towards Smolensk, from the indignant view of thousands of wretched beings, whose bones were doomed to blanch on the inhospitable plains of the north.

Marshal Kutusoff, who had ordered his troops to advance, moved with one part of the army on Krasnoi, and directed General Milloradowitch to move in a parallel direction. The Cossacks and light troops maintained, as usual, their harassing and destructive warfare, breaking down the bridges in the enemy's line of march, and contributing essentially to those dreadful disasters, which form the conclusion of this memorable campaign. Scarcely had the French troops, worn out by a day's march along broken and deep roads, during which they were either actually fighting, or constantly on the alert, lain down on the ground to obtain a little repose, when the Cossacks rushed into their camp; and, before the men could prepare for resistance or defence, many were killed, all were thrown into confusion and dismay, and their artillery and stores fre-

lence of peace. There is no nation (I will not except my own) more cleanly in their person and apparel than the Cossacks. Polished in their manners, instructed in their minds, hospitable, generous, disinterested in their hearts, humane and tender to the poor, good husbands, good fathers, good wives, good mothers, virtuous daughters, valiant and dutiful sons; such are the natives of Tcherchaskoy. In conversation, the Cossack is a gentleman, for he is well-informed, free from prejudice, open, sincere, and upright.—Place him by the side of a Russian—what a contrast!"—*Dr. Clarke.*

quently formed the trophies of the assailants, whose vigilance was never suffered to slumber. Platoff, the celebrated leader of the Cossacks, received intelligence, on the 30th of October, that a large convoy, strongly escorted, was on its way towards Smolensk. On the 31st, he came up with this convoy near the monastery of Kolotak, and began a spirited attack upon the left flank. The enemy, paralyzed by the danger of the situation, showed at first no disposition to resist; and the Cossacks having pressed on with their wonted impetuosity, great slaughter ensued. Two entire battalions of French were cut to pieces in this affair; and the object of the victors was attained by the desperate resolution of the fugitives, who, to prevent the convoy from falling into the hands of the Russians, blew up the whole of the wagons.

Straggling parties of the enemy, rendered frantic by suffering, frequently broke off from the main army in quest of sustenance; but such were the activity and zeal of the warriors by whom they were beset, that these marauders generally paid the forfeit of their lives for their temerity. Platoff himself, whose recent loss seemed only to inflame his zeal, gives the following description of the state of the enemy about this period: "The retreat of the French," says he, "is a flight without example, abandoning every thing that demands carriage, even to the sick and wounded. The traces of their career are marked with every species of horror; at every step, are seen the dying and the dead, not merely those who have died in battle, but the victims of famine and fatigue. In two days, even in sight of my division, their despair has blown up one hundred ammunition wagons, while the sudden movement of my troops has compelled them to leave untouched almost an equal number." "Their fugitives," he adds, "we destroy wherever we meet them; and when they attempt to make a stand, the brave sons of the Don, assisted by their artillery and their chassours, soon relieve the empire of hundreds of its invaders."

When the French army reached the neighbourhood of Viasma on the 3d of November, they came in contact with General Milloradowitch, to whom had been confided the command of nearly one-half the Russian army. A line of battle was instantly formed by the rear-guard of the French army, under the Viceroy of Italy and Marshals Ney and Davoust. The impetuosity with which these disorganized corps were assailed by the Russians, was so irresistible, that in spite of the insulated acts of bravery to which despair had aroused the enemy, the contest

was not long sustained. The Russian infantry charged into the town with drums beating and colours flying, and made a passage for the rest of the troops over the dead bodies of the enemy. In the heat of the engagement, the town was set on fire, and all the houses that had escaped the first conflagration were destroyed; two thousand prisoners were taken, and twenty-five pieces of cannon, while the road was every where covered with the horses and baggage of the retreating army. While the viceroy made a hasty retreat to Doukhovistchina, Davoust and Ney took the road to Doroghoboui, and the stragglers and fugitives scattered themselves along the banks of the Dnieper. "Men and horses, worn out with fatigue, could scarcely drag themselves along; and, as soon as the latter fell exhausted, the soldiers eagerly divided the carcasses among themselves, and hastened to broil on the coals that food, which, during many days, had constituted their only nourishment. Suffering yet more from cold than from hunger, they abandoned their ranks to warm themselves by fires hastily kindled; but when they wished to rise to depart, their frost-bitten limbs refused their office, a partial insensibility crept over them, and many of them preferred falling into the hands of the enemy, to making the necessary efforts to continue their journey."*

On the 5th of November, Milloradowitch had driven the enemy forty versts beyond Viasma: and while their right was menaced by Platoff, their left was pressed upon by the main Russian army under Kutusoff, who directed his march upon Elnia. The march of the retreating army was however continued to Smolensk, from which they were within three days' march, with renovated spirits, from an expectation that the supplies accumulated in that place would terminate their privations and re-establish the organization of the army; when, on the 6th of November, the atmosphere, which had hitherto been clear, became clouded by dark and cold vapours. The sun, obscured by thick mists, disappeared from their sight, and snow, falling in large flakes, obscured the day, and confounded the earth with the sky. The wind, blowing furiously, howled dreadfully through the forests, while the country around, as far as the eye could reach, presented, unbroken, one wild and savage appearance. The soldiers, vainly struggling with the snow and the tempest, which rushed upon them with the force of a whirlwind, could no longer distinguish the road, and falling into the ditches, many of them there found

* Labaume's Narrative.

their graves. Others pressed on towards the end of their journey, scarcely able to drag themselves along, without food, badly clothed, and shivering with cold; becoming selfish through despair, they afforded neither succour, nor even the glance of pity, to those who, worn out with fatigue and disease, expired around them. How many unfortunate beings, on that dreadful day, died of cold and famine! The rigours of the frost seized on their benumbed limbs, and penetrated through their whole frame. Stretched on the road, only the heaps of snow which covered them could be distinguished, and which, at almost every step, formed small elevations, like so many newly filled graves. At the same time, vast flights of ravens abandoned the plain to take refuge in the neighbouring forests; and troops of dogs, which had followed the army from Moscow, and lived solely on mangled remains, howled around, as if they would hasten the period when the soldiers were to become their prey.

"From that day, the army lost its courage and its military attitude. The soldier no longer obeyed his officer, and the officer separated himself from his general. The regiments, disbanded, marched in disorder. Searching for food, they spread themselves over the plain, burning and destroying whatever fell in their way. The horses fell by thousands. The cannon and the wagons, which were now abandoned, served only to obstruct their way; and no sooner did the soldiers separate themselves from their corps, than they were assailed by a population eager to avenge the horrors of which they had been the victims. The Cossacks came to the succour of the peasants, and drove back to the great road, already filled with the dying and the dead, those of the stragglers who escaped from the carnage. Such was the situation of the army when it arrived at Doroghoboui. This town, small as it was, would have given new life to the unfortunate troops, if Napoleon had not been so far blinded by the fury of his rage, as to forget that his soldiers would be the first to suffer by the devastation which he caused to be made. Doroghoboui had been burnt, its magazines pillaged, and the brandy, with which they were filled, poured into the streets, while the rest of the army was perishing for want of cordials. The few houses that remained were occupied exclusively by a small number of generals and staff officers; and the soldiers which yet survived to face the enemy, were exposed to all the rigours of the season.

"When Napoleon quitted Moscow, it was his intention to reunite his troops between Vitepsk and Smolensk, and to make

the Dnieper and the Dwina the grand line of his operations. The 6th and 7th of November having destroyed the third part of his army, he alleged this cause, and the inclemency of the winter, as the reasons for abandoning his original design. But the true motive which induced him to change his plan, was the intelligence which he received at Smolensk on the 10th of November, that Wittgenstein, having forced the Dwina, had taken Vitepsk, and that the army of Moldavia, united to that of Volhynia, having driven before it the corps of Prince Schwartzenberg, was taking a position on the Beresina, with the design of joining Wittgenstein, and effectually cutting off the retreat of the French army. This manœuvre of the Russians was so well known, and appeared so natural, that a report soon spread through the French troops, that it was the intention of the enemy to take Napoleon alive, and to put the whole of his army to the sword; wishing by this severe chastisement, to give to Europe an example of the punishment which they deserve who disturb the world with unjust wars."*

On the 7th, Platoff and the light cavalry were despatched in pursuit of Beauharnois, who was pushing for Vitepsk, by the way of Doukhovistchina, with the fourth corps consisting of four divisions. On coming up with the enemy, near the village of Zeselia, the Hetman directed both these corps to be turned at the same time, while with a chosen squadron he bore down himself upon the centre. Discomfited at every point, the division of Beauharnois fled in two parties, one towards Smolensk, and the other towards the Vope. The viceroy, who had despatched General Poitevin forward in the night with a body of engineers, to construct a bridge for the passage of the army over the Vope, found, to his extreme consternation, that a sudden rise in the water had swept away the bridge, at the moment when it was nearly finished. The Cossacks, apprized of this disaster, did not fail to advance in great strength; and the viceroy, seeing that it was necessary that some officer of rank should set an example of courage, ordered Colonel Delfanti to place himself at the head of the royal guard, and to force the Vope. In obedience to this order, the colonel, rushing into the river at the head of the grenadiers, made his way through the masses of ice that floated down the stream. The viceroy next followed with his staff, and on his arrival at the opposite bank, gave the necessary orders to facilitate the passage of the army. The wagons now

* Labaume's Narrative

began to file off; the first passed over with much difficulty; and after them a few pieces of artillery; but, as the channel was far below the level of the ground, and the banks were steep and covered with ice, the only practicable point was at a place where steps had been dug to descend to the river. The cannon, all passing in the same track, formed ruts so deep, that it soon became impossible to drag them out. Thus, the only accessible ford was soon choked up, and rendered utterly impassable for the rest of the artillery and baggage. Notwithstanding the efforts of the rear-guard, the Russians still continued to advance. The river was only half-frozen; and as the wagons could no longer make any progress, it became necessary for those who had no horses, to throw themselves into the stream. A vast number of provision wagons, carts, and *drouschki*, were abandoned, and the artillery-men, on the report that the enemy was fast approaching, spiked a hundred pieces of cannon. The cries of those who were passing the river, the consternation of others who were preparing to descend, and who, with their horses, were every moment seen overwhelmed by the current, the despair of the women, the cries of the children, and the terror even of the soldiers, rendered this passage so horrible, that the very recollection of it yet terrifies those who witnessed and survived the scene. On the 7th, the loss of the French amounted to fifteen hundred killed, and three thousand five hundred taken prisoners; on the 8th, in the words of Platoff, "the Cossacks killed a great many, but made few prisoners." The night of that day was truly dreadful. "To form some idea of it," says an eyewitness, "the reader must picture to himself an army encamped on the bare snow, in the midst of a Russian winter, closely pursued by the enemy, and having neither cavalry nor artillery to oppose him. The soldiers, without shoes, and almost without clothes, were enfeebled by famine and fatigue. Sitting on their knapsacks, they slept on their knees. From this benumbing posture, they rose only to broil some slices of horse-flesh, or to melt a few morsels of ice. Often they had no wood, and to find fuel they destroyed the houses in which their generals lodged; sometimes, when they awoke in the morning, the village which they had seen the night before, had disappeared; and towns, which to-day were untouched, would form on the morrow one vast conflagration."* The Russians, habituated to the climate, and supplied with every necessary, scarce-

ly felt the severity of the season; while the French and Italians, born in more genial climes, and unprepared for the intense rigour of a northern winter, sunk under its severity.*

Napoleon reached Smolensk in the night of the 9th of November, and on the 10th, the first instance occurred during the campaign of the surrender of a French corps without firing a gun. Ignorant of the movements of the Russians, General Augereau had advanced from Mohilow, on the Kalouga road, to secure the communication between Krasnoi and Smolensk, when the force under his command, while in separate bodies, was attacked with so much vigour by three partisan corps, detached by Count Orlov Dennissow, that the French general, with sixty officers, and two thousand men, laid down their arms.

On the approach of the main army to Smolensk, the most flattering hopes again presented themselves; here, abundance was to succeed want, and repose to solace the exhausted. But what was the grief of the soldiers, to learn, in the very suburbs of the city, that all the provisions were consumed, and that famine prevailed even in the garrison. Thus Smolensk, which they had hoped would terminate their misfortunes, cruelly deceived their hopes, and became the witness of the most profound despair. Instead of giving them ready admission, their countrymen in the town shut the gates against them with horror. Their confused and irregular state, their wild, dirty, and unshaved appearance, their impatient cries for entrance, above all, their emaciated forms, and starved, yet ferocious aspects, caused them to be regarded rather as banditti, than as soldiers. At length, the imperial guards arrived, and were admitted; and the miscellaneous crowd rushed in after them. To the guards, and some few others who had kept order, rations were regularly delivered; but the mass of stragglers, being unable to give any account of themselves or of their regiments, or to bring with them a responsible officer, died, many of them, while they besieged in vain the doors of the magazines. Such, was the promised distribution of food—the promised quarters were nowhere to be found. Smo-

* The guard of honour of Italy, composed of young men, selected from the most illustrious families in that country, was in the course of the campaign entirely annihilated. Their education and habits ill-suited them to submit to the menial and degrading offices by which others gained a scanty morsel, and prolonged a wretched existence: of three hundred and fifty, of which this corps on its entrance into Russia consisted, all, except five, had perished before they reached Smolensk!—*Labaume*.

lensk, as is already narrated, had been burned by the Russians, and no other covering was to be had than was afforded by miserable sheds reared against such blackened walls as remained yet standing. But even this was shelter and repose, compared with the exposed bivouac on wreaths of snow; and, as the straggling soldiers were compelled by hunger to unite themselves once more with their regiments, they at length obtained their share in the regular distribution of rations, and an approach towards order and discipline began to prevail in the headmost division of the grand army of France. The soldiers who could not find a shelter, encamped in the middle of the streets, and numbers of them were found dead around the fires which they had kindled. The hospitals, the churches, and such of the public buildings as still existed, were unable to contain the sick, who presented themselves by thousands. On the 14th, a cry suddenly rose of—"Rise, they pillage the magazines;" and it was soon found that soldiers, dying of hunger, and no longer able to wait the dilatory distribution of provisions, had, in spite of the guard, forced the gates of the magazines, and began to pillage their scanty contents. Incapable of bearing up against so many distresses, Napoleon, for the first time, held a grand council, on the 14th of November, at which all the generals of divisions, and marshals of the empire, assisted. As soon as the council broke up, the author of all their miseries, after burning part of his equipage, immediately departed in his carriage, accompanied by his chasseurs, and by the Polish lancers of the guard.

On the 15th, the order was given to continue the march from Smolensk; and now a spectacle the most horrible was presented to view: for three leagues, the road was entirely covered with cannon and ammunition-wagons, which they had merely time to spike or to blow up. Horses, in the agonies of death, were seen at every step; and sometimes whole teams, sinking under their labours, fell together. From time to time, trees were seen, at the foot of which the soldiers had attempted to light fires, but the poor wretches had perished ere they could accomplish their object. These horrors, far from exciting the sensibility, only hardened the hearts of the survivors. The cruelty which could not be exercised on the enemy, was extended to their companions. The best friends no longer recognised each other. Every one chose to save the plunder of Moscow rather than the life of his comrade. On all sides the groans of the dying, and the lamentable cries of the

abandoned, were heard. But every one was insensible to their sufferings, or if he approached those who were on the point of expiring, it was to plunder, not to assist them.*

Prince Kutusoff, perceiving that Napoleon designed to make a movement upon Krasnoi, pushed forward a strong body of troops on the 16th, in order to intercept his advance: the French, aware of their danger, drew together strong bodies of troops under the command of Marshal Davoust, and marched without interruption into the vicinity of Krasnoi. Here, the Russians suddenly attacked them at all points, and with their artillery, which had been placed in ambush, made dreadful ravages in the hostile ranks. The French fought desperately until night, when they were completely routed, and the whole division was either slain or dispersed among the woods on the banks of the Dnieper; their loss in killed was immense; two generals, fifty-eight superior officers, and upwards of nine thousand soldiers, with seventy pieces of artillery, three standards, and the marshal's staff of Davoust, fell into the hands of the victors.† This defeat annihilated the first corps of the French army: though the division was commanded by Davoust, Napoleon was on the field of battle, and was personally exposed to the most imminent danger, from which he was rescued only by the bravery of his guards.

This engagement was only a prelude to one more fatal. On the following day, Marshal Ney, anxious to retrieve the falling fortunes of his master, but totally ignorant of the events of the preceding day, was advancing from Smolensk towards Krasnoi, with the rear-guard of the French army. The Russian commander-in-chief, determining to cut off this division from the rest of the hostile forces, strongly reinforced General Milloradowitch. About three o'clock in the afternoon, the approach of the French was discovered, and a herald was despatched to inform them that the imperial guard had sustained a signal defeat on the preceding day, and to summon them to surrender. This summons, the French marshal treated with contempt, and immediately prepared for action. Under cover of a thick fog, he advanced to the very foot of the hill on which the Russians were encamped, when suddenly their batteries were unmasked, and such was

* Labaume's Narrative.

† The *baton* is used by the field-marshal of France on days of ceremony alone, and this capture adds no glory to the Russians; in the present instance, the staff of Davoust was, no doubt, found in a baggage wagon that had been abandoned.—*Labauume.*

the effect of the tremendous discharge of forty pieces of cannon, and the whole musketry of the line, that a flag of truce was sent to the Russian camp, and at midnight, nearly twelve thousand French soldiers laid down their arms. (76) On this day, twenty-seven pieces of cannon were taken, together with immense booty. Favoured by the darkness of the night, Marshal Ney fled across the Dnieper, accompanied by a few hundred fugitives, who were actively pursued by clouds of Cossacks.

(76) The circumstance of Marshal Ney's having sent a flag of truce to the Russian army, with a proposal to surrender, is uniformly denied by all the French writers, and discredited even by the Germans. The following account of this engagement is given by Bourgeois, in his *Tableau de la Campagne de Moscou*: "Marshal Ney, who commanded the rear-guard, having quitted Smolensk, put himself in motion to follow us, and encountered the Russian army at Krasnoi. We had expected to hear no more of him, and in fact his division was supposed to be completely lost; but he did not suffer himself to be intimidated by superior numbers; and in this critical situation displayed so much energy and courage, and manœuvred with so much skill, that contrary to the general expectation, he succeeded in disconcerting the enemy by his boldness, in deceiving him by his marches, and finally in resisting every effort to overcome him." p. 134. A similar account of this affair is given by a German writer, whose narrative is translated into French, under the title of "*Campagnes de Bonaparte en 1812*," &c. and by the author of the life of Marshal Ney, to which we have before referred. The following extract from that work presents a lively and interesting picture of this engagement; and gives a favourable idea of the skill and courage of the unfortunate marshal: "The Russians, believing that Ney would not be able to make head against the forces that surrounded him, summoned him to surrender. The bearer of the flag was received with considerable roughness, and the only answer the marshal thought proper to give, was, that he was not a man to capitulate, and that he knew very well how to cut his way sword in hand. After having vainly endeavoured to force a passage, after losing his artillery, his baggage, and half his army, at the moment the Russians expected to see him lay down his arms, he suddenly threw himself on their right, and by a series of skilful manœuvres, succeeded in gaining the other bank of the Borysthènes. This new route, he traversed for three days, without any communication with the main army, and in a state of constant annoyance from a large body of Cossacks, who, believing it impossible that so bold a step could succeed, redoubled their exertions to make him surrender. During this retreat, which was certainly one of the most brilliant operations of the campaign, every thing that talent or courage could do, was effected by Marshal Ney. Insulated with his feeble army in the midst of a hostile and unknown country, he marched his troops in squares, and thus rendered fruitless the continual efforts made to cut him off. His cool and calculating valour never abandoned him. At the moment of passing the Borysthènes, the anxiety of his soldiers was at the height; they looked everywhere for their leader, expecting to find in his countenance marks of despondency, which would

During these important transactions, General Wittgenstein was actively and successfully engaged on the Dwina. After the capture of Polotsk, this general proceeded towards Vitopsk, in prosecution of his design of cutting off Bonaparte's communication with the west of Europe. On the 8th, this city was carried by storm; and the French emperor, finding his progress impeded by the forward movements of the gallant Wittgenstein, ordered Marshals Victor and Oudinot to drive him across the Dwina. On the 14th, the Russian general was attacked, but so masterly were his manœuvres on that day, that the French were obliged to retire to Senno, with the loss of four cannon, two standards, sixty-seven officers, and three thousand soldiers. A fine trait of military spirit is noticed in the Russian account of this affair:—a battalion of newly raised militia having received orders to fall back, peremptorily refused, saying—"the emperor has not sent us to retire, but to advance, and beat the enemy, which we are willing to do."

The Russians have divided the retreat of the French into three epochs, which, besides the constant increase of their misfortunes, have each a peculiar character. The first ended at the battle of Krasnoi; the second, at the passage of the Beresina; and the third, at the Niemen. At the conclusion of the first period, at which we are now arrived, the Russians had already taken forty thousand men, twenty-seven generals, five hundred pieces of cannon, thirty-one standards, and, besides the immense baggage of the French army, all the plunder of Moscow, that had not been destroyed. If to these losses, are added forty thousand men, dead of fatigue or famine, or killed in the different battles, it will be found that the army, which quitted Moscow with a force amounting to one hundred and ten thousand men, was reduced to thirty thousand, including the imperial guard, of whom not more than eight thousand combatants survived. The cavalry was almost extinct.* In this situation, the soldiers formed mournful presages of what they had yet to endure, since they

confirm their fears and give encouragement to their uneasiness to display itself. They found him lying upon the shore, holding a map in his hand, and calmly considering the route it was proper to take. So much tranquillity in the midst of the most imminent danger, revived the courage of the soldiers, and restored the hopes which had now completely abandoned them."—"When he learned the critical situation of the marshal, Bonaparte is said to have repeated more than once that he would give two millions to ransom his intrepid lieutenant." p. 66.

* Labaume's Narrative.

were scarcely half-way to the Niemen, and had three rivers to cross, and two mountains to climb.

The 18th of November was rendered memorable in the history of this campaign, by the arrival of Colonel Czernicheff from the army of the Danube at the headquarters of Count Wittgenstein, after one of the most extraordinary marches on record. The corps under Czernicheff had to encounter on every day's march numerous bands of the enemy; but these he either eluded or overcame, frequently seizing their convoys, and destroying the escorts by which they were accompanied. In other respects, the march of Czernicheff was such as Russian troops only could have accomplished; he had many rivers to cross, and had no leisure to construct bridges, but he and his troops, even at that inclement season, plunged into the streams, and gained the opposite shores. On his arrival, he brought to Count Wittgenstein the welcome intelligence of the flight of the Austrian and Saxon auxiliaries, the utter ruin of the French army, and the rapid advance of the Russians. A few days afterwards, the general aid-de-camp, Kutusoff, also arrived and announced to the count, that he was in communication with Platoff, and with the main army; in fact, that the whole force of the Russian empire was now in full communication, and that the circle was thus completely around the remains of the French armies.

Napoleon, finding his situation perilous in the extreme, was hastening by forced marches with the remnant of his army from Orcha towards the Beresina, hoping to effect his retreat to the Vistula by the way of Minsk, in which, by his orders, stores of all kinds had been accumulated; but in the mean time, Admiral Tschikakoff had taken possession of that town. Minsk being out of the question, Napoleon's next point of direction was Borizoff. Here, there was over the Beresina a bridge of three hundred fathoms in length, the possession of which appeared essential to his final escape from Russia. But while Napoleon was considering what should be his next movement, after crossing the Beresina, at Borizoff, he was once more surprised with the additional evil tidings, that this town also, with the bridge so necessary to him, was lost; that Borizoff was taken, and Dombroski defeated under its walls.—“Is it then written,” he said, looking upwards, and striking the earth with his cane,—“is it written that we shall commit nothing but errors!”

Of the same gloomy period, Segur relates the following anecdote:—Napoleon had stretched himself on a couch, and ap-

parently slumbered, while his faithful officers, Duroc and Daru, sitting in his apartment, talked over their critical situation. In their whispered conversation, the words, “prisoner of state,” reached the sleepless ears of Napoleon.—“How,” said he, raising himself, “do you think they would dare?”—In answer, Daru mentioned the phrase, well known to the emperor, of “state policy,” as independent of public law or morality.—“But France,” said the emperor, to whom state policy sounded less pleasantly than when it was appealed to for deciding some great movement of his own—“what will France say?”—“Who can answer that question, sire?” continued Duroc; but added, “it was his warmest wish that the emperor, at least, could reach France, were it through the air, if earth were stopped against his passage.”—“Then I am in your way, I suppose,” said the emperor.—The reply was affirmative.—“And you,” continued the emperor with an affectation of treating the matter lightly, “have no wish to become a prisoner of state?”—“To be a prisoner of war is sufficient for me,” said Daru.—Napoleon was silent for a time; then asked if the reports of his ministers were burned.—“Not yet,” was the reply.—“Then let them be destroyed,” he continued, “for it must be confessed we are in a most lamentable condition.”

This was the strongest feeling yet given, of Napoleon's deep feeling of the situation to which he had reduced himself. In studying the map, to discover the fittest place to pass the Beresina, he directed his finger to the country of the Cossacks, and was heard to murmur, “Ah, Charles XII.; Pultowa.”—But these were only the momentary ejaculations dictated by a sense of his condition; all his resolutions were finally taken, with a sense of what was due to himself and to his followers.

Disappointed in his expectation of crossing the Beresina, Bonaparte, with the remainder of the army of Moscow, which, having been joined by the skeletons of Victor and Oudinot's corps, and by the different detachments that had been left on the Dnieper, now amounted to about seventy thousand men, proceeded towards Minsk, along the right bank of the Beresina. On his rear and flank, was the grand army, under Prince Kutusoff; on his right, was Count Wittgenstein, who had been joined by the northern corps; and in front, at Borisov, was the victorious division under Admiral Tschikakoff.

During the 25th, Napoleon manœuvred to deceive the vigilance of the Russians, and by stratagem obtained possession of the village of Studzianca, where the Be-

resina is 40 toises or 80 English yards wide. Here, in the presence, and in the face of the opposition of the Russians, he constructed two bridges, one for cavalry, and the other for the passage of the infantry. Over these bridges, Marshal Oudinot passed to attack the troops which resisted the advance of the French army. Napoleon, having, with the assistance of his guard, forced his way through the immense crowd which now lined the banks of the Beresina, crossed that river about three o'clock in the afternoon of the 27th of November, taking the route towards Zembin. A large proportion of the French army, paralyzed by their sufferings, and insensible of their approaching danger, passed the night of the 27th on the left bank of the Beresina.

On the morning of the 28th, Count Wittgenstein arrived with the first division of the Russian army in the neighbourhood of Studzianca, and opened a dreadful cannonade upon the fugitives, who were pressing in such crowds over the bridges, as completely to choke up the passage. To add to the confusion and horrors of the scene, about eight o'clock in the morning the bridge for carriages and cavalry broke down, and the baggage and artillery, now advancing towards the bridge intended for the infantry, a scene of horror and contention arose, exceeding all description. Numbers perished by the hands of their comrades, but a greater number were suffocated at the head of the bridge, and the bodies of men and horses so choked every avenue, that it was necessary to climb over mountains of dead bodies to arrive at the river. Some, buried in these horrible heaps, still breathed, and, struggling with the agonies of death, caught hold of those who mounted over them. During this contention, the multitude, which followed like a furious wave, swept away, and increased the number of victims.

The French division of Parthonneaux, which formed the rear-guard of the army, having received orders to return, left a brigade to burn the bridge. These troops, having lost their way, wandered more than three leagues in a wrong direction. In the middle of a dismal night, and pierced with cold, they mistook the forces of the Russians for those of their own army, and ran to join their comrades; when seeing themselves surrounded, and without the least hope of escape, they were forced to surrender.

While the troops under Marshal Victor were engaged on the left bank of the river, those under Marshal Oudinot were attacked on the right. Soldiers, who had before

been wandering in confusion, fell into the ranks, and the battle was maintained with great obstinacy. Oudinot, who could obtain the victory only at the price of his own blood, was wounded at the beginning of the action, and being obliged to quit the field, the command devolved on Marshal Ney. The marshal having rallied his troops, the battle recommenced with great fury, and several pieces of cannon, and four thousand prisoners, were taken by the French. But it was in vain that they captured prisoners whom they could not retain; they fought not for victory, but for life.

In the heat of the engagement, many balls struck the miserable crowds which were yet pressing to cross the bridge of the Beresina; some shells burst in the midst of them; and terror and despair took possession of every heart. The women and children, who had escaped so many disasters, seemed to have been preserved only to meet here a death—the most deplorable. The artillery, the baggage-wagons, the cavalry, and the infantry, all pressed on to escape the cannon and musketry in their rear, each endeavouring to gain the opposite bank by passing before the other. The strong made their way by casting the weak into the river, or trampled under foot the maimed and the sick that interrupted their passage. Hundreds were crushed to death by the wheels of the cannon; others, hoping to save themselves by swimming, were frozen in the middle of the river, or perished by placing themselves on pieces of ice, which, overweighted, sunk in the stream; and thousands of victims, deprived of hope, threw themselves into the Beresina, and perished in the waves. The division of Girard made its way by force, through all the obstacles that retarded its march: and climbing over the mountains of dead bodies that obstructed the way, gained the other side; thither, the Russians were pressing to follow them, when they hastened to effect their escape by setting fire to the bridge. At this moment, the unhappy beings still on the left side of the Beresina, abandoned themselves to absolute despair. Crowds upon crowds still pressed towards the burning bridge, choking up the passage amid bursting flames, scorched and frozen at the same instant, till at length the whole sunk with a tremendous crash into the bosom of the Beresina.

On the frightful night of the 28th, the elements let loose seemed to conspire to afflict universal nature, and to chastise the ambition and crimes of men. The conquerors and the conquered were alike overwhelmed with suffering. Between the

25th and the 29th of November, upwards of twenty thousand French soldiers fell into the hands of the Russians; two hundred pieces of cannon were abandoned; thirty-six thousand bodies were found in the snow after the thaw; and the passage of the Beresina was, in its consequences, more terrible than the most sanguinary battle.*

After the passage of the Beresina, Bonaparte, finding Minsk already occupied by the Russians, was compelled to take the more circuitous route of Wilna; and in order to cover his retreat, the wretched fugitives who formed the wreck of his once stupendous army, were collected near Kamen. This movement had been anticipated by the enterprising Wittgenstein, who having despatched Count Kutusoff, the general aid-de-camp, by a more distant route, proceeded himself on the enemy's right flank to intercept his retreat. Both these plans were crowned with complete success: the whole body of the Bavarians, under General Wrede, which formed the remains of the 6th corps, and were on their march to join the main French army, were taken in detail by Count Kutusoff; and Napoleon, finding himself cut off from Vileika, abandoned his project of advancing to Wilna in that direction, and took the road by Molodetschino. Here, however, he was exposed to the attacks of Tschikakoff, whose force, impatient to give the final blow to the retreating army, was hovering on his flank. On the 29th, they bore down upon the French; who, notwithstanding the efforts of the commanding officers to reanimate their exhausted and dispirited troops, were at length obliged to retreat in disorder. Early in the morning of the same day, two thousand Cossacks fell upon the advanced-guard of the 4th corps of the French army, with their usual "*Hourra*," and slaughtered great numbers of them in the streets of Kamen. On the 1st of December, the retreating army arrived at Ilija, and on the 2d at Molodetschino. At this place, Napoleon, who was still with the army, wrote that bulletin, which may be considered as the French official account of the retreat from the Moskwa to the Wilia, and which made France and her allies a large family of mourners. A document more important never issued from the pen of a military commander; and the historian would ill discharge his duty to the present age and to posterity, who should neglect to place upon record so extraordinary a production. This memorable communication was thus expressed:

* Labaume's Narrative.

TWENTY-NINTH BULLETIN.

"Molodetschino, Dec. 3, 1812.

"To the 6th of November, the weather was fine, and the movement of the army was executed with the greatest success. The cold weather began on the 7th; from that moment, we every night lost several hundred horses, in consequence of bivouacking. Arrived at Smolensk, we had already lost many cavalry and artillery horses. The Russian army, from Volhynia, was opposed to our right: our right left the Minsk line of operations, and took for the pivot of its operations the Warsaw line. On the 9th, the emperor was informed at Smolensk of this change in the line of operations, and conceived what the enemy would do. However hard it appeared to him to put himself in movement during so cruel a season, the new state of things demanded it. He expected to arrive at Minsk, or at least upon the Beresina, before the enemy; on the 13th, he quitted Smolensk; on the 16th, he slept at Krasnoi. The cold, which began on the 7th, suddenly increased; and on the 14th, 15th, and 16th, the thermometer was 16 and 18 degrees below the freezing point. The roads were covered with ice; the cavalry, artillery, and baggage horses, perished every night, not only by hundreds, but by thousands, particularly the German and French horses. In a few days, more than 30,000 horses perished; our cavalry were on foot; our artillery and our baggage were without conveyance. It was necessary to abandon and destroy a great part of our cannon, ammunition, and provisions. This army, so fine on the 6th, was very different on the 14th,—almost without cavalry, without artillery, without transports. Without cavalry, we could not reconnoitre a quarter of a league's distance; without artillery, we could not risk a battle, and firmly await it; it was requisite to march, in order not to be constrained to a battle, which the want of ammunition prevented us from desiring; it was requisite to occupy a certain space, not to be turned, and that too without cavalry, which led and connected the columns. This difficulty, joined to the cold which suddenly came on, rendered our situation miserable. Those men, whom nature had not sufficiently steeled to be above all the chances of fate and fortune, appeared shook, lost their gayety, their good humour, and dreamed but of misfortunes and catastrophes; those whom she has created superior to every thing, preserved their gayety, and their ordinary manners, and saw fresh glory in the different difficulties to be surmounted.

"The enemy, who saw upon the roads traces of that frightful calamity which had overtaken the French army, endeavoured to take advantage of it. He surrounded all the columns with his Cossacks, who carried off, like the Arabs of the desert, the trains and carriages which separated. This contemptible cavalry, which only make a noise, and are not capable of penetrating through a company of voltigeurs, rendered themselves formidable by favour of circumstances. Nevertheless, the enemy had to repent of all the serious attempts which they wished to undertake; they were overthrown by the viceroy, before whom they were placed, and lost many men.

"The Duke of Elchingen, with 3000 men, had blown up the ramparts of Smolensk; he was surrounded, and found himself in a critical position but he extricated himself from it with that intrepidity by which he is distinguished. After having kept the enemy at a distance from him during the whole of the 18th, and constantly repulsed him, at night he made a movement on the right, passed the Borysthènes, and deceived all the calculations

of the enemy. On the 19th, the army passed the Borysthenes at Orcha; and the Russian army, being fatigued, and having lost a great number of men, ceased from its attempts. The army of Volhynia had inclined, on the 16th, upon Minsk, and marched upon Borisov. General Dombrowski defended the bridge-head of Borisov with 3000 men. On the 23d, he was forced, and obliged to evacuate this position. The enemy then passed the Beresina, marching upon Bobr; the division Lambert formed the advanced-guard. The second corps, commanded by the Duke of Reggio, which was at Tacherein, had received orders to march upon Borisov, to secure the army the passage of the Beresina. On the 24th, the Duke of Reggio met the division Lambert, four leagues from Borisov, attacked and defeated it, took 2000 prisoners, six pieces of cannon, 500 baggage wagons of the army of Volhynia, and threw the enemy upon the right bank of the Beresina. General Berkeim, with the 4th cuirassiers, distinguished himself by a fine charge. The enemy could secure his safety only by burning the bridge, which is more than 300 toises in length. Nevertheless, the enemy occupied all the passages of the Beresina: this river is forty toises wide, and had much floating ice on it, but its banks are covered with marshes 300 toises long, which present great obstacles in clearing it. The enemy's general had placed his four divisions at the different debouchés, where he presumed the French army would attempt to pass. On the 26th, at break of day, the emperor, after having deceived the enemy by different movements made during the day of the 25th, marched upon the village of Studzianka, and caused, in spite of an enemy's division, and in its presence, two bridges to be thrown over the river. The Duke of Reggio passed, attacked the enemy, and led him, fighting two hours. The enemy retired upon the *tête-du-pont* of Borisov. General Legrand, an officer of the first-rate merit, was badly, but not dangerously, wounded. During the whole of the 26th and 27th, the army passed.

"The Duke of Belluno, commanding the 9th corps, had received orders to follow the movements of the Duke of Reggio, to form the rear-guard, and keep in check the Russian army from the Dwina, which followed him. Parthonneaux's division formed the rear-guard of this corps.

"On the 27th, at noon, the Duke of Belluno arrived with two divisions at the bridge of Studzianka. Parthonneaux's division set out at night from Borisov. A brigade of this division, which formed the rear-guard, and which was charged with burning the bridge, marched at seven in the evening, and arrived between ten and eleven o'clock; it sought its first brigade and its general, who had departed two hours before, and which it had not met in its route. Its researches were in vain; some uneasiness was then conceived. All we have since been able to learn, is, that the first brigade set out at five o'clock, missed its way at six, went to the right in place of proceeding to the left, and marched two or three leagues in this direction; that during the night, and benumbed with cold, it rallied at seeing the enemy's fires, which it mistook for the French army. Thus surrounded, it was taken. This cruel mistake must have caused us a loss of 2000 infantry, 300 cavalry, and three pieces of artillery. Reports state, that the general of division was not with his column, and had marched alone.

"All the army having passed, on the morning of the 28th the Duke of Belluno guarded the *tête-du-pont* upon the left bank: the Duke of

Reggio, and behind him all the army, was upon the right bank. Borisov having been evacuated, the armies of the Dwina and Volhynia communicated; they planned an attack on the 28th, at break of day. The Duke of Reggio caused the emperor to be informed that he was attacked. Half an hour afterwards, the Duke of Belluno was on the left bank. The Duke of Elchingen immediately followed the Duke of Reggio, and the Duke of Treviso the Duke of Elchingen. The battle became warm. The enemy wishing to turn our right, General Doumère, commanding the 5th division of cuirassiers, which made part of the 2d corps that remained on the Dwina, ordered a charge of cavalry, by the 4th and 5th regiments of cuirassiers, at the moment when the legion of the Viastula was engaged in the woods, to pierce the centre of the enemy. The enemy was defeated and put to the rout, together with his cavalry, which came to the assistance of his infantry. Six thousand prisoners, two standards, and six pieces of cannon, fell into our hands. On his side, the Duke of Belluno vigorously charged the enemy, defeated him, took from five to six hundred prisoners, and did not suffer him to advance within reach of the cannon of the bridge. General Fournier made a fine charge of cavalry. In the battle of the Beresina, the army of Volhynia suffered much. The Duke of Reggio was wounded, but his wound is not dangerous. He received a ball in his side.

"The next day (the 29th) we remained on the field of battle. We had to make our choice between two routes—that to Minsk, and that to Wilna. The road to Minsk led through the middle of a forest, and of uncultivated marshes, where it was impossible for the army to subsist itself. On the other hand, the road to Wilna led through a very fine country. The army being without cavalry, deficient in ammunition, and horribly fatigued by fifty days' march, carrying in its train all the sick and wounded of so many battles, stood greatly in need of getting to its magazines.

"On the 30th, the head-quarters were at Pletichichou; on the 1st of December at Slaike; and on the 3d, at Molodetchino, where the army received the first convoys from Wilna. All the wounded officers and soldiers, and whatever else could be of embarrassment, with the baggage, &c. were sent off to Wilna.

"To say that the army stands in need of re-establishing its discipline, of refreshing itself, of remounting its cavalry, completing its artillery, and its *materiel*,—this is the result of the *expose* which has just been made. Its repose is of the first necessity. The *materiel* and the horses are coming in; General Bourcier has already more than 20,000 remount horses in different depots.

"The artillery has already repaired its losses. The generals, officers, and soldiers, have suffered greatly from want. Numbers have lost their baggage by the loss of their horses, and several by the effect of the Cossacks' ambushes. The Cossacks have taken numbers of isolated persons, of geographical engineers, who were taking positions, and of wounded officers, who were marching without precaution, preferring running the risk, to marching slowly, and going with the convoy.

"The reports of the general officers commanding the different corps, will make known what officers and soldiers have chiefly distinguished themselves, and the details of these memorable events.

"In all these movements, the emperor has been

continually marching in the middle of his guards—the cavalry commanded by the Duke of Istria, and the infantry commanded by the Duke of Dantzic. His majesty has been well satisfied with the fine spirit shown by his guards. They have always been ready to show themselves wherever their presence was needful; but circumstances have always been such that their appearance alone was sufficient, and that they never were in a situation which required them to charge. The Prince of Neufchatel, the grand marshal, the grand equerry, and all the aides-de-camp and military officers of the household, have always accompanied his majesty. Our cavalry was dismounted to such a degree, that it was necessary to collect the officers, who had still a horse remaining, in order to form four companies of 150 men each.

"The generals there performed the functions of captains, and the colonels those of subalterns. This sacred squadron, commanded by General Grouchy, and under the orders of the King of Naples, did not lose sight of the emperor in all those movements. The health of his majesty was never better."

Napoleon, alarmed by so many disasters, and apprehensive of the consequences which the appearance of the "Twenty-ninth bulletin of the grand army," might produce in France, now determined to abandon the miserable remains of his army, for the purpose of repairing to Paris. Quitting Molodetschino at midnight, on the 3d of December, he proceeded to Smorghoni, where he called together the chiefs of his army, and after having appointed the King of Naples his lieutenant-general, took his departure from that place *incognito* on the 4th, accompanied by and under the name of the Duke of Vicenza. On his route to the French capital, he travelled in a single sledge, passing rapidly from Wilna by the way of Warsaw, which city, after narrowly escaping being taken by the Russian partizan Sesslawin, at a hamlet called Youpranoui, Napoleon reached on the 10th of December. Here, the Abbé de Pradt, then minister of France to the diet of Poland, was in the act of endeavouring to reconcile the various rumours which poured in from every quarter, when a figure like a spectre, wrapped in furs, which were stiffened by hoar-frost, stalked into his apartments, supported by a domestic, and was with difficulty recognised by the ambassador as the Duke of Vicenza.

"You here, Caulaincourt?" said the astonished prelate.—"And where is the emperor?"—"At the hotel d'Angleterre, waiting for you."—"Why not stop at the palace?"—"He travels *incognito*."—"Do you need any thing?"—"Some Burgundy or Malaga."—"All is at your service—but whither are you travelling?"—"To Paris."—"To Paris!—but where is the army?"—"It exists no longer," said Caulaincourt, looking upwards.—"And the

victory of the Beresina—and the six thousand prisoners?"—"We got across, that is all—the prisoners were a few hundred men, who have escaped. We have had other business than to guard them."

His curiosity thus far satisfied, the Abbé de Pradt hastened to the hotel. In the yard, stood three sledges in a dilapidated condition;—one for the emperor and Caulaincourt, the second for two officers of rank, the third for the emperor's favourite Mameluke, Rustan, and another domestic. He was introduced, with some mystery, into a miserable room in a wretched inn, where a servant girl was blowing a fire, made of green wood. Here, was the emperor, whom the Abbé de Pradt had last seen when he played King of Kings among the assembled sovereigns of Dresden. He was dressed in a green pelisse, covered with lace, and lined with furs, and by walking briskly about the apartment, was endeavouring to obtain the warmth which the chimney refused. He saluted "Monsieur l'Ambassadeur," as he termed him, with gayety. The abbé felt a movement of sensibility, to which he was disposed to give way, but, as he says, "The poor man did not understand me." He limited his expressions of devotion, therefore, to helping Napoleon off with his cloak. He heard from his minister, that the minds of the inhabitants of the Grand Duchy had been much changed since they had been led to despair of the regeneration of their country; and that they were already, since they could not be free Polanders, studying how to reconcile themselves to their former governors of Russia.—The entrance of two Polish ministers checked the ambassador's communications. The conversation was maintained from that moment by Napoleon alone; or rather, he indulged in a monologue, turning upon the sense he entertained that the failure of his Russian expedition would diminish his reputation, while he struggled against the painful conviction, by numbering up the places by which he might repair his losses, and alleging the natural obstacles to which he had been compelled to yield.

"We must levy ten thousand Poles," he said, "and check the advance of these Russians. A lance and a horse are all that are necessary.—There is but a single step between the sublime and the ridiculous."

The functionaries congratulated him on his escape from so many dangers.

"Dangers!" he replied; "none in the world. I live in agitation. The more I bustle, the better I am. It is for Kings of Cockaigne to fatten in their palaces—horseback and the fields are for me.—

From the sublime to the ridiculous, there is but a single step.—Why do I find you so much alarmed here?"

"We are at a loss to gather the truth of the news about the army."

"Bah!" replied the emperor; "the army is in a superb condition. I have a hundred and twenty thousand men.—I have beaten the Russians in every action.—They are no longer the soldiers of Friedland and Eylau. The army will recruit at Wilna.—I am going to bring up three hundred thousand men.—Success will render the Russians fool-hardy—I will give them battle twice or thrice upon the Oder, and in a month I will be again on the Niemen. I have more weight when on my throne, than at the head of my army.—Certainly, I quit my soldiers with regret; but I must watch Austria and Prussia, and I have more weight seated on my throne, than at the head of my army. All that has happened goes for nothing—a mere misfortune, in which the enemy can claim no merit—I beat them everywhere—they thought to cut me off at the Beresina—I made a fool of that ass of an admiral—(He could never pronounce the name *Tchitchagoff*)—I had troops and cannon—the position was superb—five hundred toises of marsh—a river—." This, he repeated twice, then ran over the distinction in the 29th bulletin between men of strong and feeble minds, and proceeded—"I have seen worse affairs than this.—At Marengo, I was beaten till six o'clock in the evening—next day, I was master of Italy.—At Essling, that archduke tried to stop me.—He published something or another.—My army had already advanced a league and a half—I did not even condescend to make any disposition. All the world knows how such things are managed when I am in the field. I could not help the Danube rising sixteen feet in one night.—Ah! without that, there would have been an end of the Austrian monarchy. But it was written in heaven that I should marry an archduchess." (This was said with an air of much gayety.) "In the same manner, in Russia, I could not prevent its freezing. They told me every morning that I had lost ten thousand horses during the night.—Well, farewell to you!"—He bade them adieu five or six times in the course of the harangue, but always returned to the subject. "Our Norman horses are less hardy than those of the Russians—they sink under ten degrees of cold, (below zero.) It is the same with the men. Look at the Bavarians; there is not one left.—Perhaps it may be said that I stopped too long at Moscow: that may be true; but the weather was fine—the win-

ter came on prematurely—besides I expected peace. On the 5th of October, I sent Lauriston to treat. I thought of going to St. Petersburg, and I had time enough to do so, or to go to the south of Russia, or to Smolensk. Well, we will make head at Wilna; Murat is left there. Ha, ha, ha! It is a great political game. Nothing venture, nothing win.—It is but one step from the sublime to the ridiculous. The Russians have shown they have character—their emperor is beloved by his people—they have clouds of Cossacks; it is something to have such a kingdom—the peasants of the crown love their government—the nobility are all mounted on horseback. They proposed to me to set the slaves at liberty, but that I would not consent to—they would have massacred every one. I made regular way upon the Emperor Alexander, but who could have expected such a blow as the burning of Moscow? Now, they would lay it on us, but it was in fact themselves who did it. That sacrifice would have done honour to ancient Rome."

He returned to his favourite purpose of checking the Russians, who had just annihilated his grand army, by raising a large body of Polish lancers, to whom, in the present posture of affairs, it would have been difficult to propose any adequate motive for exertion. The fire went out, and the counsellors listened in frozen despair, while, keeping himself warm by walking up and down, and by his own energies, the emperor proceeded with his monologue; now betraying, in spite of himself, feelings and sentiments which he would have concealed, now dwelling upon that which he wished others to believe; often repeating, as the burthen of his harangue, the aphorism concerning the vicinity of the sublime and ludicrous.

His passage through Silesia being mentioned, he answered, in a doubtful tone, "Ha, Prussia!" as if doubting the security of that route. At length, he determined to depart; cut short the respectful wishes for the preservation of his health with the brief assurance, that he "could not be in better health, were the very devil in him;" and threw himself into the humble sledge which carried "Cæsar and his fortunes." The horses sprang forward, nearly overturning the carriage as it crossed the courtyard gate, and disappeared in the darkness. On the 14th of December, he arrived at Dresden; and on the 18th, at midnight, he entered Paris, where the city had been for two days agitated by the circulation of the 29th bulletin, in which the veil, though with a reluctant hand, was raised up to show the disasters of the Russian war.

We now return to the grand army, or rather to the assemblage of those who had once belonged to it, for of an army it had scarcely the appearance left. The presence of the emperor had kept the chiefs in some degree to their duty; but when the fact of his departure became known, many of the officers, unrestrained by shame, abandoned the remains of the regiments committed to their command. Till that time, some armed soldiers, conducted by their officers, still rallied round the standard which they had sworn never to forsake; but from the moment they were deprived of their chiefs, unheard of calamities reduced their numbers. The division Loison, which had arrived from Königsberg, and the Neapolitans from Wilna, having been obliged to encamp in cold twenty-two degrees below the freezing point, were almost annihilated; and out of six thousand men, of which each division was composed, only some feeble battalions remained, who, on their junction with the main army, ran on the road in a state of distraction, or fell down without being able to rise again. Those who could support the fatigue of marching, prolonged their griefs; but if, weary of life, they wished to terminate their existence, it was only necessary to stand still, and the frost would become their executioner. The roads, in every direction, presented at every step, brave officers, covered with rags, supported upon sticks, their hair and beards stiffened by the ice: these warriors, who but a short time before, were the terror of their enemies, and the conquerors of two-thirds of Europe, could now scarcely obtain a look of pity from soldiers whom they had formerly commanded. Misfortune having equalized conditions, every thing was confounded. The colonel who had no food, was obliged to beg from a private soldier. Thus the man who possessed provisions, although he were a servant, was surrounded by a crowd of courtiers, who, to obtain food, threw aside their rank and distinction, and condescended to caress him.

On the 7th, the French army, no longer dignified by the term grand, advanced to Joupranoui, and on the 8th to Ochmiana. The route was still covered with soldiers, so deplorably reduced that the Russians disdained to make them prisoners. Some had lost their sense of hearing, others their speech, and many, by excessive hunger and cold, were reduced to a state of frantic stupidity, which made them roast dead bodies for nourishment, or consume their own hands and arms.* Suffering

had driven many mad, who threw themselves into the fires and perished in the flames; and every day's march presented a repetition of these horrible scenes.

Wilna, which was entered by the French on the 10th, was carried by the Russians on the 11th, and their advance was so rapid, that in the hurry of passing through that city it was neither plundered nor set on fire; this was the more remarkable, as in the whole line of march between Moscow and the Niemen, Wilna was the only town that escaped pillage and devastation. By the capture of Wilna, the ruin and dispersion of the French army were completed; the soldiers, no longer held together by any bond of union, fled in every direction into the forests, and over distant wastes, to escape the sabres and pikes of their enemies, who divided themselves into several columns, which acted simultaneously in different directions. On the 14th, the Russians advanced to Kowno, the place at which the French crossed the Niemen in triumph six months before. But how changed the circumstances of the contending armies!

In Courland, Marshal Macdonald had maintained himself, with the Prussian contingent, and a body of French troops; where, by some unaccountable casualty or omission, he was not apprized of the disastrous condition of the grand army until the 16th of December, when he took immediate steps for abandoning Königsberg and the line of the Niemen. On the 28th of December, Count Wittgenstein, having made a rapid march by cross roads into East Prussia, advanced upon Tilsit, where Macdonald was then stationed. Here, the Russian light cavalry immediately prepared to surround him, while General Diebitch cut off the communication with the Prussian corps under the command of General D'Yorck. On the following day, the Prussian general entered into a negotiation with General Diebitch, and on the 30th a convention was mutually signed, by which it was agreed, that the Prussian force, eighteen thousand strong, including the corps of Massenbach, with sixty pieces of cannon, should retire unmolested into their own dominions. Marshal Macdonald, whose force was, by the defection of General D'Yorck, reduced to six thousand men, was closely pursued by Wittgenstein; on the night of the 1st of January, 1813, his army was still further reduced by the loss of more than eight hundred men, and his whole corps must have been cut off, had not the attention of the Russians been arrested by the approach of the garrison from Dantzic. On the 4th, Memel capitulated, with two Prussian battalions. At the

* Russian Official Report, dated December 2, 1812.

same time, the Austrians retired towards Warsaw, which place they shortly afterwards evacuated, and withdrew into Austrian Galicia, without molestation from the Russians. On the 5th, Colonel Rüdiger was engaged in making the requisite arrangements for investing Königsberg; and at two o'clock in the morning of the 6th, four regiments of Cossacks forced the gates of the city, and completely routed the enemy, making thirteen hundred prisoners. Macdonald had attempted the defence of this fortress with the remains of his corps, consisting of two thousand five hundred men, to whom were added fifteen hundred of the guards, and nearly two thousand refugees from the different corps; but this force being found inadequate, Königsberg was abandoned to its victorious assailants; and the French armies, consisting of small fragments of divisions, in a state of destitution and disorganization, thought only of reaching Dantzic, Marienberg, Marienwerder, Thorn, and other fortified places, which were still garrisoned by French troops.

At the close of the year 1812, the King of Naples arrived at Marienwerder, where he was engaged in collecting together all who remained of the 4th corps of the army. With great exertions, he so far succeeded as to muster eight hundred men, the unfortunate remains of forty-eight thousand warriors from Italy,* who were the victims, less of the arms of the enemy, than of the fatal imprudence of a chief, who, not satisfied with having subjugated the larger portion of Europe, ventured to brave the elements and to invade the deserts of Russia.

On the 12th of January, Marienwerder was surprised by Admiral Tschikakoff, and carried by storm, when the Viceroy of Italy escaped only by the fleetness of his horse. On the following day, the victorious Platoff took Marienberg, and with his Cossacks cleared the whole of the right bank of the Nogat. Such was the terror with which this "contemptible cavalry"† impressed the French fugitives, that at the mere cry of "*Cossacks*," hundreds surrendered; and on the Dantzic road, upwards of eight thousand prisoners, many of them the mere phantoms of men, were taken.

It is extremely difficult to form an estimate of the loss of the French in this dreadful campaign; from the evacuation of Moscow to the abandonment of Königsberg, they left in the hands of the conquerors forty-six generals, more than fifteen hundred officers, and one hundred thou-

sand soldiers; besides thirteen hundred and fifty pieces of cannon.* Of the number of slain, or of those who perished by famine and the rigours of the climate, no return has ever been published; but it is probable, that of nearly four hundred thousand troops, engaged in this frantic expedition, not fifty thousand, including the Prussian and the Austrian contingents, escaped out of Russia. The first general of the age, at the head of one of the finest and best appointed armies that ever took the field, placing in their leader the most unbounded confidence, was seen flying, beaten, disgraced, and bereft of men, baggage, cannon, horses, in a word, of every thing.† No war, ancient or modern, has exhibited such destruction and misery: more indeed have fallen in the course of a campaign, but no army ever perished with such lingering and varied misery. Intoxicated by past successes, Napoleon expected that he had only on this, as on former occasions, to strike deeply into the heart of the invaded country, and that victory would hover round the wings of his eagles. But the constancy of the Russian government, the devoted patriotism of the people, the valour of the Russian army, and above all, the rigours of the season, consummated the ruin of the legions of an ambitious

* Russian Official Accounts.

† Out of 100,000 horses, scarcely one survived; and not one single piece of cannon was carried by the fugitives across the barrier stream.

ITINERARY

Of the Advance and Retreat of the French Army in the Russian Campaign.

Advance.

		Leagues.
June 24, 1812,	crossed the Niemen.	
28, ..	advanced to Wilna.	26
July 12, ..	to Smorghoni.	18
20, ..	to the Beresina.	34
27, ..	to Vitepsk.	32
29, ..	to Sourai.	10
Aug. 19, ..	to Smolensk.	32
27, ..	to Dorogobouï.	28
Sept. 1, ..	to Viasma.	25
5, ..	to Borodino.	30
14, ..	to Moscow.	28
		263

Retreat.

		Leagues.
Oct. 19,	Left Moscow.	
23,	retreated to Borovsk.	18
24, ..	to Malo-Jarselavitz.	14
31, ..	to Ghiat.	29
Nov. 3, ..	to Viasma.	15
15, ..	to Smolensk.	44
16, ..	to Krasnoi.	12
27, ..	to the Beresina.	45
Dec. 2, ..	to Molodetchino.	23
9, ..	to Wilna.	39
13, ..	to Kowno.	26

255

Constituting a route of 518 French leagues; or, 1400 English miles.

* Labaume, himself an officer in the 4th corps.

† Twenty-ninth bulletin.

chief, who, like Sesostris, the oldest conqueror on record, had thus sacrificed in one expedition, of friends and foes, soldiers and peaceable inhabitants, nearly one million of his species. For events at all analogous to these, we must go back to the days of Xerxes, or to the page of sacred history. The presumptuous prophecy of the conqueror of Austerlitz and Friedland, was accomplished; with this difference only, that it was not Alexander, but Napoleon, who was "hurried away by a fatality," and whose "destinies were fulfilled."

The achievements of 1812 elevated the Russian arms to the highest degree of military renown; and the Emperor Alexander, penetrated by those feelings of admiration with which all Europe was impressed, thus addressed the gallant defenders of their country, at the close of the campaign:—

"**SOLDIERS!**—That year is gone! That memorable and glorious year, in which you have levelled with the dust the pride of our insolent invader! That year is gone; but your heroic deeds remain. Time cannot efface their remembrance; they are present with ourselves—they will live in the memory of posterity.

"The deliverance of your country from a host of confederate powers, leagued against her very

existence, has been purchased by your blood. You have acquired a right to the gratitude of Russia, and to the veneration of foreign realms. You have proved to mankind, by your fidelity, your valour, and your perseverance, that against hearts filled with love to God, and loyalty to their sovereign, the efforts of the most formidable enemy are but as the furious waves of the sea breaking upon an immovable rock; after all the tumults, they leave but the confused sound of their own overthrow.

"Soldiers! Eager to distinguish by some peculiar mark all who have participated in these immortal exploits, we have caused silver medals to be struck, and to receive the benediction of our Holy Church. They bear the date of the memorable year 1812! Suspended to a blue ribbon, they will decorate those manly breasts which have been the bucklers of their country. Each individual of the Russian army is worthy to wear these honourable testimonies, the reward of valour and of constancy.

"You have all shared the same hardships and the same dangers. You have all had but one soul. This ennobling conviction should make you proud of these equal military honours. They will everywhere proclaim you—faithful sons of Russia! Sons, upon whom God the Father bestows his paternal blessing.

"May your enemies ever tremble, when they behold these insignia! May they know that beneath this medal glows an imperishable valour! Imperishable, because it is not founded upon ambition or impiety, but on the immutable bases of patriotism and religion!

(Signed)

"ALEXANDER."

CHAPTER XX.

BARRISSE HISTORY: Observations on the declining Power of France—Meeting of Parliament—Parliamentary Pledge to support the Government in the War with America—Sir Samuel Romilly's continued Exertions to ameliorate the Criminal Code—Motion of Sir Francis Burdett to provide against any Interruption in the Exercise of the Royal Functions—Case of the Princess of Wales stated—Her Appeal to the House of Commons through the Medium of the Speaker—Complete Justification of her Honour and Character, followed by Expressions of National Sympathy towards her Royal Highness—The Views of the Friends of Catholic Emancipation developed in a Bill brought into Parliament by Mr. Grattan—Failure of that Measure—The Benefits of the Toleration Act extended to Unitarians—New Measure of Finance—Taxes—Stipendiary Curates' Bill—Important Appeal Cause regarding Scottish Marriages—Renewal of the East India Company's Charter with certain Modifications.

Among the striking examples of vicissitude in human affairs presented by history, it would be difficult to produce any more extraordinary in its circumstances, or more important in its effects, than that exhibited in the year 1813. The preceding year, indeed, which witnessed the discomfiture of a mighty attempt to ruin one empire by the accumulated force of another, followed by prodigious loss to the assailing power, closed with a prospect of great changes in the relative state of Europe; but the extent to which these changes actually proceeded, could scarcely have been contemplated by the most sagacious or sanguine political speculators. That the wide and unlimited schemes of ambition, by which the French emperor was urged to annex

remote provinces to his overgrown dominions, and to trample upon the rights of other states, must, at no remote period, be crushed by their own vastness, might have been predicted from the undeviating course of events in the records of mankind; but that the wheel of fortune should revolve with so much rapidity, was a thing not to have been foreseen. In 1812, France led against Russia, along with her native and associated troops, the contingents of her allies, Austria, Prussia, Saxony, Bavaria, and the Rhenish confederates. In 1813, all these powers, Saxony alone excepted, were leagued against her, and, in conjunction with Russia, displayed hostile banners upon French ground on one frontier; while another frontier, protected by the

strong barrier of the Pyrenees, was forced by the combined army of England and her peninsular allies. Well, might the astonished author of these reverses, in the frankness of emotion, exclaim: "All Europe was with us a year ago: all Europe is now against us." He did not, however, yield to the adverse storm, without exertions worthy of his former fame. He fell indeed, but it was the fall of a giant. The annihilation of one mighty host, was speedily followed by the creation of another, equal apparently in strength and appointment; and the tide of war had its flux and reflux, subordinate to the grand movement which swept away the colossal superstructure.

The domestic history of the year exhibits a remarkable state of tranquillity; partly from the improved prospects with regard to trade and manufacture, and partly from the cheering influence of a bountiful harvest. In parliament, the great events on the continent holding every one in a state of expectation, and inducing almost a universal acquiescence in the expediency of the vigorous prosecution of the war; opposition became dormant; and unprecedented sums of money were voted for subsidies and other military purposes, with scarcely a dissentient voice. The ministry, strengthened only by the influence of prosperity, remained firm in their seats. Public credit stood high, and heavy loans were negotiated without difficulty. Peace, at all times desirable, was little insisted upon, it being the general impression that it must be conquered to be enjoyed.

The new parliament assembled on Tuesday, the 24th of November, 1812; and the Right Honourable Charles Abbot, who, during four successive parliaments, had presided over the proceedings of the house of commons, with distinguished dignity and undeviating impartiality, was again called to the chair of that assembly by unanimous consent. On the 30th, the session of parliament was opened in form, on which day, his royal highness the prince-regent, attended by the great officers of state, repaired to the house of peers, and, having ascended the throne, commenced his speech by expressing the deepest concern at the continuance of his majesty's lamented indisposition, and the diminished hopes of his ultimate recovery. His royal highness next adverted to the successes in the peninsula under Lord Wellington, and expressed his confident reliance on the determination of parliament to continue to afford every aid that might be necessary in support of the important contest, which had given to Europe the example of persevering and successful resistance to the

power of France. The restoration of peace and friendship between this country, and the courts of St. Petersburg and Stockholm, was next announced by his royal highness, who spoke in the highest terms of admiration of the resistance made by Russia to the arms of her invaders. His royal highness then informed parliament that a supplementary treaty had been entered into with his Sicilian majesty, and new measures concerted for the active co-operation of that island in the common cause. With regard to the declaration of war by the United States of America, he observed, that it was made under circumstances which might have afforded a reasonable expectation, that the amicable relations between the two countries would not be long interrupted; but the conduct and pretensions of the American government had hitherto prevented the conclusion of any pacific arrangement. In conclusion, the speech recommended an early consideration of a provision for the effectual government of the provinces of India, in consequence of the approaching expiration of the charter of the East India Company; it adverted to the success of the means employed for suppressing the spirit of outrage and insubordination which had appeared in some parts of this country; expressed a hope that atrocities so repugnant to the British character would never recur; and closed with the usual declaration of confidence in the wisdom of parliament, and in the loyalty of the people.

The usual complimentary address on the speech from the throne, was moved in the house of peers by Lord Longford, seconded by Lord Rolle; and in the commons by Lord Clive, seconded by Mr. Hart Davis, and carried in both houses without a division.

One of the first acts of the new parliament was to grant a sum not exceeding two hundred thousand pounds, for the relief of such parts of the inhabitants of the empire of Russia as had suffered "in their persons and property, in consequence of the unprovoked and atrocious invasion of that country by the ruler of France."*

On the meeting of parliament after the Christmas recess, the papers relative to the discussions with America, together with the declaration of the prince-regent relative to the causes and origin of the war with that country,† were produced by his majesty's ministers. These documents, which gave rise to very animated debates, called from both houses addresses

* Message of the prince-regent, presented to parliament December 17, 1812.

† See chap. xvii. page 204.

to his royal highness the prince-regent, assuring him, "that while parliament deeply regretted the failure of his royal highness to preserve the relations of peace and amity between this country and the United States, they entirely approved of the resistance which had been opposed to the unjustifiable pretensions of the American government; that, impressed with these sentiments, and fully convinced of the justice of the war in which his majesty's government had been compelled to engage, his royal highness might rely upon their most zealous and cordial support in every measure necessary for prosecuting the war with vigour, and for bringing the contest to a safe and honourable termination." This address, which was moved in the house of commons by Lord Castlereagh, and in the lords by Earl Bathurst, was carried in both those assemblies without a division.

Sir Samuel Romilly, with that perseverance in his endeavours to ameliorate the criminal law of the country, which has conferred upon this enlightened statesman so much honour, introduced into the house of commons, on the 17th of February, a bill, which had twice passed that assembly, but had on both occasions been rejected by the upper house of parliament. This was a bill for the purpose of repealing the act of the 10th and 11th of King William, which made it a capital offence to steal property to the amount of five shillings, privately in a dwelling-house, shop, or ware-house. The principle upon which he founded this bill, was, he said, precisely the same as that which he had before stated—namely, the inexpediency of suffering penal laws to exist, which are not intended to be executed. A demonstration of which was to be found in the returns of the criminal court of London and Middlesex during the years 1805, 6, 7, 8, and 9; from which it appeared that the number of persons committed for offences of this nature amounted to one hundred and eighty-eight, of whom only eighteen had been convicted, and not one executed. This was a pretty strong proof that the law had become obsolete, and that there was no intention to enforce its execution. The consequence was, that where some punishment was deserved, none was inflicted, and owing to the undue severity of the law, the offender escaped with impunity.*

* On this subject, Mr. Burke has well observed—"The question is, whether in a well-constituted commonwealth, it is wise to retain laws not put in force? A penal law not ordinarily executed, must be deficient in justice or wisdom, or both. But we are told that we must trust to the operation of manners to relax the law; on the con-

The next bill that he proposed to introduce, related to a part of the punishment for the crime of high-treason, which was not at present carried into execution. The sentence for that crime, as the law now stood, was, that the criminal should be dragged upon a hurdle to the place of execution; that he should be hanged by the neck, but cut down before he was dead; and that his bowels should be then taken out and burned before his face.* As to that part of the sentence which related to embowelling, it was never executed now; but this omission was owing to accident, or to the mercy of the executioner, not to the discretion of the judge.

These bills, with a third, to take away the corruption of blood as a consequence of attainder of high-treason, or felony, were allowed to be brought in, and the first passed through the house of commons, but was thrown out by the peers. The other two bills were both lost in the lower house of parliament.

On the 23d of February, a subject was brought forward in the house of commons by Sir Francis Burdett, which, if not of present political importance, touched upon a curious and interesting point of the constitution, and appears to have made a more serious impression than was at first expected. The honourable baronet, in his introductory speech, said, that it appeared to him that violent encroachments had been made on the true principles of the constitution, by those measures which had been adopted in consequence of the unfortunate malady of his majesty. The first of these was in 1788, when it had been determined that the heir-apparent to the crown had no more right to the government of the nation than any other subject. The steps taken at this period were justified on the plea of necessity; but in his opinion there were two principles which governed the whole of this question: 1st, That the powers and prerogatives annexed by the common law to the crown, descend by hereditary succession, and not by election: 2d, That its powers are never suspended; † for if the functions of royalty were for any time to cease, one of the three branches of the constitution would be abrogated, and a dissolution of legal government would ensue. Both these principles, he thought, were

contrary, the law ought to be always in unison with the manners, and corroborative of them, otherwise the effect of both will be lessened. Our passions ought not to be right, and our reason, of which law is the organ, wrong."

* Harrison, one of the regicides executed in the reign of Charles II., held a conversation with his executioner after his bowels were taken out.

† On the principle of "The king is dead—long live the king."

unnecessarily and unwarrantably departed from at the period referred to. In 1810, this mischievous precedent was followed; the usurpation was renewed, and a fiction was resorted to, creating a phantom of royalty, in order to elect and appoint an executive magistrate. As a further usurpation of power, restrictions were placed upon the person selected to possess some of the prerogatives of the crown, all of which were bestowed by the law for the benefit of the people. His object was, to prevent on future occasions this lawless assumption of authority, and to destroy that pretence of necessity, which in fact never existed, because many legal remedies remained. He did not mean to tie down the house to any distinct proposition, but simply to provide against any interruption in the exercise of the royal authority in the event of the death of the prince-regent during the continuance of his majesty's malady; he, however, did not hesitate to state, that in his view, it would be right to give to the regent powers as uncontrolled as those belonging to the king himself. Further, he should propose that the powers now exercised by the prince-regent, should, in case of the death or disability of his royal highness, be exercised by the heir to the crown, the Princess Charlotte of Wales. He concluded with moving, "that leave be given to bring in a bill to provide against any interruption of the exercise of the royal authority, in the event of the death of his royal highness the prince-regent, during the continuance of his majesty's malady."

It was contended, in opposition to this motion, that the consideration of such a topic was at present unnecessary, and that it might safely be left to the two houses of parliament to provide for such cases when they should occur. As to the right in the heir of the crown to exercise the royal authority in the event of an interruption of the regal functions, that was a question which might now be considered as at rest, since no doubts had been raised concerning it during the progress of the last regency bill.* It appeared, that the honourable baronet's object was to destroy the discretionary power of parliament upon the subject, and that he preferred the determination of the question on the hereditary principle. Whichever way it was determined, there was a balance of inconveniences; but the reason why it was better that it should rest in the discretion of parliament, was, that this body felt it to be its first duty to take care that the royal

power should be returned undiminished into the hands of its legitimate possessor, as soon as the incapacity of exercising it was removed; whereas upon the hereditary principle, the royal power being immediately and fully transferred to the regent, there was not the same security for its resumption.* In reply to these objections, it was urged, that there was only one life between us and the recurrence of former difficulties, and that the most proper time for a parliamentary arrangement on a great constitutional subject of this nature, was such a time as the present, when party heats were so much allayed, and when there was no danger of reviving the animosities to which former discussions had given birth.† On a division of the house, there appeared for the motion seventy-three, against it two hundred and thirty-eight voices.

During the present year, no subject of a domestic nature fixed upon the public mind, with so much force, as the discords and alienation which had for years subsisted between the prince-regent and his illustrious consort. The original cause of these dissensions it is difficult, perhaps impossible, to trace, except to the vague and unsatisfactory source of incompatibility of inclinations; but that they originated at a period so early as the first year of the residence of the Princess of Wales in this country, and that they were of such a nature as almost to dissolve the marriage contract, is clear from a correspondence which took place between those illustrious personages in the year 1796. The marriage of the Prince and Princess of Wales was solemnized on the 8th of April, 1795; the date of the birth of their only child was the 7th of January following; and in the month of April, in the same year, a message from the prince was conveyed to the Princess of Wales, through the medium of Lord Cholmondeley, informing her that the intercourse between herself and the prince was in future to be of the most restrictive nature—in fact, that a separation as to all conjugal relations was, from that time, and for ever, to take place. In this arrangement, the princess expressed her acquiescence, but she considered the subject of too important a nature to rest merely on verbal communication, and in compliance with her request, the pleasure of his royal highness was communicated to her in writing.‡

In the year 1805, while the Prince and Princess of Wales were living in a state

* Lord Castlereagh.

† Mr. Brand and Mr. Whitbread.

‡ Letter of the Prince to the Princess of Wales, dated April 30 1796.

of separation, the Duke of Sussex informed the prince, that Sir John Douglas had made known to him some circumstances respecting the behaviour of the Princess of Wales, which, in the opinion of the duke, it was of the highest importance the prince should hear, as they might, if true, not only affect the honour and peace of mind of his royal highness, but also the succession to the throne. Sir John and Lady Douglas, having made a formal declaration of the charges they thought proper to advance against the Princess of Wales, this declaration was submitted by the prince to Lord Thurlow, who gave it as his opinion that his royal highness had no alternative but to submit the matter to the king. In consequence of this opinion, and some further examinations which took place, the declarations of William and Sarah Lampert, servants to Sir John Douglas; William Cole, Robert and Sarah Bidgood, Francis Lloyd, and Sir John and Lady Douglas; were laid before his majesty; who thereupon issued a warrant, dated the 29th of May, 1806, directing and authorizing Lord Erskine, as lord chancellor; Lord Grenville, as first lord of the treasury; Earl Spencer, as one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state; and Lord Ellenborough, as chief justice of the court of king's bench; to inquire "into the truth of the said allegations, and to report to him thereon."

The commissioners so appointed first examined on oath the principal informants, Sir John Douglas, and Charlotte his wife; who both positively swore, the former, to his having observed the fact of the pregnancy of her royal highness; and the latter, not only that she had observed it, but that her royal highness had made not the least scruple of talking about it with her, and describing the stratagems she meant to resort to, in order to avoid detection. It was further deposed by Lady Douglas, that in the course of the year 1802, the princess was secretly delivered of a female child, which had been brought up in her own house; and under her own inspection! On this part of the inquiry, the commissioners, in their report to his majesty, declared, that there is no foundation whatever for believing that the child now living with the princess, is the child of her royal highness, or that she was delivered of any child in the year 1802; nor had anything appeared to them that could warrant the belief that she was pregnant in that year, or at any other period within the compass of their inquiries. That child was, beyond all doubt, born in the Brownlow-Street Hospital, on the 11th day of July, 1802, of the body of Sophia Austin,

and was first brought to the princess's house in the month of November following.

But the commissioners did not feel themselves at liberty to close their report here. Besides the allegation of the pregnancy and delivery of the princess, those declarations, on the whole of which his majesty had been pleased to command them to inquire and report, contained other particulars respecting the conduct of her royal highness, such as must necessarily give occasion to very unfavourable impressions. From the various depositions and proofs annexed to this report, particularly from the examination of Robert Bidgood, William Cole, Francis Lloyd, and Mrs. Lisle,* "it would," the commissioners said, "be perceived, that several strong circumstances of this description, had been positively sworn to by witnesses, who could not, in their judgment, be suspected of any unfavourable bias, and whose veracity, in this respect, they had no ground to question; it appears, therefore," continued the commissioners, "that as, on the one hand, the facts of pregnancy and delivery are, to our minds, satisfactorily disproved; so, on the other, we think, that the circumstances to which we now refer, particularly those stated to have passed between her royal highness and Captain Manby, must be credited, until they shall receive some decisive contradiction; and if true, are justly entitled to the most serious consideration."†

Immediately on the receipt of a copy of this report, the Princess of Wales addressed a letter to his majesty on the subject; in which, in the face of the Almighty, she assured his majesty, not only of her innocence as to the weightier parts of the charge preferred against her by her enemies, but of her freedom from all the indecours and improprieties which had been imputed to her by the lords commissioners upon the evidence of persons who

* In the depositions of Bidgood and Cole it was stated, that certain levities, of a nature unbecoming her rank and station, and incompatible with the character of a virtuous woman, had been practised by the Princess of Wales, in the years 1802-3; and that Sir Sydney Smith, Mr. Lawrence, the portrait painter, and Captain Manby, of the ship *Africaine*, had been admitted to her house on a footing that warranted suspicion of criminal intercourse. Francis Lloyd spoke less distinctly to the same fact; and Mrs. Lisle, a lady of the princess's household, whose evidence was principally relied upon, deposed, that the behaviour of the princess towards Captain Manby, who often visited at Montague-house, was a flirting conduct, and such as, in the witness's opinion, did not become a married woman.

† Report of the Lords Commissioners, dated July 14, 1806.

spoke as falsely as Sir John and Lady Douglas themselves.*

On the 17th of August, she again wrote to the king, having in the mean time consulted with her legal advisers, requesting that she might have authenticated copies of the report, and of the declarations and depositions on which it proceeded, a request with which his majesty was graciously pleased to comply.

Having received these papers, the Princess of Wales submitted them to her legal advisers, the principal of whom were Lord Eldon, Mr. Perceval, and Sir Thomas Plumer; and on the 2d of October she transmitted to his majesty an elaborate letter, containing her observations on the charges against her, and the evidence on which they rested. This letter is drawn up with uncommon ability; and while it displays a considerable portion of acuteness and penetration, such as might have been expected from the legal experience and talents of her council, contains many passages distinguished by that dignified solemnity and pathetic tone of remonstrance and feeling, which could have proceeded only from the person most interested in the subject.

After stating that the extravagance of the malice of Sir John and Lady Douglas had defeated itself, she says that there still remained imputations "strongly sanctioned and countenanced by the report," respecting which she could not remain silent, without incurring the most fatal consequences to her honour and character. Against the substance of the proceeding itself, and the manner in which it was conducted, she considered herself bound to protest. The report proceeded upon *ex parte* examination, without affording her an opportunity of explaining or defending her conduct, or without the lords commissioners even hearing one word which she should urge in her own defence. For more than two years, she had been informed, her conduct had been made the subject of investigation; but the cause of this she did not learn till the investigation had actually taken place, and then she found that the charge against her was high-treason, committed in the infamous crime of adultery.

Her royal highness dwells with great force of argument on the extreme improbability of Lady Douglas's accusation respecting her pregnancy. But as the commissioners most unequivocally and decidedly acquit her of that charge, she proceeds to examine the evidence of those witnesses, who, in the opinion of the commis-

sioners, were particularly deserving of credit, namely, W. Cole, R. Bidgood, F. Lloyd, and Mrs. Lisle. Having replied to the evidence of Cole, Bidgood, and Lloyd, who had lived with his royal highness the Prince of Wales before he married, and were appointed by him to stations about her royal highness, and shown, to the conviction of every unprejudiced mind, that their testimony was either false in fact or erroneous in conclusion, she proceeds to observe upon the evidence of Mrs. Lisle. What is exactly meant by flirting conduct, "it is difficult," says the princess, "with any precision to ascertain. How many women are there, most virtuous, most truly modest, incapable of any thing impure, vicious, or immoral, in deed or thought, who, from greater vivacity of spirits, from less natural reserve, from the want of caution, which the very consciousness of innocence betrays into, conduct themselves in a manner which a woman of a graver character, of more reserved disposition, but not with one particle of superior virtue, thinks too incautious, too unreserved, too familiar; and which, if forced upon her oath to give her opinion upon it, she might feel herself, as an honest woman, bound to say, in that opinion, was flirting."

The other allegations of the different witnesses, are all then examined in their order, and rebutted with success; and the Princess of Wales, in concluding her letter to the king, thus expresses herself. "Oh! sire, to be unfortunate, and scarcely to feel at liberty to lament; to be cruelly used, and to feel it almost an offence and a duty to be silent—is a hard lot; but use has in some degree injured me to it. Before my spirit had been yet all lowered by my misfortunes, I should have been disposed to meet such a charge with the contempt, which, I trust, by this time, your majesty thinks due to it; I should have been disposed to defy my enemies to the utmost; and to scorn to answer any thing but a legal charge, before a competent tribunal; but in my present misfortunes such force of mind is gone. I ought, perhaps, so far to be thankful to them for their wholesome lessons of humility. I have, therefore, entered into this long detail, to endeavour to remove, at the first possible opportunity, any unfavourable impressions; to rescue myself from the dangers which the continuance of these suspicions might occasion, and to preserve to me your majesty's good opinion, in whose kindness, hitherto, I have found infinite consolation, and to whose justice, under all circumstances, I can confidently appeal. . . . At all events, I trust your majesty will restore me to the blessing of

* Letter of the Princess of Wales to the king, dated August 12, 1806.

your gracious presence, and confirm to me, by your own gracious words, your satisfactory conviction of my innocence.”

Nine weeks having elapsed after this letter was sent to his majesty without any reply, the princess again wrote, expressing her anxiety and her wish to learn whether she might be admitted to the royal presence.* In reply to which, her royal highness was informed, that her vindication had been referred to his majesty's confidential servants, who had given it as their opinion, “that it was no longer necessary for his majesty to decline receiving the princess into his royal presence;” but at the same time, “his majesty could not forbear to express, in the conclusion of the business, his desire and expectation, that such a conduct might be in future observed by the princess, as may fully justify those marks of paternal regard and affection, which the king always wishes to show to every part of his royal family.”†

The Princess of Wales no sooner received this communication, than she named a day, on which, if agreeable to his majesty, she would have the happiness to throw herself in filial duty and affection at his majesty's feet. The day, however, was at first postponed by his majesty, who afterwards informed the princess, that at the request of the Prince of Wales, he declined to see her until her vindication had been examined by the lawyers of the prince, and until the prince had been enabled to submit the statement which he proposed to make thereon.

The princess remonstrated in strong terms against the unparalleled injustice and cruelty of this interposition of the Prince of Wales, at such a time, and under such circumstances; and trusted that his majesty would recall his determination not to see her till the prince's answer respecting her vindication was received. She particularly dwelt on the circumstance, that the judgment of his majesty's confidential servants was appealed from by the prince, whom, from this time, she must consider as assuming the character of her accuser. If the prince were allowed to interfere once, he might interfere again, so as to prevent for ever the arrival of that hour which was to prove to the world the innocence of her royal highness. Reverting again to the nature of the evidence, her royal highness says,—“There may have been circumstances, manifesting a degree of condescension and familiarity in my be-

haviour and conduct, which, in the opinion of many, may be considered as not sufficiently guarded, dignified, and reserved. Circumstances, however, which my foreign education, and foreign habits, misled me to think, in the humble and retired situation in which it was my fate to live, and where I had no relation, no equal, no friend to advise me, were wholly free from offence. But when they have been dragged forward from the scenes of private life, in a grave proceeding, on a charge of high-treason and adultery, they seem to derive a colour and character from the nature of the charge which they are brought forward to support; and I cannot but believe that they have been used for no other purpose than to afford a cover to screen from view the injustice of that charge; that they have been taken advantage of, to let down my accusers more gently, and to deprive me of that full acquittal on the report of the four lords, which my innocence of all offence most justly entitled me to receive. Whatever opinion, however, may be formed of any part of my conduct, it must, in justice, be formed with reference to the situation in which I am placed; if I am judged of as Princess of Wales, with reference to the high rank of that station, I must be judged as Princess of Wales, banished from the prince, unprotected by the support and the countenance which belong to that station; and if I am judged of in my private character, as a married woman, I must be judged of as a wife banished from her husband, and living in a widowed seclusion from him, and retirement from the world.”*

After a lapse of three weeks, during which time it does not appear that any reply, either private or official, was made to the letter of the princess, her royal highness informed his majesty, that having received no command to wait upon his majesty, and no intimation of his pleasure, she was reduced to the necessity, in vindication of her character, to resort to the publication of the proceedings upon the inquiry into her conduct, and that the publication alluded to would not be withheld beyond the following Monday. To avoid coming to this painful extremity, she had taken every step in her power, except that which would be abandoning her character to utter infamy, and her station in life to no uncertain danger, and possibly to no very distant destruction.†

* Letter to the king, dated from Montague-house, Feb. 16, 1807.

* Letter to the king, dated Montague-house, December 8, 1806.

† Letter of the king to the Princess of Wales, dated January 28, 1807.

† All the principal documents connected with this subject, comprehending the report of the lords commissioners, the letters of the Princess of

This letter was dated the 5th of March, within two days of which time a resolution was taken to call Mr. Perceval and his friends to his majesty's councils. As soon as the ministerial arrangements could be completed, a minute of council was made dated April 22, 1807, wherein it was humbly submitted to his majesty, "that it was essentially necessary, in justice to her royal highness the Princess of Wales, and for the honour and interest of his majesty's illustrious family, that her royal highness should be admitted, with as little delay as possible, into his majesty's presence; and that she should be received in a manner due to her rank and station, in his majesty's court and family."

Notwithstanding this advice, it does not appear that the Princess of Wales was ever restored to complete favour, either at court or in the royal family; and to aggravate the difficulty and embarrassment of her situation, her intercourse with her daughter became subject to great restraint. Nothing, however, occurred, that is publicly and officially known, till the month of January, 1813. At this time the princess was so much debarred from the society of her daughter, that she determined to write to the prince-regent on the subject; but to her surprise, though her former friends now held the office of ministers, she found great difficulty in getting her letter conveyed to the prince, and though it was transmitted to ministers on the 14th, it was not till the 23d that it was read to his royal highness. In this letter, she dwelt with great force upon the injustice of widening the separation between mother and daughter, which she considered as not only cutting her off from one of the few domestic enjoyments which she still retained, but as giving countenance to those calumnious reports which had been proved to be totally unfounded. "That her love for her mother, with whom, by his majesty's wise and gracious arrangements, she passed the years of her infancy and childhood, never can be extinguished, I well know," says the princess, "and the knowledge of it forms the greatest blessing of my existence. But let me implore your royal highness to reflect, how inevitably all attempts to abate her attachment by forcibly separating us,

Wales to his majesty, and the depositions, both criminatory and exculpatory, had already been printed under the superintendence of Mr. Perceval, in a volume quaintly styled "The Book." This instrument, dexterously wielded, contributed to place Mr. Perceval and his friends in the cabinet, and was generally supposed to have had its influence in enabling them to retain their situations after the appointment of the regency government.

if they succeed, must injure my child's principles—if they fail, must destroy her happiness."

In consequence of this letter, which, soon after it was sent, appeared in one of the daily journals, the prince-regent thought proper to direct, that the letter of the Princess of Wales, and the whole of the documents relating to the investigation of 1806, (inappropriately called the "delicate investigation,") should be referred to the members of his majesty's privy council, for their consideration, and that they should report to his royal highness their "opinion, whether, under all the circumstances of the case, it was fit and proper that the intercourse between the Princess of Wales and her daughter, the Princess Charlotte, should continue to be subject to regulations and restriction." In virtue of this appointment, the members of the privy council assembled on the 23d of February, when they reported to the prince-regent, that, in their opinion, "it was highly fit and proper, that the intercourse between her royal highness the Princess of Wales, and her royal highness the Princess Charlotte, should continue to be subject to regulation and restraint."

The Princess of Wales now felt herself imperiously called upon to take some public and decisive step for the protection of her own honour and character. Accordingly, on the 1st of March, her royal highness addressed a letter to the speaker of the house of commons, in which she complains that the tendency of this report, a copy of which had been transmitted to her by Lord Sidmouth, was to cast aspersions upon her honour and character. Thus assailed by a secret tribunal, before which she could not be heard in her own defence, she was compelled to throw herself upon the house and upon the justice of parliament, and to require that the fullest investigation might be instituted into the whole of her conduct during her residence in this country. "The Princess of Wales," adds the letter to the speaker, "fears no scrutiny, however strict, provided she is tried by impartial judges, known to the constitution, and in the fair and open manner the law of the land requires. Her only desire is, that she may be either declared to be innocent, or proved to be guilty."

On the 5th of March, Mr. C. Johnstone, after avowing that he had had no concert with, or authority from the Princess of Wales, submitted to the house of commons a motion for an address to the prince-regent, requesting him to order that a copy of the report made to his majesty on the 14th of July, 1806, by the Lord Chancellor Erskine, Lord Grenville, and

Lora Ellenborough, touching the conduct of her royal highness the Princess of Wales, be laid before the house with a view to an inquiry, now, while the witnesses on both sides were still living, into all the allegations, facts, and circumstances, appertaining to that investigation; a proceeding, which, in his opinion, was due to the honour of her royal highness the Princess of Wales, the safety of the throne, and the tranquillity of the country.

Lord Castlereagh, in opposing the motion, said, the house could not suppose that the papers called for by the honourable mover, were at all necessary to remove any apprehension as to the successor to the throne of these kingdoms. The innocence of the Princess of Wales of the charge brought against her by Lady Douglas, had been completely established on the report of the members of two successive administrations; and if a prosecution had not been instituted against her accusers, it did not arise from any doubt in the minds of the law officers, as to the punishment that would be brought down upon the degraded and guilty heads of Sir John and Lady Douglas, but from a wish to avoid bringing such subjects before the public.

It was asserted, on the other hand, that if the motion went off, and nothing was said on the subject of the letter of the Princess of Wales to the speaker, the house would not do justice towards her royal highness. All that had been said by the honourable mover of this measure, and much more, had been said by Lord Eldon, Mr. Perceval, and Sir Thomas Plumer, who were in fact the authors of the letter written by the Princess of Wales to the king, in 1806; and yet the members of the present cabinet, Lord Castlereagh and Lord Eldon being of the number, bring forward this very proceeding of 1806, which had been so strongly condemned, and so completely exploded, by themselves and their friends, and upon such a ground proceed to an investigation in 1813. It was due to the memory of Mr. Perceval, to state, that to his dying day, he always publicly proclaimed the innocence of the princess; but as to her surviving friends of 1806-7, they were now the prince-regent's ministers, and they were now mute—mute of malice. Was her royal highness not entitled to the common courtesy belonging to her sex? Had she attempted more than had been done in the brutal reign of Henry VIII. by the unfortunate Anne Bullen, who, like the princess, asked to be declared innocent, or proved guilty? The report of 1807

not only acquitted her royal highness, but went further, and advised his majesty to receive her, with as little delay as possible, in a manner due to her rank and station, in his majesty's court and in his family. With such a document in existence, why was it necessary now to ransack the evidence of 1806, and to rake together the documents of that period, to found a report upon what regulations were necessary to govern the intercourse between the princess and her daughter? All proceedings like these contributed to pull down royalty. The regent ought not to lay the flattering unction to his soul, and think his conduct would beaghim harmless through all these transactions; no man could have a sister in the situation the princess was placed in, without saying she was extremely ill treated.* The most complete defiance on the part of the Princess of Wales had been thrown out, in the presence of those persons who had the fullest opportunity of inquiry, and whose duty it was to inquire into every part of her conduct—who have the means of searching her very heart. So completely did she now appear acquitted of all possible imputation or blame, even by the persons from whom the aspersions were, by the world, supposed, in the last report, to have been thrown upon her, that it was now unnecessary to press the matter to a division. Her innocence was acknowledged, entire—complete. To such restrictions as the prince-regent, in his capacity of father of the Princess Charlotte, or by the advice of his ministers, might think proper to impose upon her intercourse with her daughter, she must submit. It was her lot. But she had the satisfaction of knowing that her reputation henceforward was, by the confession of all, without imputation or reproach.† The words and meaning of the cabinet report in 1807, conveyed a complete, satisfactory, and unlimited acquittal.‡

This subject, which was terminated in the house of commons in a manner so favourable to the honour and character of the Princess of Wales, was calculated to excite a deep and general interest; and perhaps there scarcely ever was a subject on which the nation was so nearly agreed. Even those who believed that the conduct of her royal highness had not been perfectly free from blame, were decidedly of opinion that she had been most unfairly and harshly treated, not only in the original report, but in almost all the subsequent stages of the proceedings; while the great majority, who had not a doubt

* Mr. Whitbread.

* Mr. Stuart Wortley. † Mr. Whitbread
‡ Mr. Canning.

of her complete innocence, was disposed to consider her as the intended victim of a flagitious and profligate conspiracy. In a very short time, nothing was talked of but the hardships of her case; and as the British nation is never slow to commiserate the cause of the afflicted, and to support the persecuted, the Princess of Wales, more particularly as a female—a deserted wife—and the mother of the future sovereign of these realms, obtained a liberal portion of British sympathy and support. As soon as her innocence was proclaimed, even by the ministers of the prince-regent, to be completely established, addresses of congratulation poured in upon her from all quarters of the kingdom; and if popular favour could have supplied the place of domestic happiness, the wounds which had so long been inflicted upon her lacerated feelings, would have been healed.

At the close of the parliamentary session in the summer of the last year, the house of commons, by a majority of more than two to one, had agreed to a resolution for taking into consideration the affairs of the Catholics of Ireland early in the next session; while the house of lords had rejected a motion for a similar resolution, by a majority of only one voice. From that period, great activity had been displayed by both parties in promoting their respective views; and the tables of both houses of parliament were, soon after the commencement of the session, crowded with petitions on the subject. The tenor of the great majority of these petitions was unfavourable to the Catholic claims; and it soon became manifest that the friends of emancipation would have to encounter a formidable resistance.

After some preliminary proceedings, Mr. Grattan, on the 30th of April, presented to the house his bill “to provide for the removal of the civil and military disqualifications under which his majesty’s Roman Catholic subjects now labour,” and the second reading of the bill was fixed for the 11th of May. This bill was of considerable length, but its most important provisions are contained in the following abridgment:—

After a preamble, declaring the inviolable establishment of the Protestant succession to the crown, and the Protestant national churches of England, Ireland, and Scotland, and the expediency of communicating to his majesty’s Roman Catholic subjects the blessings of our free constitution, in order to put an end to all religious jealousies, and unite all the inhabitants of these islands in defence of their common liberties and government, the bill provides, that it shall be lawful for persons professing the Roman Catholic religion to sit and vote in either house of parliament, upon taking a declaration and oath, instead of the oaths of allegiance, abjuration, and supre-

macy, and the declarations against transubstantiation and the invocation of saints. The oath, which is of great length, contains a promise of allegiance to the king; of supporting the Protestant succession to the crown; a renunciation of belief in the temporal jurisdiction of the pope, or any foreign potentate in these kingdoms, and of the validity of excommunication by the pope, or council, to depose princes; a declaration that no act in itself immoral can be justified on pretence that it is for the good of the church, or in obedience to any ecclesiastical power; and that no sin can be forgiven at the will of the pope, or any priest, without sincere repentance; a declaration that the infallibility of the pope is not an article of the Roman Catholic church; a disavowal of any intention to subvert or disturb the present church establishment; and a promise to make known all conspiracies, &c. for such a purpose; and, finally an attestation that this oath is taken in the plain sense of the words, without equivocation or reservation, and that no power or authority can dispense with or annul it.

It is further enacted, that on taking the above oath and declaration, it shall be lawful for Roman Catholics to vote for members of parliament when duly qualified; also to hold and exercise all civil and military offices, or places of trust or profit, with the following exceptions, namely, the offices of lord high chancellor, lord keeper or lord commissioner of the great seal of Great Britain, or lord-lieutenant, lord-deputy, or other chief governor or governors of Ireland; also to be a member of any lay body corporate, and to hold any civil office or place of trust therein. A proviso is subjoined, that nothing in this act shall extend to the repeal of any laws in force for establishing the uniformity of public worship in the episcopal church of England and Ireland; or to make any change in the ecclesiastical judicature of the realm; or to enable a Roman Catholic to present to any ecclesiastical benefice whatsoever; or to make it lawful for him to advise the crown as to the disposal of any preferment in the Protestant churches of England, Ireland, or Scotland.

It is further enacted, that every person now exercising, or who shall hereafter exercise, any spiritual function belonging to the Roman Catholic religion, besides the oath and declaration above mentioned, shall take a specified oath, the tenor of which is, that the person will never consent to the appointment of any bishop or vicar-apostolic, but such as he shall deem to be of unimpeachable loyalty and peaceable conduct; that he will have no correspondence or communication with the Pope or See of Rome, or with any tribunal established by their authority, or with any person authorized by them, tending to disturb the established Protestant churches of these kingdoms; or any correspondence at all with such persons or tribunals, on any matter not purely ecclesiastical. A further enactment prohibits any person born out of the united kingdom, except such as are born of British or Irish parents, from exercising any episcopal functions in it; and also requires a certain term of residence within the united kingdom before such functions can be exercised.

On the 13th of May, the bill was read a second time, and committed for the following day. This bill, as amended by the committee, contained a number of new clauses, the principal scope of which was to place a *veto* on the appointment of Catholic bishops in the hands of the king, by the appointment of two separate com-

missions, one for Great Britain, and the other for Ireland, consisting of Roman Catholic ecclesiastics, exercising episcopal functions, lay Roman Catholic peers or commoners, and privy counsellors, the principal secretary of state being of the number, to which board of commissioners the name of every person of the Roman Catholic religion proposing to assume the functions of a bishop or dean should be notified, and the board should report to his majesty, or to the Lord-lieutenant of Ireland, whether they know or believe any thing which tends to impeach the loyalty or peaceable conduct of such person; after which, it shall be lawful for his majesty, or the lord-lieutenant, to approve or disapprove of the said person; and any one exercising the above functions, after disapprobation, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanour. To the same board, was also to be confided the inspection of all bulls and dispensations from the See of Rome.

On the 24th of May, a call of the house took place, for the purpose of giving to this measure all the consideration demanded by its importance; on which occasion, the speaker concluded an elaborate and eloquent speech, by moving, that the first clause of the bill intended to confer upon Roman Catholics the privilege "to sit and vote in either house of parliament," should be omitted. This clause was, by both parties, regarded as of fundamental importance; and while the dangers of its admission were exhibited in the most glowing colours by one party, the evils to be expected from leaving the Catholics in a state of dissatisfaction, and of disappointing their ardent expectations, were as forcibly insisted upon by the other. At length, the decisive trial of strength took place, and the division of the house proved that the opinions of its members were nearly balanced, there being for the clause two hundred and forty-seven voices, against it two hundred and fifty-one, leaving a majority of four against the Catholics sitting in parliament. On the numbers being declared, Mr. Ponsonby said, that as the bill, without this clause, was neither worthy of the acceptance of the Catholics, nor of the farther support of the friends of concession, he should move that the chairman do now leave the chair, which was carried without a division, and thus the bill was abandoned. But Mr. Grattan, undismayed by defeat, and resolved to persevere in a cause which, in the opinion of some of the first statesmen of this age and nation, involved the essential interests of the united kingdom, and the permanent tranquillity of the empire, gave notice that he should early in the next session move for leave to

bring in a bill for the relief of his majesty's Roman Catholic subjects in Ireland.

In the discussion on the Catholic emancipation bill, though several members had manifested an intention to support all those exclusions from place and power, which the existing laws have enjoined against separatists from the established church, yet the most extensive and liberal principles of toleration were generally professed. Hence, probably, the time was chosen for an attempt to relieve from the pains and penalties still legally impending over them, those Christians who impugn the doctrine of the Trinity, and to extend to them the benefits of the toleration act. Under these impressions, Mr. William Smith moved for leave to bring in a bill for this purpose. As the law stood, he said, persons who in conversation or writing denied the existence of any of the persons of the Trinity, were disabled on conviction from holding any office, civil, ecclesiastical, or military; and if a second time convicted, they were disabled to sue or prosecute in any action or information, or to be the guardian of any child, and were liable to imprisonment for three years. The object of the honourable gentleman was to bring in a bill for the repeal of these laws; and a bill was accordingly introduced, with the approbation of his majesty's ministers, and the general concurrence of the house, and passed through its respective stages in the commons. On the third reading of the bill in the lords, on the 30th of July, the Archbishop of Canterbury, and the Bishop of Chester, each said a few words, not with any intention of opposing the progress of the measure, but merely to affirm that the bill had not been called for by any attempt to inflict penalties upon, or to impede the worship of the Unitarians. The bill was then read a third time, and having obtained the royal assent, became a part of the law of the land.

The prodigious increase of the public expenditure, and the diminution of the several sources of the revenue, in consequence of the rigorous measures taken by the enemy to shut out British commerce from the continent of Europe, combined with the loss of the American market, occasioned a general opinion that some new financial measures must be resorted to, for the purpose of preventing the necessity of imposing fresh taxes. That taxation had nearly attained to the *ne plus ultra*, was admitted by the chancellor of the exchequer himself, who thought, that "to raise new taxes to the amount of nine millions, the sum now to be provided, would be felt as a heavy burthen in addition to the great exertions already made by the people."

resolutions grounded upon it, which he proposed to submit to the committee, and which were ultimately passed without any essential alterations.

In submitting to the house the proposed ways and means for the year, in case his plan with respect to the sinking fund should be adopted, the chancellor of the exchequer stated, that the sum to be raised was 1,136,000*l.* for which he meant to provide by an additional duty on tobacco, in lieu of the proposed auction duty of last year; additional duties on the consolidated customs, with some exceptions; an additional duty of thirteenpence per bottle on French wines; an increased duty of two-thirds on goods imported from France and her dependencies; an increase generally of one-half the present amount of the war duties on exports; and an additional duty of one penny per lb. on the export of foreign hides. These resolutions, which proposed taxes as little burthensome as possible, were agreed to with expressions of satisfaction.

The non-residence of the parochial clergy, and the necessitous and degraded condition of numbers of those who were appointed to perform their duty, had long been a subject of scandal and regret to the friends of the establishment, and various plans had been proposed for removing these evils. That of augmenting the stipends of curates, and making them bear some proportion to the livings, was one of the most obvious; and a bill for this purpose was accordingly introduced into parliament this session by the Earl of Harrowby.*

To this bill, it was objected, that it would operate oppressively by the generality of its enactments; that it would destroy the subordination of ranks, so necessary to the well-being of the ecclesiastical government; that the curate would be at variance with the incumbent, and that a collision between the inferior and the higher orders of the clergy would be perpetually occurring.† The non-residence of the

clergy, it was said, was attributable to the want of houses, the poverty of the benefices, and pluralities; evils which would be augmented by this bill, which might be regarded as a bill of confiscation and forfeiture of the smaller livings; and which, by reducing their value, would make them subject to be purchased by a fund, which was busily employed in buying up livings, with a view of filling them with persons holding doctrines most injurious to the church and to sound Christianity.*

The advocates of the bill did not consider the property of the church as private property belonging to individuals, but as belonging to the church, as a whole. Much had been said about the poverty of the church, but it was rich enough, and the only defect was in the unequal distribution of its revenues. One of its indispensable duties was to provide a resident clergyman for every parish in the kingdom, which was the principle of the present bill, and its provisions were well calculated to produce that effect.†

This bill, which was warmly contested in all its stages, was at its third reading carried in the house of lords, on the 21st of May, by a majority of thirty-seven to twenty-two voices, and was in the course of the session passed into a law.

Two days previous to the third reading of the stipendiary curates' bill, an important appeal case regarding the Scottish law of marriages was heard in the house of lords, *M'Adam v. Adam*. Mr. M'Adam, a gentleman of very large fortune in Ayrshire, kept a mistress in his house for many years, and had children by her. One morning, he called the servants into the room where he and his mistress were at breakfast, and taking her by the hand, declared in their presence that she was his wife. The same day, he shot himself. The question therefore was, whether this was a valid marriage, and consequently the children legitimate? and upon the decision of this question depended the succession to a real estate of 10,000*l.* per annum. The result was, that the marriage was pronounced to be valid; by which decision, it may be considered as finally established, that by the law of Scotland, as it at present stands, a mere verbal declaration of marriage, by the parties themselves, deliberately made, in the presence of witnesses, constitutes a valid marriage, provable by the testimony of the witnesses without any writing or any other ceremony civil or ecclesiastical.

The most momentous and permanently interesting question which came before

* By the provisions of this bill, non-resident incumbents are required to have a resident curate, to whom the bishop is required to assign a salary proportioned to the gross value of the benefice, namely, the salary to be allowed by the incumbent to his curate in no case to be less than 80*l.* per annum, or the whole value of the benefice, if that be less than 80*l.*; nor less than 100*l.* or the whole value of the benefice in parishes the population of which amounts to 300 persons; nor less than 120*l.* or the whole value of living, in parishes with a population of 500 persons; nor less than 150*l.* or the whole amount in parishes with a population of 1,000 persons; and when the benefice exceeds 400*l.* clear annual value, though the population be less than 300 persons, the bishop of the diocese has a power to appoint to the stipendiary curate a salary of 100*l.* per annum.

† The Bishops of London and Worcester.

* Lord Ellenborough.

† Lord Rodenale.

parliament during the session of 1812, was that which related to the renewal of the charter of the East India Company. This question, at all times important, from the magnitude and extension of the subject it embraced, became peculiarly so at the period when it was brought under discussion, both on account of the existing circumstances of the mother country, and the embarrassment of the affairs of the East India Company. The trade and commerce of Britain had suffered very considerably by the exclusion of our produce and manufactures from the continent of Europe, and from the United States of America. The capital of our merchants was consuming itself idly and unprofitably in immense stocks of goods, for which they could find no purchasers; the manufacturers were reduced to a state of great distress; and as a natural and unavoidable consequence, the national taxes had diminished in their produce, while the increased parish rates pressed heavily even upon those who stood themselves in need of parochial relief. Under such circumstances, it was not to be wondered at that the East India market was looked forward to with anxious expectation, and that the merchants and manufacturers became deeply interested in their opposition to the renewal of the exclusive charter of the East India Company. Nor were the circumstances of the company less calculated to give importance to the subject now to be brought under the consideration of parliament: for many years, the public affairs of the company had gone on so ill, that they had contracted a debt of nearly thirty millions sterling, which was continually increasing, though the company were dividing annually an interest upon their capital of more than ten per cent. But there were other reasons of a more general nature, which operated with some persons in their objections to the renewal of the charter. Monopolies, they held, must be injurious to the community, and probably not very profitable to those in whose favour they were granted; for it is the effect of monopoly, not only injure those whom it excludes, but very frequently to be injurious even to those on whom it is bestowed.

All the out-ports, debarred from a participation in the East India trade, and many of the manufacturing districts, concurred in the resolution, of urging what they regarded as the just claims of all citizens, to share in the public advantages; while the company itself, and the bodies connected with it by a common interest, prepared to take measures against the menaced attack. This subject was brought before parlia-

ment as early as the session of 1811, but it was not till the present session that government was prepared to bring forward their final arrangements for the future government of India.

On the 22d of March, Lord Castlereagh rose in his place in the house of commons, to discharge a duty unprecedented in any other state. The house had to provide for the happiness, comfort, and government of a body of men, exceeding, in a three-fold amount, the population of the parent state. The term of the existing charter of the East India Company would expire in May, 1814, and in renewing the charter, his majesty's ministers had to consider three propositions—Whether the existing government in India should be allowed to continue in its present state—whether an entire change should take place in the system—or whether a middle course should be adopted.

With respect to the first, he was strongly impressed with the conviction, that the present system could not with propriety be persevered in by the legislature. There was no reason for tying up, during the period of another charter, the commerce of the country from half the habitable globe, by placing it under the administration of the company alone, and excluding all other persons except foreigners. The commercial sphere was become too extended for the limited powers of a chartered company, and it was the duty of parliament not to consign the private trade to the control of their shipping system. The other alternative, of abolishing the present system, he was certainly not disposed to admit, unless all arrangements between the company and the public should appear impracticable. Dismissing then the two extremes of the question, he should proceed to state those modifications of the existing system which were to be subject to certain resolutions to be laid before the committee. After explaining the nature and purpose of these resolutions, they were handed to the chairman of the committee and read: They opened with a declaration,

That it is expedient that all the privileges, authorities, and immunities, granted to the East India Company, shall continue and be in force for the further term of twenty years, except as far as the same may hereinafter be modified and repealed. The second resolution provides, that the present restraints on the commercial intercourse with China, and the company's exclusive trade in tea, shall be continued. The third and fourth contain a permission to any of his majesty's subjects to export to, and import from, all ports within the limits of the company's charter, China excepted, such goods, &c. as are allowed by law. The fifth, sixth, seventh, and eight, provide that warehouses at the said ports be deemed safe for the purposes of the revenue; that the vessels in which goods are imported and exported, be of the

burthen of at least three hundred and fifty tons; and that on approaching port they notify their arrival by a manifesto. The ninth contains regulations as to the importation and sale of silk and hair goods. The tenth regulates the application of the company's revenues. 1. To the payment of the troops and support of the forts. 2. To liquidate the debts on bills of exchange. 3. Other debts except bond debts. 4. To pay a dividend of ten per cent. and a contingent half per cent. 5. To liquidate the bond debts until they amount to ten millions in India, and three millions in England. 6. The surplus profits to be divided in the ratio of five-sixths to government and one-sixth to the company, and a provision for paying the capital stock. The eleventh resolution regards the employment of India shipping; the twelfth makes provision for the support and return of Lascars brought to England in private vessels; the thirteenth grants pensions and gratuities by the company; the fourteenth regards the appointments to the different presidencies; and the fifteenth places the church establishment in the British territories in India, under the superintendence of a bishop and three archdeacons.

On a question of so much importance, it was deemed necessary to hear evidence at the bar; and on the 30th of March the examination of witnesses commenced at the bar of the house of commons, before a committee of the whole house. Warren Hastings, Esq. was the first witness called, and the mass of facts and opinions produced by the different witnesses, constituted a body of evidence sufficient to fill a volume. The individuals examined were principally those who had occupied high stations in India; and the general tendency of their evidence was certainly against opening the trade, and decidedly against allowing missionaries to repair to the east for the purpose of proselyting the natives to the Christian faith. On the 31st of May, when the evidence had been gone through in the two houses of parliament, Lord Castlereagh moved his first resolution, which, after a long and animated debate, was agreed to without a division. The second and third resolutions were carried in the same way. The eleventh resolution, regarding the employment of India built ships, was withdrawn at the request of Lord Castlereagh. The subject continued before the two houses of parliament till the 22d of June. The ardent zeal for religion, which is a prominent feature of the present time, had now displayed itself in a great number of petitions to parliament, from different places and various religious communities in the island, praying that, in the new arrangements for the government of India, provision should be made for the instruction of the natives in the principles of the Christian faith; and so much attention had been paid to these applications, that an addition was made to the thirteenth resolution to the effect—"that such measures ought to be adopted as might tend to

the introduction of useful knowledge, and of religious and moral improvement, among the natives of the British dominions in India; and that, in furtherance of the above objects, sufficient facilities should be afforded by law to persons desirous of going to, and remaining in, India, for the purpose of accomplishing these benevolent designs."

Lord Castlereagh said it was not intended to encourage an unrestrained resort of persons to India for religious purposes; but that a certain number of persons, under the cognizance of the court of directors, who were again controlled by the board of commissioners, were to be allowed to proceed to the British possessions as missionaries. A long debate ensued, in which Mr. Wilberforce particularly distinguished himself as the advocate of the resolution, and which terminated in a division of the house, when there appeared for the resolution eighty-nine, and against it thirty-six voices. On the clause providing that twenty thousand troops should be maintained in India, being read, Lord Castlereagh said, that our territory in the east had trebled in extent since the year 1793, and that it was in consequence requisite to increase the military establishment. All the resolutions, with the alterations specified above, were ultimately passed, and a bill grounded upon them came to its third reading in the house of commons on the 13th of July. In the lords, the progress of the bill was much more silent than the commons; few members seemed to interest themselves in its provisions after they had stated their opinions generally at its first introduction. At the close of the session, this highly important measure passed into a law, and the path taken by government in forming the resolutions on which the bill was grounded, although, perhaps, not perfectly satisfactory to any party, was, on the whole, the course dictated by wisdom and enlightened policy.

When the question respecting the renewal of the charter was first agitated, the directors and proprietors of the East India Company assumed high ground, and seemed disposed not to accept of a new charter, unless it were granted them on their own terms; but when they witnessed the firmness of government, and perceived that the nation was against their exclusive pretensions, their tone changed, and they congratulated each other on the attainment of a charter, that in some respects had exceeded their most sanguine expectations.* Some years must necessarily elapse, before the real and permanent effects of opening

* Speech of Mr. R. Thornton, at a general court held at the India house, July 31st, 1813.

the trade to India, either in a political or commercial point of view, or as they will operate on the situation and character of the natives, can be clearly and accurately ascertained. In all great political and commercial changes, much confusion and

partial evil must at first result; it requires a considerable time to elapse before every thing adjusts itself to the new order of things; and till this adjustment takes place, any judgment that is formed must be rash, premature, and unjust.

CHAPTER XXI.

SPANISH CAMPAIGN: Plan of Operations—Relative Force of the contending Armies—Advance of the Allies—Madrid finally abandoned by the French—Battle of Vittoria—The Invading Army driven across the Spanish Frontier—Operations on the Eastern Coast of Spain—under General Sir John Murray—under Lord William Bentinck—Marshal Soult appointed Lieutenant-general of the French Army—Unsuccessful Effort to relieve the fortresses of St. Sebastian and Pampluna.—Battle of the Pyrenees—Fall of St. Sebastian—of Pampluna—Invasion of France by the Army under Lord Wellington.

AT no period since the breaking out of the Spanish Revolution in 1808, had the prospect of expelling the French from the peninsula assumed so bright an aspect as at the commencement of the campaign of 1813. Bonaparte, from the dreadful reverses he had sustained in Russia, and from the consequences of these reverses with which he was still threatened, had been compelled to withdraw from Spain, not merely a considerable portion of his best troops, but also some of his most able and experienced generals; and the corps which were left, knowing, though probably imperfectly the reasons which had induced the emperor to diminish their numbers at so critical a period, could not take the field with that confidence which often secures the success it anticipates. These circumstances, so unfavourable to the enemy, operated greatly to the advantage of the allies. The army under Lord Wellington, fully acquainted with all the disasters suffered by the French in the northern campaign of 1812; and knowing that their own victories and achievements were cited in order to encourage the German and the Russian soldiers, felt themselves called upon by every sentiment of duty and honour to sustain the renown they had acquired.

Lord Wellington, whose active mind was never unoccupied, had spent the early months of the year in organizing his army; and in making such arrangements as would accelerate and secure the completion of a plan, which had for its ultimate object the expulsion of the enemy from the territory of Spain. With this view, he divided his force into three parts: the centre, composed chiefly of light troops, he commanded in person; and his lordship soon proved that the vigour with which the campaign was meant to be prosecuted, would compensate for the advanced season at which it was

commenced. The command of the right was confided to Sir Rowland Hill, who was appointed to move in a parallel direction with the commander-in-chief, on the left bank of the Douro; and these movements were to be made subservient to the advance of the main body of the army under Sir Thomas Graham. The objects and immediate end of the plan formed by Lord Wellington, were, first to drive the enemy before him to the Pyrenees, and thence into France; secondly, by flank movements, to bring them to action; and thirdly, to destroy their depôts and magazines at Valladolid, Burgos, Vittoria, Tolosa, and Irun, and to clear the provinces of Biscay, Navarre, and Arragon.

Having disclosed the grand feature of the campaign, it may be proper to advert to the numerical strength of the hostile armies. The British army had received a strong reinforcement of twenty thousand men after the battle of Salamanca, and discipline had been restored by strict regulations, and enforced during the period of repose. The disposable troops, at the opening of the campaign, were estimated at about eighty thousand British and Portuguese, with more than forty thousand Spanish regulars, besides a considerable guerilla force, which was hourly increasing. On the left of the combined British and Portuguese force, the Spanish Galician army was destined to manœuvre, and to act with Sir Thomas Graham, if circumstances should demand their co-operation; and on their right, the troops of Castanos, Don Carlos d'Espana, and other Spanish generals, were posted. Of the numerical strength which the enemy were at this time enabled to oppose to Lord Wellington, it is difficult to form an estimate. From the cause already assigned, it is probable that their armies of the north, the centre, Portugal, and the south, which dis-

tinctive appellations they still very inappropriately retained, did not exceed sixty thousand men, of whom the relative numbers of cavalry and infantry were in about the same proportion as in the allied army. If, however, the French were much lower in numbers than the allies, and still more inferior to them in respect to general and moral feeling, they had greatly the advantage in point of position. In this respect, the enemy were indeed formidable. They were supported by fortresses and fastnesses, all along the line of their retreat, beginning with Zamora and Toro, and thence extending through the valleys of the Pisuerga and Arlanzon, to Burgos, Pancorvo, and Miranda. From the strength of these positions, and the extreme activity which the French had displayed in repairing the fortifications of Burgos, it was expected that the progress of the allies at the beginning of the campaign would be slow, harassing, and difficult; but from some cause not explained, and certainly not easily conjectured, the enemy resolved to abandon all their strong positions.

On the 24th of May, the advanced guard of the allies moved from Ciudad Rodrigo on Salamanca, and on the 26th that city was occupied by General Fane, who pursued the rear guard of the French, and took two hundred prisoners, near Huerta. On the 27th and 28th, Lord Wellington assigned cantonments to General Hill's column between the Tormes and the Douro, and repaired in person to Miranda de Douro, where he arrived on the 29th with the column under the orders of General Graham. On the 1st of June, the English hussars entered Zamora, and on the following day entered Toro.

The French force on the Douro being unable to arrest the rapid advance of the allies, their army at Madrid was placed in a very critical situation. To remain in the centre of the kingdom, was to expose this portion of the army to the danger from being cut off from the high road leading to the French frontier; it was therefore determined to abandon the capital without a struggle, and on the 27th of May, all the French troops in Madrid and on the Tagus, began their retreat in the direction of the Douro, which river they crossed on the 3d of June.

On the 13th, Lord Wellington arrived at Burgos, where the French, who were rapidly retreating before him, had blown up the inner walls of the castle with so much precipitancy, that thirty of the garrison perished by the explosion. From Burgos, they continued their flight on the main road to the Ebro, with the intention of placing that river between themselves and

the advancing army. Lord Wellington aware of this intention, ordered Sir Thomas Graham to make a movement on the left, towards the upper part of the Ebro; and this operation was performed with so much celerity and success, that on the 15th he arrived at the bridge of Arrano, and on the following day the main army crossed that river at Quintana, in the neighbourhood of Frias.

The passage of the Ebro having been thus fortunately accomplished, the British general directed his march to Vittoria, which city the French had made their central depôt in the frontier provinces. Here, Joseph Bonaparte, having Marshal Jourdan as his major-general, had taken up a position in front of the city. On the 20th, the two armies were in presence of each other. The French had their left wing stationed on the heights between Arunex and Puebla d'Arlanzon, their centre on a height which commanded the valley of Zadora, and their right wing resting upon Vittoria. Lord Wellington, having determined to dislodge the enemy from these positions, commenced the attack on the following day by a successful movement made on the part of Sir Rowland Hill, who at the beginning of the action drove the enemy from the important heights of Puebla, and took possession of Subijana de Alava. The French generals soon became sensible of the importance of the position they had lost, and Joseph Bonaparte and Marshal Jourdan repaired in person to encourage the troops to regain the village of Subijana; but all their efforts proved unavailing, and after an arduous contest, Sir Rowland Hill remained master both of the village and the heights. During this conflict, the Hon. Lieutenant-colonel Cadogan, an officer of distinguished zeal and tried gallantry, fell at the head of his regiment, and General Murillo was seriously wounded, but refused to quit the field.

The difficulties of the country retarded for some time the advance of the columns of the allies; and it was not till a late hour in the day, that the commander-in-chief learned, that the column composed of the 3d and 7th divisions, under the command of the Earl of Dalhousie, had arrived at their station. The 4th and light divisions passed the Zadora immediately after Sir Rowland Hill had obtained possession of Subijana de Alava, the former at the bridge of Nauclaus, the latter at the bridge of Tres Puentes; while the 3d division, under Sir Thomas Picton, crossed the bridge higher up the river, and was followed by the 7th, under the Earl of Dalhousie. These four divisions, forming the centre of the allied army, were destined

to attack the heights on which the right of the enemy's centre was placed; while Sir Rowland Hill should move forward from Subijana to the attack of the left. The enemy, having weakened his line to strengthen his detachment on the hills, abandoned his position in the valley, and commenced his retreat in the direction of Vittoria, towards which city the allied troops continued to advance in good order, notwithstanding the difficulty of the ground.

In the mean time, Sir Thomas Graham, who commanded the left of the army, consisting of the 1st and 5th divisions, and Generals Pack and Bradford's brigades of infantry, with the brigades of cavalry under Generals Bock and Anson, moved forward from Margina towards Vittoria, accompanied by the Spanish division under Colonel Longa and General Giron. The enemy, with a division of infantry, and a body of cavalry, advanced on the great road from Vittoria to Bilboa, resting their right on the strong heights which cover the village of Gamarra Major, and occupying the *tetes de pont* to the bridges over the Zadora at Gamarra and Abechuchu. It now became necessary that the position of the enemy should be turned, and General Pack, with his Portuguese brigade, and Colonel Longa, with the Spanish division, were directed to turn and gain the heights, supported by Major-general Anson's brigade of light dragoons, and the 5th division of infantry, under the command of Major-general Oswald, to whom the command of all these troops was confided. In the execution of this service, which was performed with great gallantry and success, the whole of the Spanish and Portuguese force behaved most admirably; but the 4th and 8th cacadores particularly distinguished themselves. No sooner were the heights in possession of the allies, than the village of Gamarra Major was stormed and carried by the 5th brigade, under Brigadier-general Robinson; which advanced to the charge in columns of battalions, under a heavy fire of artillery and musketry, without firing a shot, and after storming the place, captured three pieces of cannon.

Sir Thomas Graham, supported by General Bradford's brigade of Portuguese infantry, now proceeded to attack the village of Abechuchu, with the first division, by forming a strong battery against it, consisting of Doubourdieu's brigade, and Captain Romsey's troop of horse artillery, under the cover of whose fire Colonel Walkett's brigade advanced to the attack of the village, which was carried at the point of the bayonet, the light battalion having charged and taken three guns and

a howitzer on the bridge. During the operations at Abechuchu, the enemy made the most vigorous efforts to repossess themselves of the village of Gamarra Major, but they were gallantly repulsed by the troops of the 5th division, under the command of General Oswald, and at length, finding all their endeavours unavailing, they desisted from the attack. The enemy had still two divisions of infantry in reserve on the heights to the left of the Zadora, and it was found impossible for the allies to cross the bridges until the troops which had moved upon his centre and left had driven this reserved corps through Vittoria. This service having been admirably performed, the enemy gave way in every direction, and the whole of the allied army was brought into communication, and co-operated in the pursuit.

The movements of the troops under Sir Thomas Graham, having, by the occupation of Gamarra and Abechuchu, intercepted the enemy's retreat by the high road to France, the vanquished army was obliged to turn to the road towards Pampluna; but even in this direction the fugitives were unable to hold any position for a sufficient length of time to allow their baggage and artillery to be drawn off; and so complete was their rout and dismay, that they were enabled to carry off only one solitary gun, and one howitzer. The trophies of this decisive victory were numerous and splendid: one hundred and fifty-one pieces of cannon, and four hundred and fifteen ammunition wagons, were captured. The costly and sumptuous appendages of the fugitive king's household, the baton or staff of Marshal Jourdan, and, in a word, the whole *materiel* of the discomfited army, fell into the hands of the victors. The total loss sustained by the allied armies on this memorable day, was seven hundred and forty killed, and four thousand one hundred and seventy wounded. The loss of the enemy is not stated in Lord Wellington's despatches, but the number of killed and wounded has been estimated at from six to ten thousand. The prisoners were few, night favoured the escape of the vanquished, and the rich booty, which everywhere presented itself on the field of glory, induced the victors, like so many Atalantas, to stop in their way to gather the golden harvest.

The joy and congratulation with which the intelligence of the victory of Vittoria was received in England, cannot be described. Every man was sensible that this victory bore, on its very front, more decisive marks of usefulness, as well as of glory, than any of the former victories which Lord Wellington had gained. Many of

his former triumphs had been obtained at a great cost of blood, without any permanent advantage; but the victory of Vittoria presented a happy and glorious contrast to some of the barren victories of former campaigns; the rout of the enemy was complete, extensive, and signal; each successive day proved its magnitude and importance; the enemy had lost all his artillery, which, with a French army, is of a value inestimable; but, above all, the moral effect of this achievement transcended all Lord Wellington's previous victories. The British government and people displayed their sense of his high deserts in the most marked and gratifying manner; the marshal's staff captured on the occasion had been sent over to the prince-regent, who in return created Lord Wellington a field-marshal; and the Spanish government, as a proof of their sense of obligation for his services, elevated him to the rank of Duke of Vittoria.*

The victory of Vittoria was followed up with that promptitude and decision which mark the character of the British general. Little time was lost in pursuing the fugitive army, and investing the strong fortresses, which now formed the last hold of the enemy in Spain. General Clausel, ignorant of the defeat of his countrymen, had approached Vittoria with part of the army of the north; but no sooner had he ascertained the result of the action of the 21st of June, than he retired precipitately towards Logrono, and remained in the neighbourhood of that place till the afternoon of the 25th: Lord Wellington, having sent a division of light troops towards Roncesvalles, in pursuit of the army under Joseph Bonaparte, moved a large force towards Logrono and Tudela, in hopes of intercepting the retreat of General Clausel.

* *Letter from the Prince-regent to Lord Wellington.*

Carlton-house, July 3, 1813.

"MY DEAR LORD,—Your glorious conduct is beyond all human praise, and far above my reward; I know no language the world affords worthy to express it. I feel I have nothing left to say, but devoutly to offer up my prayers of gratitude to Providence, that it has, in its omnipotent bounty, blessed my country and myself with such a general. You have sent me, among the trophies of your unrivalled fame, the staff of a French marshal, and I send you in return that of England. The British army will hail it with enthusiasm, while the whole universe will acknowledge those valorous efforts which have so imperiously called for it. That uninterrupted health, and still increasing laurels, may continue to crown you through a glorious and long career of life, are the never-ceasing and most ardent wishes of

"My dear lord,

"Your most sincere and faithful friend,
"The Marquis of Wellington."

"G. P. R."

The French general, having crossed the Ebro in front of Tudela, marched towards Saragossa, and after leaving a detachment of troops under General Paris, passed by a circuitous route through Jaca across the Pyrenees. Mina, the guerilla chief, followed General Paris, with his usual activity, and took from him two pieces of cannon, and three hundred prisoners, while Sir Rowland Hill moved through the mountains to the head of the Bidassoa, over which river the enemy had retired into France.

While these events occurred on the right of the allied army, General Graham, with the left wing, composed chiefly of Spaniards and Portuguese, was not inactive. The French now found it necessary to evacuate all their stations in Biscay, except Santona and St. Sebastian, and, uniting their garrisons to the division of the army of the north, stationed at Bilbao, they assembled a force more considerable than had at first been expected. The first effort of this force was made at the junction of the road from Pampluna to Bayonne, where they posted themselves on a hill commanding the two roads, with a determination to maintain that position. A vigorous attack, commanded by Colonel Williams, however, quickly dislodged them from the eminence, and obliged them to retreat into Tolosa. The last stand made by the enemy was on the Bidassoa, which river, rising in the Pyrenean mountains, and falling into the bay of Biscay at Fontarabia, forms the line of demarkation between France and Spain; but a brigade of the Spanish army of Galicia, under the command of General Castanos, forced him over the bridge, and obliged him to abandon the peninsula in this quarter.

Though the right and left wings of the French army were now withdrawn into France, three divisions of the centre, under General Gazan, remained in the fertile valley of Bastan, where, under cover of the strong positions with which they were surrounded, they hoped still to maintain a footing in Spain. But here again their expectations were disappointed; on the 4th, 5th, and 7th of July, they were dislodged from all their posts by two brigades of British, and two of Portuguese infantry, under Sir Rowland Hill, and compelled, after an arduous contest, to cross the Spanish frontier.

The plan formed by Lord Wellington for the operations of the peninsular campaign of 1813, was not merely confined to the movements of the main army in the north of Spain, but embraced the operations of the "expeditionary army" in the east, under Sir John Murray, which had

been so long cooped up in Alicant, but which was now free, and destined to act against Suchet in Catalonia. In the general plan of the campaign, the army of Sir John Murray was to act with the Spanish army, for the purpose of keeping Marshal Suchet in check, and to make an assault, and if possible, to possess itself of Tarragona. The troops in the east remained in a state of inactivity till the middle of April, when the Anglo-Cilician army under Sir John Murray, left Alicant and advanced to Castella, while General Elio took post at Yesla and Villena. Suchet, who soon discovered that the different corps to which he was opposed were not in a state of proper combination, collected his whole disposable force, and on the 11th of April attacked Villena with so much success, that the garrison, consisting of one thousand men, were obliged to surrender at discretion. Having thus succeeded against the Spaniards, he proceeded to the attack of the British positions, and on the 12th, at noon, assailed their advanced posts at Biar. The resistance made to the assailants was vigorously maintained for five hours against superior force, and the British troops at length fell back upon the main body only in compliance with the orders of their general. Suchet, undismayed by this reception, proceeded, on the following day, to attack the position at Castella, where the British were concentrated. After having displayed all his cavalry, he advanced a corps of two thousand infantry, with a view of forcing the left of the line, which was covered by the van-guard of General Whittingham; but the troops whom he encountered at this point, received the attack with so much steadiness, that they allowed the enemy to approach to the very point of their bayonets, when they charged the French column, and killed, wounded, or made prisoners, a large portion of the assailants. The result of this attempt upon the English lines, obliged Suchet to change his plan of operations into a series of movements, and finally to retreat for his camp at St. Phelipe. Sir John Murray immediately ordered nine battalions of infantry and one thousand cavalry, with ten pieces of artillery, to pursue the fugitives, and the loss inflicted upon the enemy's retreating columns was very severe. In this action, Suchet made his first experiment on the valour of British troops, and the result served to convince him that he had no longer to contend with those depositories of panic to which he had hitherto been so frequently opposed.

Soon after the battle of Castella, Lord Wellington transmitted instructions to Sir

John Murray, dated the 14th of April, directing him to embark his troops at Alicant, and to effect a landing in Catalonia, for the purpose of undertaking the siege of Tarragona, in concert with a British squadron stationed off this part of the coast of Spain, under the command of Admiral Hollowell, a most active and enterprising officer. On the 2d of June, the fleet destined for this expedition anchored to the eastward of the Point of Salon; on the 3d, soon after sunrise, the debarkation of the troops commenced; and in the course of that day the whole of the infantry, with some field-pieces, were landed. Tarragona was immediately reconnoitred and invested, the point of attack was decided upon, and a place fixed upon for the dépôt of artillery stores. Between the 4th and 11th, five batteries were constructed, and the fire was kept up with great spirit. During the latter day, Major Thackary, the chief officer of engineers, having reported that he was now perfectly prepared to push the siege with vigour, the fire on the *Fuerte Reale* was increased, and it was decided to storm that work during the night. The intelligence, however, which General Murray received late in the evening, of the approach of Marshal Suchet, and of the march of a French column from Barcelona, prevented him from carrying his intention into execution, and determined him to raise the siege and re-embark his troops.

General Murray, in defence of his conduct for raising the siege, stated, that very large French armies were advancing to the relief of the place, and that Marshal Suchet, after leaving twenty thousand men to garrison the cities of Valencia and Catalonia, had still under his command a disposable force of twenty-four thousand veteran troops. To oppose this army, the British general stated that he had about thirteen thousand men under his immediate command, exclusive of the force under General Copons, which amounted to eight thousand five hundred men, without pay, without discipline, without a single piece of cannon, without the means of subsistence, and totally incapable of acting in the field. The allied army therefore consisted of twenty-one thousand five hundred men, of whom four thousand five hundred only were British and German troops, and the remainder Sicilians, Calabrese, and Spaniards, the armies of the allies being moreover greatly inferior in point of cavalry to the enemy.

The embarkation of the troops, which was completed on the 17th, was made with so much precipitation, that the guns in the most advanced batteries of the allies were abandoned, and the conduct of Sir

John Murray became exposed to severe animadversion. But after a most ample investigation of the conduct of this officer before a court of military inquiry, he was acquitted of all the charges brought against him, except that by which he was accused of having "unnecessarily abandoned a considerable quantity of artillery and stores, which he might have embarked in safety." This part of his conduct was, however, ascribed merely to "an error of judgment;" and nothing followed upon the decision, as the case did not appear to the prince-regent to call for the admonition pointed out by the court.

Lord William Bentinck, on whom the command of the Anglo-Sicilian army now devolved, did not attempt, in the first instance, to renew the expedition against Tarragona; but, joining himself to the Spanish armies under the Duc del Parque, Elio, and Villacampa, proceeded in concert with them to attack the French forces in Valencia. What resistance Suchet might have made under more favourable circumstances, it is impossible to say, but the triumphant passage of the Ebro by Lord Wellington left him no alternative but retreat. On the 5th of July, he evacuated Valencia, and retired towards the Ebro, leaving garrisons in Peniscola, Murviedro, and Denia. The French having retired upon Barcelona, the allies blockaded Tortosa, and prepare to renew the siege of Tarragona. Suchet, having formed a determination to make an effort to relieve this city, united to his army all the troops which could be spared from Barcelona, and the neighbouring garrisons, and by this means assembled a force of nearly twenty-five thousand men. With these troops, he forced his way into Tarragona; but, instead of attempting to preserve the place, he applied himself with great diligence to the destruction of the works, and having accomplished that duty, he withdrew the garrison, and again retired towards Barcelona.

Early in the month of September, the allied army undertook a forward movement, encouraged by the belief that a very considerable part of the French forces in the principality of Catalonia had been recently withdrawn. Under this persuasion, Lord William Bentinck established his army on the road to Barcelona, extending to the Llobregat mountains. The advance, under General Sarsfield, was placed in the pass of Ordal, a post of great strength, which commanded the communication between Barcelona and Tarragona. At this juncture, intelligence arrived that Suchet was collecting his army, and that twelve thousand men had already united at Molino del

Rey. At midnight, on the 22d of September, the French made their threatened attack upon the pass of Ordal, with numbers so greatly superior, that the Spanish corps was driven from all its positions, surrounded, and forced to save itself by dispersion among the mountains, leaving a considerable number of prisoners and four pieces of cannon in the hands of the enemy. The British army, finding themselves unequal to withstand the victorious force of the enemy, immediately broke up, and set out in full retreat, closely pursued by the enemy, towards Tarragona. The cavalry, however, though far inferior in numbers, covered the retiring army with so much gallantry, that Lord William Bentinck arrived in front of Tarragona without sustaining any considerable loss. It being now judged expedient that the great effort against France should be made on the side of the western Pyrenees, the third Spanish army was despatched to co-operate with Lord Wellington, and the remainder of the allied troops, in the east of the peninsula, continued to act merely on the defensive.

The grand operations in the north of Spain were still prosecuted with the most brilliant success, under the eye of Lord Wellington. Bonaparte, while occupied with the great contest which he was about to wage on the banks of the Elbe, had in some measure neglected the operations of which the peninsula of Spain and Portugal was the theatre. He had recalled thence many of his generals, and even Marshal Soult, who had so long held a distinguished command in Spain, was employed in the German campaign. But now, when, in one short month, the grand army of the invader had been driven across the frontier barrier, and when the finest provinces of France were laid open to invasion, alarm seized the French emperor, and he perceived that this contest, which even under the most urgent pressure of other wars, could not be disregarded. Of the immense levies which were at this time raising in France, a portion was destined to fill up the exhausted ranks of the army stationed at the foot of the Pyrenean mountains, within the French frontier; and Marshal Soult, whose talents appeared equal to such an exigency, hastened from Germany to resume the chief command, under the flattering title of "*Lieutenant de l'Empereur*." This general, in all his campaigns, especially in the south-west of Spain, had evinced more talents than any other of Bonaparte's generals: he was not only more active and energetic, but his activity and energy were accompanied and directed by more method and order; resting on more clear and comprehensive views; and rising

in exact proportion to the dangers and difficulties with which he was surrounded. Such an officer might have preserved Spain, if it could have been preserved: but he was called to the office when things had become desperate; and destined to command troops dispirited and weakened by repeated defeats, against an army animated by victory, and led on by a general who had never known defeat.

Before the British army could be safely employed in more decisive operations against the enemy, it became necessary to reduce the fortresses of St. Sebastian and Pampluna. These places were rendered strong both by art and nature, especially St. Sebastian, which, from the skill and labour expended upon its fortifications, was not inferior in strength to any place in the peninsula, with the single exception of Gibraltar. Lord Wellington was at this moment by no means free from difficulties: he had to maintain and cover two sieges, conducted at a considerable distance from each other, and in the prosecution of which his army necessarily became divided. The Pyrenees, though affording strong positions, were unfavourable in several respects to the present arrangement of the allied force; and the long and deep valleys, divided by lofty parallel chains of mountains, separated the troops, and cut off their communication with each other. The enemy, on the contrary, choosing the line of his advance, could throw his whole force in that direction, and push before him the division by which the pass might be guarded, while the other corps, separated by almost impassable barriers, could lend no prompt and efficient assistance. Upon this position of the allies, Soult formed his plan of operations, hoping by a separate attack upon one of the covering armies, to open a communication with the blockaded fortresses, and to drive the allies behind the Ebro.

The British troops were now about to be engaged, almost for the first time, in that system of mountain warfare, in which the French had hitherto stood unrivalled. The whole range of movements was comparatively small, and the columns were placed among mountains where cavalry could not act, and where cannon could with difficulty be conveyed. In the operations which had taken place subsequent to the battle of Vittoria, the allies had taken possession of the principal passes of the western Pyrenees. In front of Soult, at St. Jean Pied de Port, was General Byng's brigade; Morillo's corps was at the pass of Roncesvalles; behind, was Sir Lowry Cole, with the 4th division; General Pic-

ton's division being in reserve at Olague. The valley of Bastan was occupied by General Hill, with the second division; and by the Conde d'Amaranthe's Spanish corps. On one flank, were the light and 7th divisions, at Pera, Port d'Echelar, and on the heights of Barburu; the 6th division was in reserve at St. Estevan, on the Bidassoa; while General Longra extended the line of communication from the Bidassoa to the Urumea—from a division posted at St. Echelar to Sir Thomas Graham's division, employed before St. Sebastian.

The object of Lord Wellington was to reduce St. Sebastian as speedily as possible; to blockade and ultimately to reduce Pampluna; and while he was carrying on these two operations, to watch and defeat the movements of Soult. The French marshal had one great object in view in the first instance, and to effect this purpose he made two movements, the one real and the other a feint. From St. Jean Pied de Port, he led on a force of thirty-five thousand men in person, and bursting through the pass of Roncesvalles, hoped to confound his enemy, and reach Pampluna. The other part of his army moved upon the valley of Bastan, to force the British position at Port de Maya.

On the 24th of July, Soult attacked in great force the position occupied by General Hill; and at the same time, an attack on a much larger scale, with between thirty and forty thousand men, was made upon General Byng's position, with so much vigour, that the allies were overpowered at both points, and compelled to give way. These corps, having lost their direct communication with Lord Wellington, were left, unsupported, to defend the blockade of Pampluna against the overwhelming force pouring in to its relief. On the 27th, Soult arrived in sight of the walls of Pampluna, but not having yet brought up all his troops, he contented himself with attacking a column placed upon a hill, which formed an important part of the British position. On the 28th, the 6th British division arrived; and the enemy, also reinforced, began a contest of the most furious character. Their main effort was directed against the 4th division, under General Picton; but the French were everywhere repulsed, except at one point, where they obtained possession of a height on which the left of the 4th division was posted; but their success was only momentary, for they were soon attacked by the 7th *caçadores*, supported by Major-general Ross, at the head of his brigade of the 4th division, and driven from the heights with immense loss. The battle

had now become general along the whole front of the heights, and the operations were everywhere favourable to the allied arms, except where one battalion of the 10th Portuguese regiment was posted. Against this position the enemy advanced, with such overwhelming numbers, that the Portuguese were compelled to give way, and in their retreat exposed the right of General Ross's brigade, who in his turn was compelled to withdraw from his post. No sooner did Lord Wellington perceive this partial defeat, than he ordered the 27th and 48th regiments, first, to charge that portion of the enemy's troops which had succeeded in establishing themselves on the heights, and afterwards those to the left of that position. These orders were instantly carried into execution, in the most gallant style, and with the most distinguished success. British soldiers know that the bayonet is, in a most marked and peculiar sense, their weapon; and the enemy are equally sensible, that when British troops employ this instrument, they are invincible. (77) The enemy, by

(77) By comparing this passage with the letter of the prince-regent to Lord Wellington, in a preceding page, the American reader will be able to form some idea of the inordinate national vanity which characterizes the English of all ranks. From the prince to the printer, the same tone of lofty and arrogant boasting, the same affected consciousness of superiority over other nations, and the same arrogation of exclusive virtue and talent, is constantly displayed. Does a British general gain a victory, no matter with how superior a force, we find that "the world affords no language worthy to express his praise." Does a part of a British army succeed in dislodging part of the French from a height, we are told that, "when British troops employ the bayonet, they are invincible, the bayonet being in a most marked and peculiar sense their weapon." Now, with regard to British troops, we conceive they are about as brave as those of other nations, and no more; and having been of late years well disciplined, and seen a good deal of service, they make very respectable soldiers; but really, if for gaining one or two victories an army is to be forthwith "invincible," and "irresistible," the value of those expressions will in future be considerably lessened, from the competition of other nations; for we believe there are few who at some period of their history have not performed as considerable exploits as any here enumerated. That Lord Wellington has displayed great prudence, and considerable skill, in his military career, no one will deny. His offset was as bad a one as any recorded in military annals; but he improved greatly under the eye of Marshal Massena, and, contrary to all reasonable calculation, ended his last campaign fortunately. But a skilful general is not such a prodigy in other countries, as from the overflows of the prince-regent, and Mr. Baines, we find it to be in England. There is perhaps not one of the French marshals who has not gained more considerable victories, and displayed greater talents, than Lord Wellington. He has defeated the French, it is true, in several engagements, where he has uniformly had a superiority

these charges, were driven from the heights with great loss, in the utmost confusion; and victory was again restored to the allies in the only place where it seemed wavering. On the 29th and 30th, these two great armies continued to view each other, neither daring to attack the formidable heights on which its antagonist was posted. During this suspension in the work of death, the enemy silently withdrew a considerable body of troops from the front, where the former actions had taken place, and moved them to the right, with a view of attacking the British left, under Sir Rowland Hill. On the 30th, General Hill was accordingly attacked, and obliged to fall back from the range of mountains which he occupied to the one immediately behind. But Lord Wellington, seeing the enemy's line weakened, instantly detached the Earl of Dalhousie and General Picton to drive him from the formidable heights on which his right and left rested; and the operation having been rapidly accomplished, the centre advanced to join in the attack. These efforts were crowned with the most brilliant success, and the enemy, driven from a position "the strongest and most difficult of access ever occupied by troops," were soon in full march towards their own frontier. To cover their retreat, they placed a strong rear-guard in the pass of Donna Maria, from which it was dislodged by the Earl of Dalhousie. The retreat now became a flight; many prisoners were brought in, and a large convoy with baggage was taken at the town of Elizonda. The French endeavoured once more to make a stand at the Puerto d'Echelar, immediately within the Spanish frontier; but two of their divisions were driven from these heights by a British corps, and compelled to pursue the route of the retreating army.

The loss of the enemy in the battle of the Pyrenees, by which name this succession of engagements was designated, was about fifteen thousand, four thousand of whom were made prisoners; while the loss of the allies did not exceed three thousand killed and wounded. Candour

of numbers, but the field of battle is not the only spot in which the capacity of a general is displayed. It is among the perils of adversity that talent of the highest order is most called into exercise; and few would think of comparing the retreat from Talavera, and that from Burgos, with the retreats of Moreau from Germany, Massena from Portugal, and Ney from Russia. When, therefore, we find the prince-regent offering up devoutly his "prayers of gratitude to Providence, that it has in its omnipotent bounty blessed his country and himself with such a general," we are naturally led to conclude, that military genius is a rare commodity in England, and, from its rarity valued far beyond its intrinsic merit.

demands the acknowledgment, that the enemy, though defeated, did his duty in the field. Soult himself was personally conspicuous, and narrowly escaped being taken; his officers also distinguished themselves most honourably; many were seen with standards in their hands, heading their regiments, and leading them on in a style of gallantry not often surpassed; while others, with drums beating, at the head of their troops animated them to the conflict; and if such was the conduct of the vanquished, it is unnecessary to say what was the behaviour of the victors. That the result of the battle of the Pyrenees inflicted the most poignant disappointment upon the *Lieutenant de l'Empereur*, may be inferred from his proclamation to the army on taking the command; in this address, he states, that he has been sent by the emperor to the command of his armies in Spain, and that, in obedience with his imperial majesty's instructions, it was his intention to drive the British across the Ebro, and to celebrate the emperor's birthday in the town of Vittoria.

The efforts of the enemy in the field had proved unavailing to avert the impending fate of their fortresses. At St. Sebastian, however, the French governor, Rey, had displayed more than usual courage and dexterity in fortifying and defending that place. Ever since the beginning of July, General Graham had been occupied in the siege, and on the 17th he took possession of the convent of St. Bartholomew. From this post, he was enabled to establish batteries against the ramparts; and these batteries were so well served, that the breach was soon judged practicable. On the 22d, an English officer was sent to summon the governor to surrender, but being refused admission, an assault was ordered to take place at day-break on the 25th. The storming party, which consisted of about two thousand men, assembled in the trenches, and the explosion of the mine was the appointed signal for advance. The uncovered approach from the trenches to the breach, was about three hundred yards in length, before an extensive front of works, and over ground consisting of sea weed and intermediate pools of water. The fire of the place was yet entire, and the breach was flanked by two towers, which, though considerably injured, were still occupied. At five in the morning, the mine was sprung, and destroyed much of the counter-scarp and glacis. The enemy, astonished by the suddenness of the explosion, abandoned the works for a moment, and the advance of the storming party reached the breach without any formidable resist-

ance. But the moment when they attempted to ascend, the enemy opened a destructive fire, and threw down a profusion of shells from the towers on the flanks, and from the summit of the breach. Notwithstanding the distinguished gallantry of the troops employed, the attack did not succeed, and the assaulting party returned into the trenches with the loss of nearly a hundred men killed and four hundred wounded. The advanced-guard, with Lieutenant Jones at their head, were made prisoners on the breach, and Lieutenant-colonel Sir R. Fletcher was at the same time mortally wounded in the trenches. The troops did their duty; but it was beyond the power of gallantry to overcome the difficulties by which they were opposed.

The breach having thus proved impracticable, all the operations of the siege were to be recommenced. After this repulse, the first object of the allies was to cut off the communication, which had hitherto been maintained by sea, between the fortress and the coast of France; and with this view, Sir George Collier, with a party of marines, stormed the island of Santa Clara, at the mouth of the harbour, and took the garrison prisoners. On the 26th of August the batteries were again opened against the fort of St. Sebastian, and the fire was directed principally against the towers which flanked the curtain on the eastern face. On the 30th, the breach was deemed practicable; and on the following day, the columns destined for the attack, consisting of the 2d brigade of the 5th division, under the command of Colonel the Honourable Charles Greville, was ordered to advance, under the immediate direction and superintendence of Sir J. Leith. The moment the column filed out of the right of the trenches, the assailants became exposed to a dreadful fire of shells and grape-shot, and at the same moment the enemy exploded a mine, which did considerable execution, but which neither damped the ardour, nor checked the progress, of the heroic band against which these efforts were directed.

The storming parties had now advanced to the breach; file succeeded file; and many desperate efforts were made to gain the summit without effect. "Never was any thing," says Sir Thomas Graham, "so fallacious as the external appearance of the breach. Notwithstanding its great extent, there was but one point where it was possible to enter, and there by single files. All the inside of the wall to the right of the curtain, formed a perpendicular scarp of at least twenty feet to the level of the streets, so that the narrow ridge of the curtain itself, formed by the

breaching of its end and front, was the only accessible point. During the suspension of the operations of the siege, from want of ammunition, the enemy had prepared every means of defence which art could devise, so that great numbers of men were covered by intrenchments and traverses in the horn work, on the ramparts of the curtain—and within the town, opposite to the breach, and ready to pour a most destructive fire of musketry on both flanks of the approach to the top of the narrow ridge of the curtain. Every thing that the most determined bravery could attempt, was repeatedly tried in vain by the troops, who were brought forward from the trenches in succession. No man outlived the attempt to gain the ridge; yet a secure lodgment could never have been obtained without occupying a part of the curtain."

The breach was now covered with troops remaining in the most unfavourable situation, and unable to gain the summit; upwards of two hours of continued and severe exertion had elapsed, when Sir Thomas Graham adopted a new expedient, and ordered his guns to be turned against the curtain.* It was manifest that unless this could be done with almost unexampled precision, the assailants must have suffered more severely than their enemies—for the fire, to be effectual, must be elevated only a few feet above the heads of the allied troops in the breach. Never, perhaps, were the steadiness, coolness, and valour of British troops put to a more arduous trial, than on this occasion; never were the skill and presence of mind of British officers more requisite; but they ultimately triumphed; the French began to waver; the assailants made fresh efforts; the ravelin and left branch of the horn work were abandoned; the intrenchment within the breach was soon deserted by the enemy, and the assailants, mounting over the ruins, gained the curtain, and entered the fortress.

The troops, being now assembled in great numbers, pushed into the town, and the garrison, dispirited by their severe loss, and intimidated by the perseverance and bravery of the besiegers, were quickly driven from all their intrenchments, and compelled to seek refuge in the castle. During this sanguinary day, more than five hundred of the assailants were killed, and fifteen hundred wounded. General Graham had no sooner gained possession of the town of St. Sebastian, than he di-

rected his efforts against the castle, and his fire was so effectual and destructive, that on the 8th of September a flag of truce was hoisted by the enemy. After some discussion, the terms of surrender were agreed upon; when the French troops in the town and fortress, amounting to two thousand six hundred men, became prisoners of war, and were sent to England.(78)

On the morning of the 31st of August, the day on which St. Sebastian was stormed, Soult made another unsuccessful effort to relieve that city. With this view, he crossed the Bidassoa in great force, and attacked the Spanish troops, posted on the heights of San Marcial, on the left of that river. Never, during the peninsular war, had the Spaniards behaved with such gallantry. The attack, though extending along the whole front of the position of the Spanish troops, was resisted with cool and determined bravery; and every renewed effort to dislodge them from their position, only served to convince Soult that the nearer the Spanish forces approached to the frontiers of their country, the more resolution and valour did they display. Lord Wellington, who had not hitherto placed full confidence in the Spanish armies, had

(78) The assault of St. Sebastian is said to have been followed by a scene of outrage and horror, equal to any thing recorded in history. Not a word is said on the subject by Mr. Baines, who has given such minute details of French atrocities; but many of the principal facts have been admitted by other English writers, although their full extent has perhaps not yet been made known. A French author, who displays in general considerable impartiality, gives the following picture of this memorable affair. "On the 31st of August, General Graham ordered an assault, which terminated by the English obtaining possession of the town, with the loss of three thousand men killed in the breach. The French have been reproached with making the peninsula a scene of horror and devastation. Nothing, however, can equal the crimes committed by the allies on the 31st of August. Neither age nor sex were respected. Friends and enemies were indiscriminately massacred, and the English soldiers may be said to have glutted themselves with blood. The pillage continued four days, under the eyes of the officers, who took no pains to repress these shameful excesses. To put the finishing stroke to their enormities, they left standing only seventeen houses in this once opulent city. These were preserved by a kind of miracle. The rest fell a prey to the flames. Thus was destroyed the capital of Guipascos, which had devoted itself to Ferdinand, and sacrificed in his cause the flower of its youth."—*Précis Historique de la Guerre d'Espagne, &c. par A. Carel, p. 165.*"

* It is true, the allied army on this occasion behaved most atrociously; but their conduct was publicly stated in Lord Wellington's despatches; and as a punishment, one of the British regiments of cavalry was dismounted, and several of the Spanish regiments were disgraced by being ordered to the rear of the army.—W. G.

* This was not then a new expedient: it is called *battering in breach*, and was frequently before practised on similar occasions.—W. G.

posted a British division on each of their flanks; but the valour of the native troops was found equal to the occasion, and no auxiliary aid was necessary to secure their success.

Every thing now indicated the intention of the British commander to cross the Pyrenees, and to carry the war into the heart of France; and this measure was delayed only until the rear of the allied army should be secured by the fall of Pampluna. In the mean time, it appeared expedient to Lord Wellington to cross the Bidassoa, and to drive the enemy from the posts which he was fortifying behind that river. On the 7th of October, the allied army, following up this intention, crossed the Bidassoa in front of Andaye, and near to the Montagne Verte. The British and Portuguese troops, in performing these operations, took seven pieces of cannon, and the Spaniards, who now began to occupy a distinguished part in the hostile movements against the enemy, crossed the fords above the bridge, and added another piece of ordnance to the trophies of the day. At the same time, Major-general Baron Alton made a successful attack on the light division of the enemy at Puerto de Fera, while Don Pegiron attacked and carried the French intrenchments on the mountain of La Riuna. On the morning of the 8th, the attack was renewed on the right of the enemy's position, by the same troops, and all his posts were carried in the most gallant manner.

The ulterior object of the campaign was now accomplished: France was entered, and that country, which, for twenty years, had never been trodden by a hostile hoof, saw a mighty invading army established within its frontier. A new epoch in the war was thus celebrated—a victory had been gained by a British general within the French territories. How many reflections crowded at once upon the mind! Not ten years had passed, since Great Britain was arming her whole population to resist a French invasion, and now her troops were invading France. In 1803, no man doubted that a descent upon the British shores would be attempted; and the legislature was occupied almost exclusively in devising means to repel the menaced danger. In 1813, almost the first proceeding of the legislature, on the assembling of parliament in the winter of that year, was to vote thanks to the brave troops who had defeated the enemy upon his own territories, and established a British army on the fields of France. History does not furnish an instance of greater crime, or an example of deeper perfidy, than was exhibited in the invasion of Spain; but mark

the result! The unburied bones of half a million of Frenchmen whitened the valleys and mountains of the invaded country. Spain and Portugal were saved, and France, the invader and oppressor, was now herself defeated and invaded.

Lord Wellington, with a delicate and laudable attention to national feeling, had delegated to the Spanish general, Don Carlos d'Espagna, the command of the blockade of Pampluna, with authority to conclude a capitulation. For four months, this city resisted all the efforts of the besiegers; but, finding at length that all prospects of relief or reinforcement had vanished, the governor, on the 26th of October, proposed to capitulate, on the condition that the garrison should be permitted to march into France with six pieces of cannon. These terms, as might have been foreseen, were peremptorily refused; and on the 31st of that month, the fortress surrendered, and the troops were marched to the port of Passages as prisoners of war.

All the impediments which had hitherto stood in the way of the advance of the allies into France, were now removed; and the enemy, who had so lately aimed at the entire subjugation of the peninsula, sought only to defend the approaches to his own territories. For this purpose, he established two successive lines of defence—the one along the river Nivelle, the other immediately in the front of Bayonne. These lines, ever since the battle of Vittoria, he had been diligently employed in fortifying, and until he was driven from them, the British troops would endeavour in vain to advance into the interior of the empire. The better to provide for defence, a decree had been recently issued by the government at Paris, by which a new levy of thirty thousand conscripts was to be drawn from the provinces immediately bordering upon the Pyrenees, and the reinforcements derived from this source had already begun to assemble.

Lord Wellington's advance was delayed for a few days by the heavy rains and the bad state of the roads; but on the 10th of November the whole army was brought forward, and enabled to commence its attack upon the French intrenched position along the Nivelle. After a desperate resistance, the heights on the Nivelle were carried, and the enemy being driven from all his strong and fortified positions in the centre, Lord Wellington directed his troops to advance upon the rear of the right wing of the French army; but before this movement had been completed, night intervened, and arrested the progress of the allies. The enemy, availing himself

of this opportunity, quitted his positions, and retired upon Bedart, leaving the ground which he had occupied in possession of the allies. As the affairs of this sanguinary day, consisted wholly in the storming of intrenched positions, and lasted for nearly twelve hours, the loss was necessarily considerable, and amounted to two thousand five hundred British and Portuguese killed and wounded, exclusive of Spaniards, of whose loss no regular return was made.

The enemy now retired into his last line of defence, which was formed by the intrenched camp in front of Bayonne. The left occupied the peninsula formed by the confluence of the Adour and the Nive, where it communicated with the army of Catalonia; the right and centre extended from the left bank of the Nive to the Adour below Bayonne; and the front was here defended by an impassable morass. Lord Wellington, on surveying a position thus defended by nature and art, judged it impregnable against any direct attack. A movement to the right, to threaten the rear of the enemy, and his communication with France, seemed therefore to afford the only chance of success. Operations were again delayed by the condition of the roads; but, on the 8th of December, Generals Hill and Beresford were, in conformity with Lord Wellington's plans, directed to cross the Nive with two divisions. On the 9th and 10th, these movements were performed to the entire satisfaction of the commander-in-chief; and Soult now became aware that unless some vigorous measures were taken to arrest the progress of the allies, his position must soon become untenable. Under this persuasion, he instantly determined to attack, with his whole force, that part of the allied army which had not passed the Nive, and thus to induce the British general to recall his advanced divisions. The efforts of the French general, though made with a degree of energy and decision amounting almost to desperation, failed at every point; and the termination

of this action was marked by the defection of the Dutch and German regiments of Nassau and Francfort, which went over to the allies. On the 12th, the enemy again attempted to drive the British right from its positions, and the conflict continued without intermission for several hours; but being again repulsed, they retired within their intrenched camp, and abandoned all thoughts of making any impression in this quarter.

On the 13th, Soult resolved to make an entire change in his operations. Having shown so much pertinacity in his attacks on the British right; and having, by so many efforts, produced, as he thought, a firm persuasion in the mind of Lord Wellington that his whole attention would still be directed to this quarter, he determined to move his whole force suddenly through Bayonne, and fall upon the division of General Sir Rowland Hill. This determination reflects credit on the skill of the French marshal; but in this instance, as on many former occasions, he found he had to contend with a general, who anticipates the movements of his antagonists, dives into their plans, and provides for every exigency. Lord Wellington, having foreseen this attack, had reinforced Sir Rowland Hill: it appears, however, that even if his lordship had not taken this precaution, Soult would have failed in his attempt, for Sir Rowland Hill's troops alone defeated the enemy with immense loss. Such was the issue of these conflicts, which continued for five days. The loss on both sides was considerable, but the success of the allies was complete, and by the result of these engagements, they became firmly established between the Nive and the Adour, while the enemy, driven to the necessity of quitting his intrenched camp before Bayonne, was compelled to retreat farther into France, and found only in the state of the weather and the wretched situation of the roads, a temporary respite from the disasters that still awaited his crest-fallen legions.

CHAPTER XXII.

CAMPAIGN IN GERMANY: Gigantic Preparations made by France—Reconciliation between Napoleon and Pope Pius VII.—The Emperor appointed Regent—Advance of the Russians from the Vistula—Invitation held out by the Emperor Alexander to the King of Prussia—Singular Situation of Prussia at this Moment—Offer made by Frederick William to mediate between the Belligerents—Rejected—Prussia declares against France—The Allies enter Saxony—Prussian Preparations—Political Relations between France and Sweden—Re-establishment of Peace between Sweden and Great Britain—Treaty of Alliance formed by those Powers—Situation of Denmark—Hamburg entered by the Russians—Re-occupied by the French—Napoleon takes the Field—Approximation of the Grand Armies—Battle of Lützen—Retreat of the Allies—Entry of the French into Dresden—Battle of Bautzen—Advance of the French—Armistice under the Mediation of Austria—Terms of Peace proposed by the Emperor Francis—Rejected by Napoleon—Denunciation of the Armistice.

THE tide of Russian victory had rolled on from Moscow to the Niemen; and while the armies of France had sunk under its overwhelming influence, the Emperor Napoleon had repaired to Paris to create new armies, with the determination to try once more the fortune of war. This extraordinary man was now to be seen in a new character. He, who had always hitherto detailed victories the most splendid, and had, in no ambiguous language, held himself out as superior to all the casualties of war, was, for the first time, obliged to confess, in the face of his legislative body, that the charm of invincibility was dissolved; that a heavy calamity had fallen upon his army; that he had experienced great losses—losses so terrible that they would have broken his heart, if, in these great circumstances, he could have been accessible to any other sentiments than those of the interest, the glory, and the future prosperity of his people.—The frowns of fortune had altered his situation, but they had not changed his language. He still spoke of peace, but he prepared for war. Peace was his desire; it was necessary to the world; but he would never make any but an honourable peace, and one conformable to the interests and grandeur of his empire. The misfortunes produced by the hoar-frosts had indeed manifested themselves in all their extent; but the solidity of an empire, founded upon the efforts and love of fifty millions of citizens, and upon the territorial resources of one of the finest countries in the world, was not to be shaken by them. The magnitude of those resources, it was the business of his minister of the interior to develop; and in the annual *expose*, presented by that officer in the month of February, it was stated, that since the commencement of the revolution, the population of Old France had increased from twenty-six to forty-two millions of souls; that the annual value of the agricultural produce of France amounted to 5,031,000,000 livres;

that their manufactures of silk, wool, metal, glass, porcelain, &c. had swelled to 1,300,000,000 livres; and that their exports were estimated at 383,000,000, and their imports at 257,000,000 livres. By this commerce, France was enabled to keep nine hundred thousand men under arms; to maintain one hundred thousand sailors; to keep one hundred ships of the line, and as many frigates, complete or building; and to expend every year from one hundred and twenty to one hundred and fifty millions in public works.

What effect the speech of Napoleon and the exposition of his minister had in rallying the drooping spirits of the French people, it is difficult to ascertain. Such were the restrictions of the press, that public feelings and sentiments were never permitted to transpire, except when they were flattering or favourable to the plans and views of the government. Here lies the wide distinction between a free and a despotic government—under both, the people can offer the tribute of adulation on the altar of power; but the privilege of freely canvassing, and even of publicly censuring, the conduct of governors, exists only in free states, and every infringement of that invaluable right is a step towards arbitrary sway. That the military resources of France were still formidable, may be collected from the fact, that by a *senatus consultum*, promulgated on the 11th of January, a levy of fresh troops, to the amount of three hundred and fifty thousand, was placed at the disposal of the minister of war; and so potent was the operation of the laws of conscription, that a few weeks only were necessary to carry into effect this sweeping edict. The conscripts, which consisted of a larger proportion than usual of boys, and included numbers of men beyond the appointed age of military service, were marched off in succession to Germany, to join, or rather to constitute, the grand French army. The active energies of the French government were kept, in

the early months of the present year, in the most vigorous exercise, and by the unremitting assiduity of every branch of the public service, a large numerical force was collected in the beginning of April on the banks of the Elbe; though that force was of a very different description from the veteran army that Bonaparte had, about the same period in the last year, marched against Russia. His cavalry and artillery in particular were extremely inferior; and it was on these two branches, especially on the artillery, that he had been accustomed to depend for his victories.

Before Bonaparte left Paris, to place himself at the head of his army, he effected a reconciliation with Pope Pius VII. who was now at Fontainebleau, and the distractions of the Gallican church were healed by a concordat, signed between his holiness and the emperor on the 25th of January. The manner in which the pope had been treated, had produced a strong sensation in France; and though Bonaparte might disregard these feelings during the full tide of victory, he now felt that they were no longer to be treated with contempt; he therefore proposed to restore to the pope the territories of the church, and to reinstate him in his former dignity. These proposals were accepted; and "the holy father, in consideration of the actual state of the church, and the confidence with which the emperor had inspired him," agreed to abrogate the decree of excommunication fulminated against Napoleon, to legalize his marriage with the Austrian Archduchess, and to give the canonical investiture to the persons appointed to the French bishoprics.

The formation of a provisional government was the next object that engaged the attention of the French emperor previously to his departure for Germany. The empress was accordingly declared regent during his absence; and the King of Rome was nominated, in a more solemn manner than hitherto, successor to the Napoleon throne. Having thus taken what he conceived to be all due precautions, and sent on before him an immense body of troops, Bonaparte closed the session of the legislative body in a speech full of his usual confidence, in which the French nation were led to cherish the hope, that the laurels which had been blighted by the inhospitable climate of the Beresina, would revive, and put forth their wantoned luxuriance, on the genial banks of the Elbe.

While the note of preparation thus resounded through all the departments of France, the Russian government, determined to complete the work so auspiciously begun, called forth new and extensive

levies, and invited the other powers of Europe to rally round the standard of national independence. In conformity with this policy, it was ordered that a general levy should take place throughout the empire, of eight men for every five hundred, and that the levy should commence in each government within two weeks, and end within a month from the publication of the order. The arm of the giant, said the Emperor Alexander, is broken, but his destructive strength must be prevented from reviving; and his power over the nations who serve him out of terror, taken away. Russia, extensive, rich, and pacific, sought no conquests—wished not to dispose of thrones. She desired tranquillity for herself, and for all. Peace and independence were her objects. These his majesty offered, together with assistance to every people, who, being at present obliged to oppose him, should abandon the cause of Napoleon, in order to pursue their real interests. Ages might elapse before an opportunity equally favourable would again present itself; and it would be an abuse of the goodness of Providence, not to take advantage of this crisis, to accomplish the great work of the equilibrium of Europe, and thereby to ensure public tranquillity, and individual happiness. To Prussia, in particular, this invitation to take advantage of the fortunate opening which the Russian arms had produced, was addressed. It was the wish of his imperial majesty to put an end to her calamities—to demonstrate to her king the friendship which he preserves for him—and to restore the monarchy of Frederick to its glory and extent. Under the hope that his Prussian majesty would be animated by the sentiments which this frank declaration ought to produce, positive orders were given to the Russian armies, on their entrance into the Prussian provinces, to avoid every thing that could betray a spirit of hostility, and to endeavour to soften, as far as a state of war would permit, the evils which, for a short time, must result from their occupation.

Such were the invitations held out by Russia to induce the states of Europe to declare against France; and these invitations were not unavailing. It has been seen that the Prussian General D'Yorck, at the conclusion of the last campaign, withdrew his whole force from the French army under Marshal Macdonald, and concluded a convention with the Russians,* by which the Prussian troops engaged to remain neutral in Eastern Prussia. The Prussians everywhere received the Rus-

* See chap. xix. p. 242.

sian troops as deliverers, and supplied them willingly with provisions; and in return for this hospitable conduct, the most rigorous discipline was observed by the advancing army.

Prussia, at this period, stood in a peculiar situation. The capital was in the hands of a French garrison; but the inhabitants favoured the Russians, and flattered themselves that the king, with the troops he was collecting in Silesia, would declare against the French. What were the real intentions of the king, or whether he had come to a decision, it was difficult to discover. Now, as on former occasions, he seemed to be balancing between conflicting opinions, feeling, no doubt, a strong bias towards Russia, but fearing again to commit himself with a power whose vengeance experience had taught him how to estimate. Throughout the month of January, Berlin exhibited daily scenes of tumult and disorder; and to such a height was the popular fervour against the French carried, that the inhabitants rose against them, and actually confined them to their barracks. A regency had been established in the name of the king at Königsberg, of which the discarded minister Stein, who had been an object of French persecution, was the president; and this temporary government had issued a proclamation, calling on the loyal and patriotic inhabitants of Prussia to step forward and rescue their king and country from thralldom. This call was not made in vain; the young men ran eagerly to arms, and joined their brethren under the command of General D'Yorck, who had been nominated by the regency commander of the patriotic army.

In this state of things, the King of Prussia, who had suddenly removed from Potsdam to Breslau, offered himself as a mediator between the belligerents. On the 15th of February, his majesty proposed a truce, on the conditions that the Russians should retire behind the Vistula, and the French behind the Elbe, leaving Prussia and all her fortresses free from foreign occupation. These terms, which seemed sufficiently favourable to France, Bonaparte thought proper to reject, while the Emperor Alexander, without coming to any very explicit explanation, evinced such sentiments of liberality towards the Prussian monarch and nation, as did not fail to ensure their attachment. This was the moment seized upon by the patriots of Prussia, to surround their sovereign at Breslau, and to fix his wavering purpose. The time, they said, had at length arrived, to shake off the degrading yoke, to which, in common with all Germany, their nation had been so long subjected. These re-

monstrances prevailed. On the 29d of February, a treaty of peace and alliance, offensive and defensive, was concluded between the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia, and a system of combined military operations was one of the first acts of the confederated sovereigns.

In rendering an account of the motives for the war which was now commenced, and in calling forth the energy and zeal of his subjects, the King of Prussia declared, that his country was bowed down under the superior power of France: that peace which deprived him of half his subjects, procured no blessings, but was on the contrary more injurious than war itself: that the country was impoverished; the fortresses occupied by the enemy; agriculture neglected; industry paralyzed; and by the new system, the liberty of trade annihilated. "Prussians," exclaimed the king, "you know what you have suffered during the last seven years. You know what a miserable fate awaits you, if we do not honourably finish the war which is now commenced. We are engaged in the last decisive contest, for our existence as an independent people. There is no medium between an honourable peace and inglorious ruin."

Very different from the conduct of the King of Prussia, was the determination of the sovereign of Saxony. The irruption of the allied armies into his dominions, which now took place, determined him to quit Dresden, and to identify his interests with the interests of France. On abandoning his capital, he issued a proclamation, recommending to his subjects a peaceable demeanour; and reminded them, that the political system to which he had for the last six years attached himself, was that to which the state had been indebted for its preservation amid the most imminent dangers. General Blücher, however, who had signalized himself after the battle of Jena, and on whom a leading and extensive command was now conferred, took a different view of the interests of Saxony; and in calling upon the people of that country to raise the standard of insurrection against the French, his language was singular and characteristic: "In the north of Europe," said he, "the Lord of Hosts has held a dreadful court of justice, and the angel of death has cut off three hundred thousand of those strangers, by the sword, famine, and cold, from that earth, which they, in the insolence of their prosperity, would have brought under the yoke. We march wherever the finger of the Lord directs us, to fight for the security of the ancient thrones and our national independence. With us, come a valiant people, who have

boldly driven back oppression, and, with a high feeling, have promised liberty to the subjugated nations. We announce to you the morning of a new day. Saxons! rise, join us; raise the standard of insurrection against foreign oppressors, and be free. Your sovereign is in the power of foreigners, deprived of the freedom of determination, deploring the steps which a treacherous policy forced him to take. We shall no more attribute them to him, than we shall cause you to suffer for them. The friend of German independence will by us be considered as our brother; the weak-minded wanderer we will lead with tenderness into the right road; but the dishonourable, despicable tool of foreign tyranny, we will pursue to the utmost rigour, as an enemy to our common country."

Prussia now became a camp; the friends of French politics were banished from the cabinet, and the generals distinguished by their resolute opposition to French influence, were invested with new and effectual powers. The whole country between the Elbe and the Oder was divided into four military districts, under the command of L'Estocq, Tauenzien, Massenbach, and Gotzen; the militia was called out; the *landsturm*, or *levy-en-masse*, was ordered; volunteers enrolled themselves on all sides, and the national enthusiasm was universally directed to one object. Commerce, like politics, underwent an entire change in Prussia; on the 20th of March, the continental system was abolished, a new tariff was promulgated for the importation of goods into Prussia, and all French merchandise was prohibited. The French troops having quitted Berlin, the Russian General Czernicheff arrived in that city; and on the 11th of March Count Wittgenstein made his public entry into the capital, where he was hailed with enthusiasm.

The accession of Prussia, the treaty formed between Great Britain and Sweden, and the great armaments now preparing in the north of Germany, swelled the power of Russia into a formidable confederacy. The fidelity of all the foreign troops in the French service became suspected by Bonaparte; and with a much lower proportion of sagacity than he possessed, it might already be perceived that they would avail themselves of the first favourable opportunity to desert his standard. In these circumstances, it was judged necessary to make an addition, even to the immense preparations which he had already contemplated. Ninety thousand men of the conscription of 1814, who had been originally destined for the reserve, were now rendered disposable, and ninety thou-

sand more were raised by a sort of retrospective conscription. The cities and municipalities were invited to equip new corps of cavalry, to replace that part of the army which had entirely perished during the Russian campaign; and as these raw levies could not be led at once against the enemy, every resource which experience and ingenuity could suggest, was exhausted to confer on them that discipline in which they were deficient. Officers were procured, either by drafts from Spain, or by selecting the subalterns of the regiments which had escaped from Russia; and a large camp was formed upon the Maine, where the preparation of the young soldiers for the field could be carried on without danger of interruption from the approach of the enemy.

For two years, the political relations between France and Sweden had been in a state bordering on hostility. So early as the month of October, 1810, Bonaparte had menaced Sweden with hostility. That country, he said, had engaged by treaty to break off all engagements and communications with England, while a Swedish minister was suffered to remain in London, and an English agent in Stockholm. The small islands of Sweden had served as magazines in the winter season for English merchandise, and the vessels of that nation had openly carried colonial produce into Germany. This, he said, was not to be endured. There was no longer any neutrals: England acknowledged none, nor could he acknowledge them any longer. A maritime peace must be had at any price. Sweden must now take her choice; cannon must be fired on the English which approached her coast; their merchandise in Sweden must be confiscated, or she must have open war with France. The decision must be immediate; and if, within five days from the official notification of this determination at the court of Stockholm, the king had not resolved to be at war with England, Sweden should have war with France and all her allies.*

In vain did the King of Sweden yield to this mandate by declaring war against England. France next demanded a considerable body of seamen for the purpose of manning her fleet at Brest—a corps of Swedish troops to be placed in the pay of France—a tariff of 50 per centum on colonial produce, and finally, the establishment of French douaniers at Gottenburg.† All these demands were re-

* Conference between the Emperor Napoleon and Baron de Lagerbjelke, at Paris.

† Report of M. D'Engestrom, Swedish minister, for foreign affairs, dated January 7, 1813.

jected by the Swedish government, and the consequence was, that the measures of France towards Sweden soon assumed a character of decided hostility. In the mean time, the depredations made by the French on Swedish vessels were daily augmented, and the prize courts in Paris almost uniformly decided in favour of the captors. These proceedings were soon afterwards followed by the seizure of Swedish Pomerania and the Isle of Rugen by French troops, who did not hesitate to arrest the public functionaries, and, after disarming two Swedish regiments, to send them as prisoners of war into France. Against these accumulated wrongs, Sweden continued to remonstrate; but her complaints were disregarded; and at length, finding all her efforts to maintain a neutral attitude unavailing, the court of Stockholm concluded a peace with Great Britain on the 18th of July, 1812, which was ratified on the 16th of the following month. In the beginning of the year 1813, war, between Sweden and France had become inevitable, and on the third of March, a treaty was entered into between the courts of London and Stockholm, by which Sweden bound herself to employ a corps of thirty thousand men, under the command of the crown-prince, against the common enemy; to act with the troops which were to be furnished by Russia and Prussia; and to grant to Great Britain for twenty years the right of entrepot in the ports of Gottenburg, Carlsham, and Stralsund. In return for these services and concessions, Great Britain acceded to the engagements already subsisting between Sweden and Russia, and bound herself not to oppose the annexation of Norway to Sweden, but to afford the necessary naval co-operation, should the King of Denmark refuse to accede to the grand alliance. The British government further agreed to grant Sweden a subsidy of one million sterling for the service of the campaign of the year, and to cede to her the possession of the island of Guadaloupe, in the West Indies. This treaty gave rise to much discussion in England, both in and out of parliament; and that feature of the treaty in particular which guaranteed to Sweden the kingdom of Norway, received, as it deserved, very general reprobation.

The situation of Denmark, when the affairs of Bonaparte began to assume an unfavourable appearance, was critical and perplexing. The attack of the English on Copenhagen, in the year 1807, still rankled in the heart of the Danish sovereign, and it is highly probable that in this feeling a large proportion of his subjects sympa-

thized with him. But, on the other hand, the misery they had suffered on account of the war with England, and the danger to which they now stood exposed, when France could no longer stretch out to them the hand of protection, induced the Danish government to despatch Count Bernstorff to London, to propose terms of accommodation. Unhappily, the treaty with Sweden, so recently entered into, interposed a formidable obstacle to the re-establishment of the relations of peace, and the Danish minister returned to Copenhagen, without having effected the object of his mission.

Thus, it will be perceived, that at the opening of the campaign in 1813, Great Britain, Russia, Prussia, and Sweden, were leagued against France. England indeed could afford little military aid in Germany; but she was fighting the cause of the allies in Spain; and, as usual, she was liberal in her pecuniary assistance. The Emperor Alexander, at the same time, put forth all his might; and all the resources of his extensive, but unwieldy empire, were cheerfully devoted by him to the cause in which he had so ardently embarked. Prussia, greatly exhausted by the exactions and contributions drawn from her by France, could not bring into the field very numerous armies; but her soldiers were animated by the best spirit; her generals were experienced, and not only incorruptible, but inflamed by a deep hatred against Bonaparte; while her peasantry were eager to rise in defence of their sovereign and their country. The crown-prince had landed an army in Pomerania, composed of most excellent troops, brought into a high state of discipline under his own immediate inspection, feeling towards their commander the most profound respect, and reposing in him the most implicit confidence. The designs of Austria had not yet developed themselves. The family alliance seemed to forbid the expectation that Francis would take any decisive part against his son-in-law, though it was clear, from the faint and reluctant co-operation afforded by Austria in the Russian campaign, that the gigantic power of France, in the hands of its present ruler, was not viewed with perfect complacency at the court of Vienna. For some time, it was doubtful whether Bonaparte, in the German campaign which he was about to commence, would have the assistance of Murat, and his Neapolitan troops; since it was well known, that the King of Naples, soon after Napoleon had left the shattered remnant of his army in Russia to his care, withdrew in disgust from its command, and freely censured the inordinate ambition to which so many lives had been

sacrificed. Murat, however, probably perceiving that his own power and that of Bonaparte must stand or fall together, at length consented to repair to Germany, and to take the command of the cavalry force collected for that campaign.

The Russians, animated by the hope that they should be joined by the people of Germany, as soon as they were freed from the dread and presence of the French, conceived it to be their policy to spread themselves as much as possible over the northern parts of that empire; and in the early part of the year, their light troops pushed down the banks of the Elbe towards Hamburg. On the approach of the force under General Tettenborne, the enemy quitted Hamburg in great haste, and the Russians were received amid the acclamations of the citizens. But the joy and tranquillity of the Hamburgers were of short duration. The Russians had spread themselves over a greater extent of country than they could retain; and the French, under Marshal Davoust, having rallied and collected their scattered forces, again advanced on the 8th of May, to the city from which they had been so recently expelled. From the 8th to the 30th, Hamburg was defended by the military and the citizens with distinguished bravery; but at eight o'clock in the morning of the latter day, General Tettenborne, finding the place no longer tenable, withdrew his troops, and the people were again suffered to pass under the French yoke. Many other places in the north of Germany, of which the Russians had obtained temporary possession, soon fell again into the power of the enemy; and this part of the plan of the campaign, which seems to have been adopted on a too sanguine calculation of a general rising of the people, evinced little skill, policy, or information.

While the light troops of Russia advanced into the north of Germany, the fortresses on the Vistula were closely besieged by other corps of the Russian army. On the 16th of April, the garrison of Thorn, consisting of 400 Poles, 3,500 Bavarians, and a few French troops, surrendered to General Count Langeron. The trophies of this success were two hundred pieces of cannon; and nearly the whole of the Bavarian and Polish regiments enrolled themselves under the patriotic standard. On the 18th, Spandau, situated near Berlin, on the river Spree, capitulated to the Russians; and on the 4th of May, the fortress of Czentokaw opened its gates to Lieutenant-general Von Sacken.

On the 15th of April, at one o'clock in the morning, the Emperor Napoleon set out from Paris to put himself at the head

of his army, and at midnight on the 16th he arrived at Mentz. The principal body of his old troops were placed under Beauharnois, in the neighbourhood of Magdeburg; but as soon as Bonaparte assumed the command of the new levies, the viceroy began to move towards the upper part of the Saale, with a view of forming a junction with the force under the emperor, in the vicinity of Jena.

On the 19th, a sharp affair took place near Weimar, between a body of Prussians and the advance of Marshal Ney's corps, under the command of General Souham; the Prussians, who behaved nobly, drove the enemy thrice through the town; but they were at length obliged to yield to superior numbers, and to retreat behind Jena. Towards the end of the month, the advanced posts of the adverse armies were on the opposite banks of the Saale, and it now became evident that a general engagement was fast approaching.

On the advance of the Russian armies to the Elbe, the gallant veteran Prince Kutusoff, overcome by the mental and bodily exertion imposed upon him by his exalted situation, was taken ill at Buntzlau, and on the 16th of April died in that city. A fit successor of the lamented Kutusoff was found in General Wittgenstein, who was now invested with the chief command of the allied armies. The Russian force was at this period divided into three armies; the first, under Count Wittgenstein, the commander-in-chief; the second, under General Tschikakoff; and the third, under General Winzingerode. Wittgenstein's main force had crossed the Elbe, in order to drive the French back upon the Maine. Part of Tschikakoff's army was still in the vicinity of Thorn, while another division was employed under Platoff, in the siege of Dantzic. Winzingerode's army was distributed at different stations on the Elbe, stretching from Lunenburg to Dresden; while large reinforcements were advancing from the Vistula, without suffering the fortresses in their rear to retard that advance. The Prussian force under General Blucher had removed from Silesia into Saxony, and General D'York was at Berlin with the main army; while a Swedish force was at the same time at Stralsund, under the crown-prince. The whole Russian force with which it was stated the campaign would open, was estimated, most erroneously, at two hundred and twenty thousand; the Prussians at seventy thousand, and the Swedes at fifty thousand; making an aggregate of three hundred and forty thousand men. These magnificent prospects however were never realized. The Russian army which crossed

the Vistula, and arrived on the Elbe, never exceeded one hundred thousand men, and the Prussian and Swedish force united could not, by a fair estimate, be taken at a higher number.

The French forces at this time assembled on the scene of action, were estimated at one hundred and seventy thousand men; and on the 25th of April the Emperor Napoleon arrived at Erfurt, from whence he ordered all the divisions of his army to move in the direction of Leipzig. A sharp battle took place, on the 1st of May, on the plains between Weissenfels and Lutzen; in which, the French claimed the advantage; "but, by one of those fatalities of which the history of war is full, the first cannon ball which was fired on this day, struck the wrist of Marshal Bessieres, the Duke of Istria, pierced his groin, and killed him instantly." On the morning of the 2d, Napoleon advanced at the head of his army into the plain of Lutzen, with the view of reaching Leipzig, and throwing himself upon the rear of the allied armies.* To defeat the object of this movement, the whole of the allied forces suddenly crossed the Elster, and commenced a grand attack upon the enemy. The contest that ensued was one of the most sanguinary description. The Russians and Prussians fought under the command of General Wittgenstein, in the presence of the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia, and the French under Bonaparte. The left of the French army formed by the viceroy, having under his command the 5th and 11th corps, leaned upon the Elster. The centre was commanded by Marshal Ney, in the village of Kaja. The emperor, with the young and old guard, was at Lutzen; and Marshal Marmont, who commanded the right, was placed at the defile of Poserna. In the order of battle formed by the allies, General Blucher formed the first line; the

corps formerly belonging to Count Wittgenstein, the second; and the corps of General Winzingerode, together with the Russian guards and grenadiers, the reserve. The position occupied by the French was remarkable for its strength: behind them, was a rising ground, and a succession of villages; in front, there was a hollow way, through which ran a stream of considerable depth; and thus supported in front and rear, they awaited the attack of the allies. These advantages were much increased by an immense quantity of ordnance, which was distributed through the line, and in the valleys; besides batteries in the open country, supported by masses of infantry in solid squares. The allies had the advantage in cavalry, but the superiority of numbers was on the side of the French. Bonaparte, aware of these circumstances, exclaimed at the beginning of the battle:—"It is a battle like those in Egypt: a good infantry, supported by artillery, should be sufficient to secure victory."

The villages of Gross-Gorschen, Klein-Gorschen, Rahno, Kaja, and Starsiedel, occupied by the French, are in the vicinity of each other, and form a kind of irregular square; and the plan of the allies was, by directing the principal weight of their attack against the right wing of the enemy, to take these villages and to occupy them with an advanced-guard. With this concentration of force, it was their intention to throw back the right wing of Napoleon from the direct road to the Saale, and with their numerous mass of cavalry, to turn this wing by a furious charge on his flank and rear, and thus to decide the fortune of the day. The battle commenced at noon, by the attack of the village of Gross-Gorschen. From three to four batteries were erected within eight hundred yards, and the village was heavily cannonaded. The enemy's battalions, which were drawn up before the village, supported the fire with distinguished firmness, but the Prussian brigade advanced with so much steadiness and impetuosity, that the French were at length driven from their position. From this moment, all the corps came successively into action, and the battle became general. The village of Gross-Gorschen was disputed with unexampled obstinacy; six times it was taken and retaken by the bayonet, and at last remained in the hands of the allies. For several hours, the conflict was dubious; and the discharges of musketry raged with such indescribable destruction, that the number of killed and wounded in this part of the field was immense. The artillery was gradually brought forward by the hostile armies, on a field of about fifteen hundred yards

* *Official Statement of the French Army previous to the Battle of Lutzen.*

Six battalions of old guards, and sixteen of young guards, under Marshal Mortier,	16,000
Third corps, under Marshal Ney, consisting of five divisions,	45,000
Sixth corps, under Marshal Marmont, consisting of three divisions,	25,000
Fourth corps, under Count Bertrand, consisting of three divisions,	25,000
Twelfth corps, under Marshal Oudinot, consisting of three divisions,	25,000
Fifth corps, under Count Lauriston, consisting of two divisions,	15,000
Eleventh corps, under Marshal Macdonald, consisting of two divisions,	15,000
Cavalry of the guards, under Marshal Bessieres,	4,000

Total, 170,000

square, intersected by villages, hamlets, meadows, and ditches, and slaughter in all its horrors reigned triumphant.

The enemy, determined, if possible, to regain possession of the captured villages, brought up continually numerous bodies of fresh troops, and at last obtained a superiority of numbers so decided, as to oblige the weakened battalions of the allies to evacuate Klein-Gorschen. This success was only temporary; the Prussians, again led on, and inspired by their generals, profited by some fortunate changes in the French cavalry, and Napoleon was once more deprived of his precarious advantage.

Obstinate as was the contest on the wings, the great efforts of infantry, cavalry, and artillery, were made in the centre. The village of Kaja, which formed the pivot of the French position, was taken and retaken several times. In the afternoon of this sanguinary day, the viceroy came up with his corps, and entered the French lines at the moment when Marshal Macdonald was attacking the Russian reserve. The allies now redoubled their efforts; the French centre gave way (*Aechil*), some of their battalions fled in disorder, and the village of Kaja was again taken. Napoleon, judging that the critical moment which decides the fate of battles had now arrived, ordered the Marshal Mortier to march with sixteen battalions of the young guards to the disputed village of Kaja, which, after an ardent contest, was again carried, and passed into the hands of the French.

Night now approached, and the villages which formed the grand object of the contest, remained, some of them in the hands of the allies, and others in possession of the French. To maintain the conquered ground during the night, required the advance of a larger body of infantry than the allies had in reserve; it was therefore determined to attempt, in the obscurity of the night, to surprise the enemy by an unexpected charge of cavalry, which, if successful, might lead to very important results. In this nocturnal service, nine squadrons of the Prussian reserve cavalry were employed, and the advanced troops of the enemy were charged with undaunted bravery, broken, and warmly pursued; but the enormous masses of the enemy's infantry in the rear, combined with the darkness of the night, and the hollow way which the cavalry was obliged to pass, defeated the object of this attempt, and served still further to weaken troops already reduced by a murderous cannonade of eight hours' duration.

The allied army had now no other alter-

native than to make good their retreat, and with as little sacrifice as possible. On the 3d, they marched to Borne and Altenburg; on the 4th, to Rochlitz and Colditz; and on the 7th, they crossed the Elbe, taking the road to Bautzen, where a battle, still more sanguinary than that which has just been recorded, was soon to be fought.

In consequence of this retreat, Bonaparte claimed the victory in the battle of Lutzen; but that it was by no means such a victory as he had been accustomed to achieve, was sufficiently evident. The vanquished were left to retreat in perfect order, and the victors had to boast neither of prisoners nor of trophies. The loss on both sides was extremely severe; but in this, as in the estimate of the numbers engaged by the hostile armies, the accounts published in the court gazettes are so contradictory, that no certain information can be collected from them.* The loss of the allies was aggravated by the death of Major the Prince of Hesse-Homburg, who fell in this battle, together with an unusual proportion of officers of the leading families in Prussia. Generals Blucher and Kanovitz, with several other general officers in the Russian and Prussian service, were among the wounded; and General Gouril, the chief of Marshal Ney's staff, was numbered among the slain. The allies considered the battle of Lutzen as a momentous crisis, upon which the fate of nations seemed to depend; and the French emperor, in communicating the details of the battle, informed her majesty the empress, queen, and regent, "that this action, like a clap of thunder, had pulverized the chimerical hopes, and all the calculations for the destruction of the empire; and that the cloudy train collected by the cabinet of St. James's during a whole winter, was thus in an instant destroyed, like the Gordian knot by the sword of Alexander." "Europe," continues Napoleon, "would at length be at peace, if the sovereigns, and the ministers who direct their cabinets, could have been present on the field of battle."

Bonaparte still followed up his original plan of pushing on to Leipzig, from whence he advanced to Dresden, and entered that city on the 8th of May. On the 13th, the King of Saxony proceeded to his capital,

* In the official account of the Russians it is said, "The loss of the Russian and Prussian troops is great, nor shall we over-rate it, if we estimate it at from 8 to 10,000 men in killed and wounded, but most of the latter only slightly; the loss of the enemy is to double or treble this amount." "Our loss," says the tenth bulletin of the French army, "amounts to 10,000 men killed and wounded; that of the enemy may be estimated at 25 or 30,000 men."

escorted by a French guard, and the spectacle, according to the French bulletins, was extremely fine and imposing. The two sovereigns alighted from horseback, embraced each other, and then entered Dresden at the head of the guards, amidst the acclamations of an immense population.

About the middle of May, Count Bubna arrived at Dresden, with a letter from the Emperor of Austria to the French emperor, containing, no doubt, proposals for an armistice, with a view to a general pacification; and it is worthy of remark, that the same papers which announced the arrival of the imperial ambassador at Dresden, gave an account of the departure of the viceroy for the north of Italy. Napoleon, with his usual foresight, began already to apprehend the hostile disposition of Austria, and the departure of Beauharnois for Italy was probably undertaken for the purpose of assembling an army on her southern frontier. At the same time that the Count de Bubna was sent to Dresden, Count Stadion was despatched by the Emperor Francis to the head-quarters of the allied sovereigns; and the Emperor Alexander and the King of Prussia professed their readiness to agree to an immediate suspension of hostilities; while Bonaparte held that, as a preliminary step, it was necessary to convene a congress, "at which there should assemble, on the side of France, the plenipotentiaries of France, the United States of America, Denmark, the King of Spain, and all the allied princes; and on the opposite side, those of England, Russia, Prussia, the Spanish insurgents, and the other allies of that belligerent mass."* The Emperor of Austria, in order that his mediation might be the more efficient, gave orders to place his army on the full war establishment, and the principal command of his forces was confided to Prince Schwartzberg. Hostilities in the mean time suffered no suspension.

While the French remained at Dresden, their army received considerable reinforcements, so as to form a mass little short of two hundred thousand men. The Prussian and Russian reinforcements, under Barclay de Tolly, Langeron, Sass, and Kleist, had also arrived in the mean time, and the total amount of the combined force was estimated at from one hundred and fifty to one hundred and eighty thousand men. The allies had taken up a position with the Spree in their front; their right extending to fortified eminences which defended the debouches from that

river—Bautzen, which had been intrenched and covered by redoubts, forming their centre; and their left was supported by mountains covered with wood, and running parallel to the course of the Spree. Where the ground was open, particularly in the centre, strong works had been thrown up; and behind the first position, at the distance of six thousand yards, other works of equal strength had been constructed. The French force in this place consisted of the 4th, 6th, 11th, and 12th corps, amounting in all to eighty thousand men; besides twelve thousand guards, fourteen thousand cavalry, and a very numerous and powerful artillery. The right wing was formed of the 12th corps, under the command of Marshal Oudinot, leaning on the mountains to the left of the Spree; the 11th, under Marshal Macdonald, formed the centre; and the 6th, under Marshal Marmont, the left. Marshal Mortier had the command of the guards, which were stationed in reserve; and the cavalry was commanded by General Latour Maubourg. Count Bertrand was posted beyond the extremity of the left, for the purpose of threatening the right of the allies, and also, if necessary, to communicate with the other great army, which Bonaparte had ordered to move up from a village about thirty miles to the north of Bautzen. This army consisted of about sixty thousand men, composed of the 3d, 5th, and 7th corps, under the command of Marshal Ney and Generals Lauriston and Regnier, and was directed to turn the right of the allies, while Bonaparte in person attacked them in front.

Napoleon, who had joined his army before Bautzen on the morning of the 19th of May, spent the whole of that day in reconnoitring the strength and position of the allies. Count Wittgenstein, having penetrated Bonaparte's intention in detaching Ney and Lauriston so far to the left, resolved to counteract the design, by attacking them separately, before they were sufficiently advanced to co-operate with the main army. With this view, General Barclay de Tolly was ordered to advance on the 19th to Koningswarta, where he fell in with part of Lauriston's corps under General Pery, amounting to nine thousand men, and after a severe battle, forced the town at the point of the bayonet, took fifteen hundred prisoners, and seven pieces of cannon, and put the enemy totally to rout. At the same time, the troops under Marshal Ney were vigorously attacked by General D'Yorck, who, with inferior numbers, made a gallant stand, and at the close of the day retired with General Barclay de Tolly to the positions

* *Moniteur*.

which they were appointed to hold in the great battle that was now approaching.

On the 20th, at eight o'clock in the morning, the Emperor Napoleon appeared on the heights in the rear of Bautzen, and at noon the French columns under Marshals Oudinot, Macdonald, Marmont, and Soult, were ordered to advance and pass the Spree. At noon, these corps advanced on Bautzen, and attacked, under the cover of a brisk cannonade, the advanced guard of the allies, commanded by Generals Milloradowitch and Kleist. The determination of Kleist to defend the heights situated on the side of Bautzen, occasioned a desperate combat. He had to withstand a force, which, according to the Russian account, was four times as numerous as his own; and yet he maintained his position till four o'clock in the afternoon, and did not give way till he had resisted the most vigorous attack, from these superior numbers, both on his right flank and on his front. The obstinacy with which the Russian Generals Rudiger and Roth, and Colonel Marcoff, defended these heights, excited also the admiration of the whole army. While the attack was made on this point, another was made by the enemy on the centre and left of the allies; but here again he was vigorously received by Count Milloradowitch, and Prince Eugene of Wirtemberg, and repeatedly repulsed. Notwithstanding this gallant resistance, the enemy gained ground, and after a desperate cannonade of six hours continuance, the French General Compans entered Bautzen. Oudinot soon afterwards gained possession of the heights, and at seven o'clock in the evening the allies were driven back to their second position; but Soult and Bertrand, who were sent to dispossess them of the heights on the right, failed in their object, and Ney, Lauriston, and Regnier, who were ordered to pass the Spree, and turn the right flank, were equally unsuccessful. At eight o'clock in the evening Bonaparte entered Bautzen, but the battle was continued till ten at night, and the advantages gained by the enemy in this day's engagement were purchased by the loss of at least six thousand men.

The night of the 20th was passed by both armies in preparation for one of the most bloody and obstinate conflicts recorded in military annals. At daybreak on the 21st, the allied army was attacked in their position in advance of Wurschen and Hochkirch, two small towns of Lusatia, on the eastern side of the Spree, between Bautzen and Goerlitz. This ground, selected by the allies to resist the enemy's approach on the great roads to Silesia and

the Oder, was bounded on the left by a range of mountains, through which Marshal Daun marched in the year 1757 to the battle and victory of Hochkirch. The line of the allied army, which extended between three and four miles, was formed by the corps of General Kleist and D'York in echelon on the right; General Blucher's, Count Wittgenstein's, and General Milloradowitch's, formed the left; while the guards and grenadiers, with all the Russian cavalry, were stationed in reserve in the centre. The enemy's first efforts were directed against the two principal points of the allied position, under Barclay de Tolly and General Blucher, and after these attacks had been opened by the sharpshooters and artillery, he gradually displayed his whole force down the entire extent of the line.

Bonaparte was now visible on a commanding spot, directing the battle; and, from the eminences of the allied centre, a full view was presented of the enemy's column marching over the heights to the right and left of Bautzen. These masses of troops might be estimated at from thirty to forty thousand men, who were scarcely drawn up in order of battle, when pillars of smoke were seen rising from the high grounds to which they had advanced. This fire was the signal of attack for Marshal Ney and General Lauriston, who instantly pressed forward with about thirty thousand men, and threw themselves with great impetuosity on General Barclay de Tolly's position at Glein. A desperate engagement ensued, which raged with undiminished fury till ten o'clock in the morning, at which hour Marshal Ney, who had carried the position of Prulitz, was attacked by the allies, and driven back from that village.

The conflict in the mountains was at the same time carried on with redoubled animosity; but the inflexible spirit and steady fire of the allied battalions, under the direction of the Prince of Wirtemberg and General Milloradowitch, prevented the enemy from making any progress in this quarter, and cost him an inconceivable number of men. The enemy now seemed to menace an advance in the centre, and the cannonade in that quarter became tremendous. General Blucher, finding that the important position held by General Barclay de Tolly was again threatened, resolved to part with the only reserve he had at his command, and ordered this brigade to march to the village of Kreckwitz. These dispositions were scarcely made, when the enemy attacked General Blucher himself in the whole extent of his position; and the action at this time had taken

a very unfavourable turn. Two Russian batteries, the one at Krekwitz, the other at Nieder Gurke, that formed the principal defence of the centre, had expended all their ammunition; and the enemy, by superior numbers, had made himself master of the heights behind Nieder Gurke, from which it was found impossible to dislodge him. In this situation, General Blucher demanded reinforcements, and General D'Yorck was ordered up to secure the execution of his dispositions; but the required succour came too late, and the two brigades of General Blucher's front gradually withdrew themselves out of their centre position to the high grounds above Krekwitz. But here not a single tenable position could be found, and as it was already perceived that the commander-in-chief began to despair of any favourable issue to the contest, General Blucher ordered his reserve cavalry to draw back across the defile, that the retrograde movement which he now contemplated might not meet with any impediment.

It was now an hour after noon, and the centre of the allied army was yet untouched, but the enemy had begun to make demonstrations, and had opened a brisk cannonade in that quarter. Napoleon, seizing this crisis of the battle, marched with the guards, General Latour Maubourg's four divisions, and a great quantity of artillery, upon the right flank of the position of the allies, and the division of Morand and Wittenberg carried the ground which formed their point *d'appui*.* At three o'clock in the afternoon, and while the event of the battle still seemed doubtful, a heavy firing was heard along a line of three leagues, which served to announce

that the allies had begun their retreat, and that victory had once more ranged herself under the French eagles. At seven o'clock in the evening, Marshal Ney and General Lauriston arrived at Wurtzchen, and Marshal Marmont, after occupying all the entrenched villages and redoubts which the allies had evacuated, advanced in the direction of Hochkirch, and thus took the whole of the left of the retreating army in flank.

Ever since the opening of the campaign, the policy of the allies had been rather to break off a battle before it was ended, if its tendency was obviously unfavourable, than to risk every thing by exposing themselves to the chance of a total defeat; and as the whole contest in the battle of the 21st, which may be considered as a continuation of the battle of Bautzen, had actually taken an unfavourable turn, they availed themselves of their undisputed superiority in cavalry to secure their retreat. This movement was made in the face of day, with the most perfect order and regularity, in two columns. The Russian troops of the centre and left took the direction of Hochkirch; the Prussians that of Wurchen; and General Barclay de Tolly, and General Kleist, with the reserves of Prussian cavalry, drew up in line of battle on the heights of Goerlitz, for the purpose of keeping in check Marshal Ney and General Lauriston.

In the stupendous battles of the 20th and 21st, the loss of the French in killed and wounded, as stated in their own bulletins, amounted to from eleven to twelve thousand men; and it is on the same authority asserted, that the loss of the allies exceeded, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, thirty thousand men. In the details published by the allies, a very different statement is given; and it may be observed, once for all, that whatever confidence may be reposed in official accounts as to the movements and operations of armies, no reliance whatever can be placed on the published returns of numbers, as far at least as the statement made by one party regards the loss of the opposing army; and it is probable, from the difficulty of attaining accurate information on this point, that the despatches of the Duke of Wellington, which are always written with great candour and fairness, seldom hazard even a conjecture of the loss of the enemy.

The neighbourhood of Bautzen, which on the 19th exhibited the most luxuriant crops, was on the 21st blasted by the deadly blight of war—the affrighted inhabitants driven to the woods, and the face of the country transformed into a wilderness. On the 22d, the allied armies

* At this moment, a shell thrown from one of the enemy's mortars fell within ten yards of the spot where the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia, who were personally present in the battle, were conversing. A Prussian veteran of artillery no sooner saw the shell take ground, than, with an intrepid presence of mind, he ran up to the spot, and extinguished the fusee before the combustibles exploded. The King of Prussia, who witnessed this action, instantly called the gallant veteran, and demanded his name and his length of service, adding—"You shall be rewarded, my brave fellow; and here on the spot I promote you to the rank of an officer."—"Ah! your majesty," exclaimed the man, "I humbly thank you for this gracious mark of your favour, but I cannot accept it; I might have been a corporal years ago, but—I could not read. Your majesty however, I hope, will not be displeased if I mention that the pay of an officer would make my family and myself happy for life." The king understood him; his boon was granted, and the order of the Iron Cross was added by his sovereign, and the order of St. George by the Emperor of Russia.—*Life and Campaigns of Field-marshal Blucher, by General Count Gneisenau.*

continued their retreat, and were pursued by the French to the heights in the rear of Ruckeback, where the combat was renewed, chiefly between the cavalry of the two armies. In the early part of the day, the pursuers were repulsed, but, to the astonishment of the allies, the French were enabled to bring up more than fifteen thousand cavalry, and thus to turn the fortune of the day in their favour. At seven o'clock in the evening, Marshal Duroc, the Duke of Friuli, and the Grand Chamberlain of France, being on a small eminence, in the neighbourhood of Goerlitz, along with Marshal Mortier and General Kirgener, one of the last balls fired by the allies struck the ground close to Marshal Mortier, dreadfully lacerated the lower extremities of Marshal Duroc, and killed General Kirgener on the spot. Duroc felt that he was mortally wounded; in less than twelve hours he expired.*

On the 23d, at nine o'clock in the morning, General Regnier entered Goerlitz; and while one part of the French army advanced into Silesia, another took the route towards Berlin. On the 24th, Ney, Lauriston, and Regnier, forced the passage of the Neiss, and on the 25th that of the Queiss. The allied armies in their retreat seemed to have deviated from the direct line towards the Oder, and to have moved upon Schweidnitz. This change in the direction of their retreat was probably occasioned by their desire to occupy the

strong places of Silesia, and by a hope that Bonaparte would not dare to follow them so far into that country. In this, however, they were mistaken, for the pursuit was so rapid, that within ten days from the battle of Bautzen, one division of the French army had advanced one hundred miles into Silesia; the blockade of Glogau, one of the important keys of the Oder, was raised; and the French had obtained possession of Breslau, the capital of Silesia.

The Austrian cabinet took a deep interest in passing events; nor was it a timid and inactive neutrality that this court was prepared to maintain. Armaments of extraordinary magnitude were completed in every part of the Austrian territories; and troops were poured into Bohemia, and placed in an attitude of observation. It appeared probable that the scale into which this power might throw herself would preponderate; the destinies of Europe were held in her hands; and to obtain her favour became the grand object of the belligerents. Bonaparte, before he left Dresden, had announced, through the medium of his official paper, that he had acceded to a proposition made by Austria, for assembling a congress at Prague; but Austria afterwards declared that no such proposition had been made to her, and an assertion, thus unauthorized, appeared singular and offensive.

This power, however, was not unwilling to interpose her exertions towards putting a stop to further hostilities: she viewed with disquietude the progress of the French arms, and saw her frontiers in danger of being again encircled by the legions of Napoleon. Under her mediation, an armistice was accordingly concluded; hostilities between the contending armies ceased on the 1st of June, and the armistice was signed and ratified on the 4th. By the terms of this convention, the line of demarcation for the allied armies extended from the frontiers of Bohemia to the Oder, through Bettlern and Althorf; the line of the French army extended from Bohemia to Lahn, and thence along the course of the river Katzbach to the Oder; the space between the respective lines of demarcation, including the city of Breslau, being declared neutral. According to this arrangement, nearly the whole of Prussia was left in the occupation of the allies; the whole of Saxony, and the mouths of the Elbe and the Weeer, in the possession of the French; and the fortresses of Dantzic, Zamose, Modlin, Stettin, and Custrin, in which were French garrisons, besieged by the allies, were to be victualled every five days. Hostilities were not to be com-

* The following particulars of the last interview between the Emperor Napoleon and Marshal Duroc, his personal friend and constant companion in arms, are given in the twenty-second bulletin of the French army: "As soon as the posts were placed, and the army had taken its bivouacs, the emperor went to see the Duke of Friuli. He found him perfectly master of himself, and showing the greatest *sang froid*. The duke offered his hand to the emperor, who pressed it to his lips. 'My whole life,' said he to him, 'has been consecrated to your service, nor do I regret its loss, but for the use it might have been of to you.'—'Duroc!' cried the emperor, 'there is a life to come; it is there you are going to wait for me, and where we shall one day meet again.'—'Yes, sire, but that will not be these thirty years, when you will have triumphed over your enemies, and realized all the hopes of your country. I have lived an honest man—I have nothing to reproach myself with. I leave a daughter behind me—your majesty will fulfil the place of a father to her.' The emperor again grasped the hand of the grand marshal, and remained for a quarter of an hour with his head reclined on his right hand, in profound silence. The grand marshal was the first who broke this silence: 'Ah, sire!' said he, 'leave me; this sight gives you pain!' The emperor, supporting himself on the Duke of Dalmatia, and the grand master of the horse, quitted the Duke of Friuli, without being able to say more than 'Farewell—my friend.' His majesty then returned to his tent, nor would he receive any person the whole of that night."

menced till the 20th of July, or till six days after the denunciation of the armistice at the respective head-quarters.

Preparations on an extensive scale were in the mean time carried on throughout all the provinces of the Prussian monarchy, as well as in such of the districts of northern Germany as had been liberated from French influence. Every private object gave place for the moment to the grand views of national safety. Levies for the augmentation of the regular army were made to a very great extent. A numerous and well disciplined militia, called *landwehr*, was raised, and the *landsturm* swelled the number, if it did not add to the efficiency of the national defenders. Austria was scarcely less indefatigable in completing her establishments. From the moment that the Russian arms had acquired the ascendancy, an extraordinary impulse was given to the councils of Austria. All the men of influence began to exclaim, that the time had arrived to retrieve her affairs, and to rescue herself from the state of humiliation into which she had sunk. Russia offered, now that she had delivered herself, to assist in the liberation of other nations; and from all the neighbouring states, ample co-operation might with certainty be expected. Austria, however, after such a succession of disasters, and so many disappointments, shrunk from taking at once any decided step; and even employed a considerable share of dissimulation to conceal from the French the change which had taken place in her councils.

Napoleon lavished offers, entreaties, and protestations; half of the Prussian monarchy was to be the reward of the co-operation of Austria, which would restore to him all his former ascendancy. To these offers, Austria turned a deaf ear; but her policy rendered her active in negotiating the armistice, and in forwarding the assembling of a congress at Prague. The same policy determined her to support no terms of peace, which should not have for their basis the limitation of the French influence in Germany; and Bonaparte no sooner ascertained the character of her overtures, than he accounted Austria his enemy, and determined again to try the fate of arms.

Efforts were now made by the French emperor to draw reinforcements from

every quarter. Some veteran corps of the army of Spain, which had hitherto been left untouched, began their march from the Elbe. The viceroy, who, on the first intimation of an armistice from the Emperor of Austria, had repaired to Italy, assembled an army upon the Adige, with the view of menacing Austria on that side; and all Europe, from the Beresina to the Tagus, rang with the din of arms. Although the armistice was prolonged from the 20th of July to the 10th of August, still there appeared little prospect of the adjustment of the differences of the belligerents. Before the end of July, most of the members of the congress were assembled at Prague; the Emperor Napoleon sent the Count de Narbonne and the Duke of Vicenza; the Emperor of Russia, his Privy Counsellor D'Ansett; the King of Prussia, Baron Humboldt; and the Emperor of Austria, Count Metternich; it was likewise said, that an accredited minister from England was present at the congress, but no notice of such an appointment was given, except in the French official paper. At this congress, little seems to have been effected; and the Emperor Francis soon found, that neither of the belligerent parties were disposed to terminate hostilities on such conditions as would be acceded to by the other. The Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia, as well as the imperial mediator himself, were naturally and laudably desirous of rescuing Germany from the French yoke, or at least of restoring to its independence that part of Germany which constituted the territories of the King of Prussia; and with these views it was proposed—that the duchy of Warsaw should be abolished; that the Prussian fortresses should be surrendered to their legitimate sovereign; that Austria should be put in possession of the Illyrian provinces; that Hamburg and Lubec should be restored to their independence; and that the confederation of the Rhine should be dissolved. These terms were positively rejected by Bonaparte; the armistice was denounced; and that event, which will be ever memorable in the annals of the world, and which involved the re-establishment of the long-lost balance of Europe, occurred on the 10th of August.

CHAPTER XXIII.

GERMAN CAMPAIGN (continued): Austrian Declaration of War against France—Opening of the Campaign—Victory of the Katzbach—Battle of Dresden—Death of General Moreau—Battle of Jüterbock—War in Italy—Extraordinary Meeting of the French Senate—Napoleon quits Dresden—Battle of Leipzig—Retreat of the French Army to the Rhine—Battle of Hanau—Arrival of the Emperor in Paris—Dissolution of the Confederation of the Rhine—Emancipation of Holland—Exertions of Great Britain—Hanover liberated by the Crown-prince of Sweden—The Danes separate from the French—Capitulation of Dresden—Biographical Sketches of Prince Kutusoff, Marshal Duroc, Duke of Friuli, and General Moreau.

THE denunciation of the armistice was immediately followed by a declaration of war on the part of Austria, against France. The manifesto issued by the Emperor Francis on this occasion took a retrospect of the wars in which France and Austria had been engaged, and dwelt particularly on those which had occurred since Napoleon obtained the supreme power.

This paper began by declaring his imperial majesty's love of peace, and by assuring the world, that he was actuated in the war he had now undertaken by no wish for conquest and aggrandizement, but merely by a wish to avert the danger to which the social system was exposed, of becoming the prey of a lawless and ambitious power. The emperor complained of the destructive system adopted by the enemy, by which commercial intercourse was suspended between nations. On every occasion, the emperor had been anxious to remain at peace; he had even made sacrifices which no consideration but his hope of preserving the tranquillity of his own country, and of Europe, could have drawn from him; nothing, however, which he could do, or sacrifice, or abstain from doing, not even a ready and full compliance with the demands, and an accordance with the views of Napoleon, were of any avail. The lamentable conviction was impressed on his mind, that the object of the French emperor extended to the subjugation of Europe; and that, for the attainment of that object, the dignity and honour of the sovereigns, and the tranquillity and happiness of their subjects, must be considered as of no moment. Still, the Emperor of Austria persevered in his attempts to remain at peace; and he resolved to submit to that sacrifice—which was the greatest he could make as a sovereign, and as a father—the sacrifice of his own daughter. The year 1810 was not yet closed, when, in an evil hour, Bonaparte resolved to seize a large portion of the north of Germany, and to rob the free cities of Hamburg, Bremen, and Lubec, first of their political, and then of their commercial, existence. The scheme was adopted upon the arbitrary pretext, that the war with

England required it; and seemed to be the forerunner of great usurpations, by which one-half of Germany was to become a French province, and Bonaparte the absolute ruler of the continent. Alluding to the war against Russia, and the motives which influenced the policy of Austria in that war, it was remarked—"That the campaign of 1812 furnished a memorable example of the failure of an undertaking supported by gigantic power, and conducted by a captain of the first rank, when, in the confidence of great military talents, he despises the rules of prudence, and oversteps the bounds of nature." Then was brought on an important revolution in all the political relations of Europe. The confederacy of Great Britain, Russia, and Sweden, presented a point of union to all neighbouring states. Prussia seized that favourable moment, and threw herself into the arms of the allies. The hatred of foreign dominion burst forth on all sides. The crisis was not neglected by the Emperor of Austria. In the beginning of December, 1812, steps had been taken to dispose Napoleon to a quiet and peaceful policy; but he declared he would hear of no proposition for peace that should violate the French empire, in the French sense of the word. At the same time, eventual conditions, with which this self-created boundary did not seem to have any relation, were spoken of, at one time with menacing indignation, and at another with bitter contempt, as if it had not been possible to declare in terms sufficiently distinct the resolution of the French emperor, not to make to the repose of the world even one single nominal sacrifice.

In the month of April, 1813, Napoleon suggested the dissolution of the Prussian monarchy, as a natural consequence of the defection from France, and observed that it depended upon Austria herself to add the most important and flourishing of the Prussian provinces to her own states. Austria, however, resisted these propositions to engage her in acts of spoliation, and felt that the restoration of the Prussian monarchy was essential to the independence of Europe. Towards the close

of the month of June, the Austrian cabinet sent a minister to Dresden, and a convention was concluded, accepting the mediation of Austria in the negotiation for a general peace; or, if that could not be effected, of a preliminary continental peace. The congress was to be opened on the 5th of July; and the armistice was afterwards extended to the 10th of August. In the mean time, Austria resolved once more to try the British government. The French emperor received the proposal with apparent approbation, and offered a passage to the Austrian minister, through France. But difficulties arose; the French passports were delayed from time to time, and at last they were entirely refused. During this interval, the Russian and Prussian plenipotentiaries were named, and arrived at Prague. France still procrastinated; a French minister arrived, but he had no orders to proceed to business until the appearance of a plenipotentiary, who did not join the congress till the 28th of July. Formal and minute discussions rendered all the endeavours of the mediating power abortive. The powers of the French negotiator were unnecessarily circumscribed; and it was not till the 6th of August, that he gave in a new declaration, by which the negotiation was not brought one step nearer to a close. After an useless exchange of notes, the 10th of August arrived—the congress was at an end, and Austria had no remedy, no resource, but to take up arms. Such was the substance of this highly important exposition of the causes which determined Austria once more to appeal to arms.

The French army, at the conclusion of the armistice, equalled perhaps, in numerical amount, those of all the other powers united. At no former period, probably, had Napoleon been at the head of an army more numerous. The main body, under his own immediate command, may be estimated without exaggeration at three hundred thousand men. Availing himself of the nature of the country, he had established a strongly fortified line on the Bohemian frontier, beginning at Wittenburg, and passing through Torgau and Dresden, to his intrenched camp on the northern side of the Bohemian mountains. Between this line and the Silesian frontier, his main army was stationed; in Upper and Lower Lusatia, Marshal Mortier was stationed, with seventy thousand men, including a large force of cavalry on the Spree; and Marshal Ney, with about the same number, occupied Bautzen. The Saxons were at Goerlitz. On the Maine, there was an army of reserve, under Augereau; and an army of Bavarians, about twenty-five thou-

sand strong, was stationed near Munich. A considerable force, under Marshal Davoust, defended Holstein and Hamburg, and threatened Pomerania; and the communication of this corps with the army of Dresden, and the preponderance of the French on the middle Elbe, were imperfectly maintained by the garrison of Magdeburg.

The allies occupied a line much more extended. The accession of Austria, besides making a large addition to their force, brought with it also the advantage of turning the barrier of the Elbe, as that river flows for many miles through Bohemia, and could now be passed by the allies without opposition. In Bohemia, therefore, the grand army, consisting of the whole Austrian force, augmented by large Russian and Prussian detachments from Silesia, took its position. The headquarters were at Toplitz, on the southern side of the Bohemian mountains, and at an equal distance between Dresden and Prague. Marshal Blucher commanded a very large force in Silesia, consisting partly of Russian and Prussian regulars, and partly of a large body of well-organized militia, the whole amounting to about one hundred thousand men. The Crown-prince of Sweden, who had his headquarters at Berlin, commanded the army of the north of Germany. This force, which was estimated at one hundred and twenty thousand men, was composed of the whole Swedish force, of large corps of Russian and Prussian regulars, of the militia of Brandenburg, and the troops levied in the Hanse Towns, and other districts in the north of Germany. On one side, this army observed Davoust and the garrison of Magdeburg; on the other, it covered the Prussian capital, and was prepared to act as circumstances might require against the French grand army.

These positions of the allies, in a military point of view, do not appear advantageous. This whole force was divided into three corps, acting separately, at a distance from each other, and maintaining only a circuitous and imperfect communication. The French army, on the contrary, was in the centre, completely united, and ready to direct its entire force against any of the allied divisions. The allied generals understood and obviated the disadvantages of their position. They were always careful, when the enemy approached in superior force, to retire, and watch the favourable moment for attack when that force had withdrawn to another point. This plan, which depended for success upon accuracy of information, was greatly aided by their possessing, in the Cossacks, the best light

cavalry in the world; and, by a happy combination of skill, caution, and valour, they were enabled to prevent the difficulties under which they laboured, from affecting the final issue of the campaign.

On the crisis now approaching, the fate of Europe depended. Military talents of the highest order were to be exerted; armies formed on the most gigantic scale were to be put in motion; and operations were about to be undertaken, in comparison of which many of the most renowned battles which fill the pages of history are mere skirmishes. Great Britain, Russia, Austria, Prussia, Sweden, Spain, and Portugal, were ranged on one side; France, Holland, Denmark, Italy, Bavaria, Saxony, and the minor states of Germany, on the other; and whether the mind contemplates the vast tract of country over which the desolations of war were to sweep, the wide waste of human life, or the vast issue at stake, no preceding period since the political formation of modern Europe, had borne interests so mighty, and occurrences so pregnant with curses or blessings, suspended in the uncertain balance of military fortune. The cause of the allies was now to have the assistance of a man distinguished as one of the greatest soldiers of modern times. General Moreau, having acceded to the wishes of the Emperor Alexander to lend his aid in this great struggle, had embarked and sailed from America on the 21st of June, and arrived at Gottenburg on the 26th of July. On the 4th of August, he again embarked at Ystad, in a Swedish brig, for Stralsund, where he was met by the Prince-royal of Sweden, his early friend and companion in arms, and a plan of military operations for the approaching campaign was concerted.

The first movements of importance made by the French army, after the denunciation of the armistice, were in the direction of Berlin, the head-quarters of Marshal Bernadotte, the Crown-prince of Sweden. All the reports of the secret agents had announced, on the evening of the 21st of August, that the French were concentrating the corps of Marshals Oudinot and Victor, and of Generals Bertrand and Regnier, amounting to more than eighty thousand men, in the environs of Baruth, and every thing indicated a rapid march upon Berlin. On the 22d, the army of the crown-prince quitted Potsdam, for the purpose of arresting the progress of the enemy; and on the morning of the 23d, the hostile armies met in the village of Gross Beren. Here a smart action took place, and the French, after having sustained a severe loss, retired without attempting to bring on a ge-

neral engagement, and fell back in the direction of Dresden.

While the army of the north was thus employed, General Blücher, who commanded in Silesia, passed the Bober, the boundary of Lusatia, on the 19th of August, and drove in all the French corps by which that river was defended. On the arrival of a large reinforcement, headed by Napoleon in person, Blücher measured back his steps, and was pursued by the enemy to the banks of the Katzbach, a river rendered famous by a signal victory gained by Frederick the Great. On the 22d, Napoleon received intelligence that the allies had made a rapid movement for the purpose of cutting him off from the line of the Elbe, by seizing Dresden. When this information was received, the French emperor was at a distance of one hundred and twenty miles from that city; but the crisis was urgent; he instantly commenced his march, accompanied by a strong body of troops; and though the weather, during the whole time, was most tempestuous, he reached Dresden on the 26th, a few hours before the allies appeared in sight of that place.

No operation of importance occurred in Silesia between the 23d and 26th; but on the latter of these days, General Blücher, who, with his usual penetration, had perceived that Napoleon, the main spring of action, was no longer with his Silesian army, determined to advance from Jauer to the Katzbach, and to attack the enemy. In the afternoon of the 26th, the battle began, amidst a tremendous and continued rain, which so much darkened the atmosphere, that every movement was rendered difficult and embarrassing. To the left of the village of Eichholz, a commanding ground, which became the key of the Prussian position, was lined with artillery by General Sacken, while a battery of twelve pounders poured its murderous discharges upon the enemy's columns, which were forced slowly and disadvantageously to deploy between Weinberg and Eichholz. This was the moment seized by General Blücher for a general attack. With a degree of impetuosity, and a heroic disregard of danger, that pervaded every part of the army, the whole line of battle now precipitated itself on the enemy. The incessant rain had rendered fire-arms useless; not a musket could be fired, when with loud shouts and reiterated huzzas, a conflict with the bayonet took place, the most sanguinary, desperate, and destructive, that is to be met with in the history of battles. Whole columns of the enemy were overpowered by the physical strength of the allies, and suddenly transformed into fright

ful heaps of wounded, dead, and dying. No prisoners were made at this period of the battle—"forwards! forwards!" was the watchword, and death stalked in hideous majesty before the impenetrable files of the Prussian and Russian columns. On the left wing, General Langeron had to sustain the most furious attacks; twice, did General Lauriston succeed in carrying the heights of the Russian position, and twice was he driven from them at the point of the bayonet. French impetuosity here found itself resisted by the adamantine steadiness of Russian bravery and devotedness. Marshal Macdonald, who commanded the French army on this occasion, finding all his efforts vain, attempted, as a forlorn hope, a grand charge of cavalry, but this was repulsed with severe loss, and he was obliged to relinquish the field of battle, and to seek safety across the foaming streams of the Katzbach and the Neisse, which, swollen as they were by the torrents from the Bleyberg mountains, could be passed only with the most imminent danger. This sanguinary battle, by which the gigantic plans of Napoleon received a severe check, commenced at three o'clock in the afternoon, in the neighbourhood of Jauer, and was terminated at the close of the day on the banks of the Katzbach. The pursuit of the retreating army, which fled across the Bobr, was continued on the 27th and 28th, and on the 29th General Blucher addressed a proclamation to his soldiers, in which he exclaimed—"Silesia is delivered! Your bayonets, and the nervous strength of your arm, drove your enemies down the steep of the raging Neisse and the Katzbach. One hundred and three pieces of cannon, two hundred and fifty tumbrils, the camp hospital of the enemy, his provisions, a general of division, two generals of brigade, a great number of colonels, staff and other officers, eighteen thousand prisoners, two eagles, and other trophies, have fallen into your hands. Let us sing praises to the Lord of Hosts, by whose help you have overthrown your enemies, and return thanks to him who has given us the victory!"

The period had now arrived, when the grand plan of the allies, formed by General Moreau and the Prince-royal of Sweden, was to be put in execution. The different columns of the allied armies were to debouch from the mountains of Bohemia, and by rushing through the passes, to place the enemy in a situation of the most imminent danger. The effect of this operation was partly defeated by the ardent precipitancy of some of the troops, who pushed on with so much eagerness, that the right division was brought into

action before the other columns had gained their stations. When the Emperor Napoleon entered Dresden from Silesia, at eight o'clock in the morning of the 26th of August, the grand Russian, Prussian, and Austrian army, commanded by the sovereigns, was before that city. The allied army at that time crowned all the hills which surround Dresden, and had approached upon the left bank of the Elbe to the distance of a league from the French posts. At noon, all was tranquil, but to an eye skilled in the affairs of war, this calm was the delusive precursor of an approaching storm. At four o'clock in the afternoon, six columns of the allied army, each preceded by fifty pieces of artillery, descended into the plain, and marched towards the French redoubts. In less than a quarter of an hour afterwards the fire became terrible, and one of the redoubts was silenced. At five o'clock, a part of the French reserve was engaged, and several shells fell in the town. Roused to the greatest exertions by the urgency of the danger, Napoleon ordered the King of Naples to march with General Latour Maubourg's cavalry upon the right flank of the allies, and at the same moment, four divisions of the young guards debouched through the gates of Pirna and Plauen. The effect of these efforts was to force the allies back from the centre to the extremity of their position, and to cover the field with the dead.

On the 27th, the weather was dreadful, and the rain fell in torrents. At nine o'clock in the morning, the battle was renewed, and the allies determined, if possible, to drive the French from the city. But it was soon perceived that it would be impossible to effect a practicable breach in the walls, and at two o'clock in the afternoon, the allied army, finding themselves in danger of being surrounded and cut off from their communication with Bohemia, resolved upon a retreat.

The French, having thus succeeded in repulsing the assailants, marched out of the city on the morning of the 28th, to harass them in their retreat. Napoleon, availing himself of the perilous situation in which he had placed his enemies, ordered an immense number of cannon to be brought out of the city, and the battle was renewed by a heavy cannonade on both sides, accompanied by charges of cavalry. After several hours, the French army, perceiving that they could make no impression, withdrew into Dresden; and the allies having failed in their object of cutting off Napoleon from the line of the Elbe, retreated into the valley of Toplitz, in Bohemia. According to the French ac-

counts, the loss of the allies, in this series of engagements, amounted to from twenty-five to thirty thousand prisoners, forty pairs of colours, and sixty pieces of cannon; while their loss was estimated at only four thousand.* But one of the most disastrous events in these battles was the death of General Moreau; who received a mortal wound from a cannon, fired by the French imperial guard on the 27th, while that general was in earnest conversation with the Emperor of Russia, and which, passing through his horse, carried off both his legs. This dreadful wound did not immediately prove mortal; he was removed from the field of battle on a litter, made of Coassack's pikes, and after undergoing repeated operations, died on the 3d of September, at Laun, in Bohemia.

Bonaparte, who considered the rout and discomfiture of the allies as complete, and who represented the Austrian division of the army to be almost annihilated, despatched General Vandamme with a force of thirty thousand men, to cut off their retreat into Bohemia. With this force, the French general crossed the Elbe at Pirna, and had actually gained possession of the mountain passes, when the Russians, under the command of Count Osterman, forced their way through the hostile ranks with the bayonet. On two successive days, the 30th and the 31st, the enemy were attacked with great vigour, and being at length put to a general rout, they threw down their arms, abandoned their guns and standards, and retreated in all directions. Vandamme, and six other generals, were taken; and sixty pieces of cannon, six standards, and about ten thousand prisoners, rewarded the gallant exertions of the allies.

The north of Germany, where the crown-prince commanded, now became the theatre of events of great importance. The allies having retired from before Dresden, Bonaparte found himself at liberty to despatch a strong force towards Berlin; and Marshal Ney, at the head of seventy thousand men, was appointed on that service. After the repulse of the French on the 23d of August, the crown-prince, finding that he was not opposed by an equal force, determined to take advantage of his superior numbers, and moved towards the Elbe, with the intention to cross that river, and to march upon Leipzig. But on his arrival at Rabenstein, his march was arrested by the intelligence that the enemy, under Marshal Ney, was in full march upon Juterbock, and that the

Prussian army, under General Bulow, which did not exceed forty thousand men, was threatened with an immediate attack. On the receipt of this intelligence, the crown-prince changed his route, and arrived at Juterbock, by forced marches, on the 6th of September, at the moment when the Prussian army, after having sustained the unequal combat with distinguished gallantry for several hours, was nearly overpowered by numbers. For a moment, the Russians and Swedes halted, for the purpose of forming in order of battle; and as soon as this was accomplished, seventy battalions, and ten thousand horse, supported by one hundred and fifty pieces of artillery, advanced in columns to the attack, preceded by four thousand Russian and Swedish cavalry, who had advanced at full speed, for the purpose of supporting some points against which the principal efforts of the enemy were directed. At the sight of this immense army coming up to the assistance of a foe against whom the enemy had scarcely made any impression, the French first wavered, and then fled with precipitation. In their retreat, they were charged by the numerous cavalry of the allies, with so much impetuosity that their ranks were broken, and the utmost disorder ensued. The result of the battle of Juterbock, or of Donnewitz, by which name it has been sometimes called, was five thousand prisoners, three standards, thirty pieces of cannon, and two hundred ammunition wagons, while six thousand French troops lay dead upon the field.* The enemy, after their defeat, attempted in vain to rally; and besides the prisoners taken in the battle, two thousand five hundred others were taken in the evening of the same day by General Wobeser, at Gahna, on their way to Dresden. The loss of the Prussians amounted, in killed and wounded, to five thousand men; "but the result of this day," says the crown-prince, "ought to contribute to the consolation of every true patriot, who will find the triumph of the cause of his country ensured by the death of these brave men. The heroic example shown on this occasion by the Prussian army, is calculated to exist for ever in the annals of military fame, and to inspire all those who fight for the independence of Germany." It was already obvious that the star of Napoleon's destiny had begun to lose its lustre, and General Regnier, one of the most devoted of his generals, determining apparently not to outlive the military glory of his country, remained a long time on the field, exposed to the fire of the sharp-

* Thirty-fifth bulletin of the French army.

* Eleventh Swedish bulletin.

shooters of the allies, in the situation of a man desirous of death.

The situation of Bonaparte was now becoming every day more critical. The allies, indeed, had been defeated in their attempts to take Dresden, but they still acted upon a plan of consummate skill, and performed all their operations with activity, decision, and promptitude. The leading feature of the plan upon which they now acted, was to gather all their forces in the route between Dresden and Leipzig, so as completely to cut off Napoleon's retreat in that direction to France. In order to effect this purpose, it became necessary to distract the attention and the forces of the enemy, and while one part of the allied army advanced towards Dresden from the valley of Toplitz, on the side of Bohemia, the corps under General Blücher made similar demonstrations on the side of Silesia, advancing and retreating successively, till the troops of the enemy were completely exhausted. In the mean time, the allies were receiving powerful reinforcements, and the Emperor of Russia in particular exerted his utmost energies to bring the campaign to a successful termination. In addition to large bodies of regular troops, the Cossacks were receiving continual reinforcements from the banks of the Don; and in the situation of the French army these light troops rendered the most essential service, by intercepting the communication with France, and cutting off the supplies. The plan of Napoleon was to attack the allies, to impede their advance, and by menaces to gain time, either to extricate himself from the dangerous predicament in which he was placed, or to manœuvre the armies to which he was opposed, out of their position. The latter object, he was not able to effect. After repeated marches and counter-marches to and from the Bohemian frontier, the grand allied army remained on the spot to which it had retired after the battle of Dresden; so that in this quarter his repeated movements were unavailing, while time was afforded to the allied armies in other parts to press forward to close in upon him. During all this time, his numerical strength was daily decreasing. The sword had done much, sickness had scarcely done less, and repeated rencontres, with the accompanying privations, depressed the spirits and hopes of the whole army. In the month of September, while Napoleon yet clung to Dresden, more than five thousand letters were seized, principally by the vigilance of the Cossacks, upon French couriers; and these letters, which gave the most gloomy details of the French army, were all written in a style of despondency.

Great, however, as were the advantages of the allies, yet in the present relative position of the armies, there was little prospect that they would immediately inflict any fatal blow by the superior force which they had at their disposal. Napoleon, from his central situation, could still command a temporary superiority at any point which was seriously threatened. The grand army had appeared before Dresden, but had again retreated. General Blücher had repeatedly approached to the vicinity of the Elbe, but a hundred thousand men defended the passage of that river; and he beat in vain against this impregnable barrier. While these operations were taking place to the south and east of Dresden, the crown-prince, who was stationed in the north, prepared to pass the Elbe at Ross-lau, and to interpose a considerable force between the Elbe and the Rhine, on the enemy's line of march.

At the same time, an expedition was undertaken by the Russian General Czernicheff, against Cassel, which was attended with the most brilliant success. Never were decision, talents, and valour, more eminently displayed than on this occasion. On the 24th of September, General Czernicheff marched to the Elbe, and, after making a lateral movement to avoid a Westphalian corps, under General Bastinellar, he arrived on the 27th on Cassel, and invested that city. The Cossacks, and the hussars of Izum, were now ordered to attack the enemy's battalions stationed at Bettenhausen, with six pieces of artillery; and such were the vigour and success of the charge, that, after capturing the guns, and making four hundred prisoners, the remainder of the enemy's force was dispersed, and the fugitives pursued to the gates of the city. Jerome Bonaparte, the intrusive King of Westphalia, alarmed by this unexpected visit, collected two battalions of guards, and a thousand horse, with which he fled from his capital by the road leading to Francfort; and on the 30th, General Czernicheff entered Cassel by capitulation, where the Russians were received by the inhabitants with the most enthusiastic demonstrations of joy. The Westphalian troops being now left at liberty to follow the bent of their own inclinations, a large proportion of them ranged themselves under the banners of the allies; and a fatal blow was thus struck against French influence in the kingdom of Westphalia.

Nor were the affairs of Bonaparte more prosperous in Italy: Beauharnois had, in his arrival in that country, succeeded on collecting a large army; but their efforts seemed to be paralyzed; and when the

Austrian General Nugent advanced, the viceroy found himself compelled to retire from the head of the Adriatic towards Venice.

These events, which in ordinary times would have been considered as important, in the present situation of the continent scarcely attracted the attention of the public: all thoughts and conjectures were fixed upon Dresden and its vicinity. About the middle of September, Prince Schwartzenburg, to whom the command of the allied army in Bohemia was confided, had succeeded in forming a communication with General Blücher at Gobel, and by an extension of the Prussian line, a communication was also opened with the crown-prince at Bautzen. On the advance of the allies to Gobel, Prince Poniatowski was posted at that place, but he was now compelled to retire to a station within fifteen miles of Dresden, while Marshal Macdonald was at the same time obliged to take up a position on the Spree, within thirty miles of the same city. Marshal Marmont, who had occupied the left bank of the Elbe with the 6th corps, was recalled, and sent with the cavalry, under the King of Naples, to Grossen Hayn, about twenty miles to the north of Dresden, to check the Swedes, who were advancing in that direction. Marshal Ney, after his defeat at Wüsterbock, took shelter under the cannon of Torgau, from which station he had not removed at the period now under consideration. Such were the positions of the armies, and the state of affairs, about the middle of September. On the 14th, the grand allied army again advanced from the valley of Toplitz, driving back the 1st, 2d, and 14th corps of the French army, which, with the guards, were posted on the frontiers. Again, was Bonaparte compelled to leave this city, in order to reinforce his advanced divisions; and the 15th and 16th were spent in forcing the allies back into Bohemia.

The French emperor could no longer conceal his situation from the people of France: he had in his bulletins spoken of success almost uninterrupted, and it was with extreme reluctance that he acknowledged his inability either to advance, or to make head against the formidable confederacy by which he was assailed. But the truth could not be concealed: there was no possibility of escaping out of his perilous situation unless large reinforcements were sent to his rescue, and the exigencies of the case would not admit of a moment's delay. Accordingly, on the 4th of October an extraordinary meeting of the French senate was held, at which Cambacères, the Duke of Parma, after submitting

to that assembly the long-delayed report concerning the war with Austria and Sweden, distinctly avowed that the emperor's means were not adequate to the emergency of his situation; and called on them for a fresh levy of two hundred and eighty thousand men. On this occasion, the empress was brought forward, to declare, that the enemies of France wished to destroy her allies, to punish them for their fidelity, and to carry the war into the bosom of France itself. Acquainted for four years with the most intimate thoughts of her august spouse, the empress knew with what sentiments he would be agitated, upon a degraded throne, and under a crown without glory—and in the name of the emperor and their national honour, she conjured all Frenchmen to rally round the standard of their country.

But this call was made too late: the allies, long before the *senatus consultum* of the 4th of October could be carried into effect, had executed their grand plan of operations. During the month of September, which was occupied principally in military movements, the allied forces had been augmented by the arrival of General Benningsen, at the head of a Russian corps of forty thousand men. The Hetman Platoff, the Cossack chief, who had been for some time absent from the great theatre of active operations, now re-appeared, and his warriors formed part of General Benningsen's corps, which joined the grand army in Bohemia. This seasonable reinforcement determined the leaders of that army to make a movement on the left, and, ascending from Bohemia, to interpose between Dresden and the communication with the Rhine. Platoff, with his Cossacks, led the advance, and vanquished a French corps, under General Lefebvre, which had been despatched to clear the road from Dresden. The allied army, in quitting the Bohemian frontier, proceeded in three divisions towards Leipzig, the force of the Russians and Prussians amounting to ninety thousand, and the Austrians to a hundred thousand men. The armies of the crown-prince and General Blücher, amounting together to one hundred and thirty thousand men, made a combined movement on the 5th of October in the direction of Leipzig, and by the 9th the whole of the combined armies formed a line in Bonaparte's rear, stretching from Dessau to the Bohemian mountains. Never perhaps was a military operation accomplished by so extensive and simultaneous a movement. The allies had now effected their great preliminary design, and it is impossible not to admire the skill, boldness and energy displayed upon this occasion.

An event now occurred of the most embarrassing nature to France. Bavaria had long been the ally of that state, but whether attached by fear or favour, it is difficult to determine. The alliances of states, formed and nurtured under the sunbeams of prosperity, are seldom found capable of withstanding the chilling blasts of adversity. Bonaparte had certainly been liberal to Bavaria; he had aggrandized that kingdom at the expense of Austria; and evidently wished to raise her up as a barrier to protect the French territory. But she had in the wars of France been treated as a vassal; she had been obliged to unite her forces to the French armies, and to send them to the extremities of Europe, to shed their blood in wars in which they could feel no interest. A superior Austrian corps, under Prince Reuss, had already entered the Bavarian territory; and the French army assembled on the Maine, and from which Bonaparte had promised assistance to Bavaria, had, in the exigency of his affairs, been ordered to repair to the Elbe. Maximilian Joseph, therefore, suddenly determined to dissolve all the ties which united him to France, and to afford to the cause of the allies his full and cordial co-operation. A treaty of alliance and concert between Austria and Bavaria was accordingly signed by Prince Reuss and General Wrede, on the 8th of October; and the Bavarian general, with thirty-five thousand Bavarian troops and twenty-five thousand Austrians under his command, immediately communicated with the combined armies.

In this most alarming state of affairs, Napoleon was reduced to the absolute necessity of commencing his retreat, and on the 7th of October he quitted Dresden, accompanied by the royal family of Saxony. It is impossible to assign any rational motive for the pertinacity with which the French emperor clung to the Saxon capital, unless it be supposed that he was under the same infatuation which seized him during the Russian campaign, and led him to advance, at the approach of winter, into a hostile and barren country, and to continue at Moscow till retreat was almost impossible. To every man not blinded by passion or obstinacy, it must have been apparent, that by lingering at Dresden, his own forces were gradually reduced in number and strength, while those of his enemy were daily accumulating, and placing themselves in a situation to cut off his communication with France.

The march of the French army, on its departure from Dresden, was not directed upon Leipzig, but upon Wittenburg; Berlin seemed to be its ulterior object, and

the utmost alarm seized that capital. The crown-prince, and General Blücher, upon learning this new direction of the French army, although they could not anticipate from it any unfavourable issue to the contest, determined to follow close in the rear of Napoleon, to be ready to assail him at any point against which he might direct his operations. With this view, they recrossed the Saale and the Elster, and were preparing to gain the right bank of the Elbe, when they learned that a complete change was observable in the movements of the enemy. It now appeared, that the French division which had passed the Elbe, and threatened Berlin, had been recalled, and that all the different corps were moving in the direction of Leipzig, where the fate of Europe was soon to be decided. The reason assigned by Bonaparte for this sudden change in his plan of operations, was the intelligence just received, that Bavaria had not only dissolved the alliance which had so long united her to France, but had concluded with the allies a treaty of co-operation. But whatever might be the motives by which he was actuated, this instance of vacillation in the councils of the French commander, was the source of irreparable injury to his affairs; by not marching at once from Dresden to Leipzig and the Saale, he suffered the allies to conduct their operations unmolested in his rear; and he was afterwards driven to retrace his steps, when it was too late to reap the benefits which might have been derived from more vigorous and decisive measures.

On the 15th of October, Bonaparte arrived at Leipzig, and found that place still in the possession of his troops; but the city was surrounded by hostile armies. The united force of General Blücher and the crown-prince, extended on the north from the Mulda to the Saale; and the army of Silesia communicated along the Saale with the grand army, which extended to the south from that river to the Mulda. According to this disposition of the allied forces, the two armies touched each other at the extremities, and though they were separated at other points, yet even their opposite lines were so nearly in contact that they could communicate by signals, and hear distinctly the sound of each other's cannon.

The 16th of October, the day immediately following the arrival of Napoleon, was fixed upon by Prince Schwartzberg, the commander-in-chief of the allied armies, for a general attack on all the French positions round Leipzig; and on this occasion the following order of the day was issued:—

"Brave warriors! The most important epoch of this sacred struggle is arrived. The decisive hour is striking: prepare for the fight. That tie which binds powerful nations together for one and the same object, will be drawn closer on the field of battle. Russians, Austrians, Prussians, you combat for the same cause; you fight for the liberty of Europe, for the independence of your country, for the honour and immortality of your name. One for all! All for one! Let this be your rallying cry when rushing to battle. Be faithful to it in the decisive moment, and victory is yours."

This energetic appeal to the army excited the most lively enthusiasm. On the north, the French division under Marshal Ney, consisting of the 4th, 6th, and 7th corps, commanded by Count Bertrand, Marshal Marmont, and General Regnier, occupied a line about four miles in extent, stretching from Leipzig along the roads to Dessau and Magdeburg. The army of the Crown-prince of Sweden formed the left of the opposite line, reaching from Wetten to Zarlug. On the right, nearer Leipzig, was General Blücher, with his head-quarters pushed to Gross Kirgall, and it was determined that on this side the grand effort should be made. At mid-day, a furious onset was made by the Prussian cavalry, which dislodged the enemy from the advanced villages which they had occupied; but they tenaciously held the woody ground on their right, and maintained themselves in the villages of Mockern and Makau, on the left of their position. In the former of these villages, a bloody contest ensued. Five times it was taken and retaken by General D'York, but at length the victorious Silesians carried all before them, and drove the French force beyond the banks of the Partha. The Russians, equally with their brave allies in arms, made the most gallant efforts in the villages of Great and Little Wetteritz; and the loss of the French in this battle, as stated on the authority of the London Gazette, was forty pieces of cannon, twelve thousand killed, wounded, and prisoners, one eagle, and many caissons; while the loss of the allies did not exceed seven thousand men.

While this contest was raging to the north of Leipzig, a separate, and still more furious battle, was fought on the south, between Prince Schwarzenberg, who was advancing towards Leipzig by the road of Lutzen; and that portion of the French army which was commanded by Bonaparte in person. The attack was made by the allies at eight o'clock in the morning, and the principal operations took place on the side of Wachau and Liebertswolkwitz. At eleven o'clock, Marshal Macdonald showed himself in advance before Holzhausen, and, in conjunction with General Lauriston, succeeded in forcing Gene-

ral Count Klenau to evacuate the position he had occupied near Gross Pössna. Count Klenau, having obtained reinforcements, ordered a succession of attacks to be made on the enemy at Seyfartshayn and Gross Pössna, and these posts were, in the course of the day, taken and retaken several times. On the side of Wachau, the enemy, aided by fresh troops, pressed forward with so much vigour, that the Prince of Wirtemberg was obliged to make a retrograde movement; and Prince Schwarzenberg, being apprized that Napoleon was making his great effort in this quarter, immediately ordered up into line the whole of the Austrian reserves. At the moment that the Austrian reserved cavalry, under General Count Nostitz, was debouching in advance of Grobern, the French dragoon-guards and Polish cavalry, under General Letort, had already penetrated to the vicinity of that village, and several of the battalions of infantry, drawn up in square masses, were following in close order. In this emergency, General Nostitz charged the enemy's cavalry at the head of three regiments of Austrian cuirassiers; and the charge was made with so much energy, that the cavalry was broken, and several squares of French guards put completely to the rout. Napoleon, finding all his attempts to gain ground in this quarter frustrated, now determined to repeat his attacks upon the Prince of Wirtemberg; and for this purpose, the corps of cavalry under General Latour Maubourg, headed by the King of Naples, was brought into action. In this quarter, the French infantry greatly outnumbered the Russians, and the allies had only ten squadrons of light cavalry on the spot. The enemy, favoured by the nature of the ground, advanced to the charge with impetuosity, and were actually on the point of breaking through the confederate army and cutting off the right wing. When the Emperor Alexander, perceiving the critical situation in which the army was placed, and fully aware of the disastrous consequences that would ensue, ordered, at this decisive moment, the reserve of the Cossack guards to charge the enemy. The charge was irresistible; the French horse were broken and dispersed; twenty-four pieces of captured cannon were retaken, and the disasters of the day were retrieved. According to the reports of those who witnessed this battle, the French stood as if rooted to the spot—the allies like rocks of granite; the former fought like men—the latter like lions. On the approach of night, both parties, inspired with mutual respect, desisted from hostilities. The battles of the 16th, which ex-

tended over a circle of many miles, and of which Leipzig may be considered as the centre, were not altogether so favourable to the allied arms as their numerical superiority, and the sanguine hopes of the friends of German independence, might have suggested: nor had Napoleon any reason for exultation, though all the bells of Leipzig were put in motion by French command to celebrate the victory. The momentary advantages acquired by the courage and constancy of his troops, were productive of no important consequences, and the rivers of blood shed on the 16th may be said to have flowed in vain.

The 17th was occupied by the French in replacing the eighty thousand cannon balls which had been fired on the preceding day, and by the allies in bringing up their reinforcements. On the advance of the allies from Bohemia, General Benningesen, at the head of a large army, had been left to observe Dresden; but when Napoleon quitted that capital, and left it defended by General St. Cyr alone, with a garrison of sixteen thousand men, so large a force was no longer necessary for the purpose of observation. The Russian general was therefore directed to leave merely a detachment before the Saxon capital, and with the whole of his remaining force to push forward without delay to join the grand army. During the 17th, some minor changes were made in the French army. On the north, the troops were drawn behind the river Partha; on the south they retired from Leobert, Walkowitz, and Wachau, where the battle of the 16th had been fought, into the interior line round Leipzig; and on the same day they succeeded in making an opening through the allied line along the Saale, in the direction of Weissenfels, thus at once securing to themselves a retreat, and intercepting the free communication between the allied armies.

On the 18th, Field-marshal Prince Schwartzenberg, having brought up all his reinforcements, determined to execute the designs of the allied sovereigns, and to bring the fate of Europe to its final crisis. At two o'clock in the morning, Napoleon was on the field. He approached within two leagues of Leipzig, and stationed his army, the right at Connowitz, the centre at Probstheyda, and the left at Sletteritz, villages to the south-east of the city, placing himself in the mill of Ta. On his side Marshal Ney ranged his troops opposite the Silesian army, under General Blücher, upon the Partha. The 6th corps was at Schoenfeld, and the 3d and the 7th along the Partha at Neutsch and Teekla. The Duke of Padua, with General Dom-

browski, guarded the position and the suburb of Leipzig upon the Halle road; while General Bertrand marched upon Lutzen and Weissenfels, to keep open the communication with Erfurt.

The grand army of the allies, which was under arms by the dawn of day, was divided into three columns: the first, under the command of General Benningesen, received orders to proceed from Seyfartshayn in the direction of Holzhausen; the second, commanded by General Barclay de Tolly, was destined to advance against the heights of Wachau; and the third, under the Prince of Hesse-Homburg, formed the reserve. In the execution of this plan of combined operation, the army of Silesia, commanded by General Blücher, was appointed to advance upon the Partha; while the northern army, under the crown-prince, had orders to advance direct upon Leipzig.

At eight o'clock in the morning, the first column of the grand army advanced in three divisions against the enemy, and after outflanking Marshal Macdonald, carried the villages of Holzhausen and Zuckelhausen. At ten, the second column, under General Barclay de Tolly, penetrated to Wachau, and having repulsed some detachments of the enemy, occupied that village with two brigades. The corps of Russians under Count Wittgenstein followed close upon the rear of General Kleist, who formed the advanced-guard, and the two corps drew up in battle array, in the vicinity of Probstheyda. At two o'clock in the afternoon, the two brigades, headed by Prince Augustus of Prussia, and General Pirch, belonging to Kleist's corps, received orders to storm the village of Probstheyda. This village, which formed the centre of Napoleon's troops, and might be called the key of his position, was occupied by a large French force, consisting of the 2d corps, under Marshal Victor, and a part of the 5th corps, exclusive of the reinforcements from the guards, which were successively thrown in from the reserve. The place itself was defended by more than eight thousand infantry; and batteries on both sides of the village spread death and destruction through the advancing columns. The gallant Prussians, undismayed by the murderous fire of the enemy's batteries, stormed and carried the place at the point of the bayonet. This success however was only transient: the French division, supported by the reserve, returned to the charge, and the Prussians, in their turn, were forced to retreat to the extremity of the village. At this moment, a corps of the enemy attempted to take the retreating army in flank, but a regiment of West Prussians fell upon

the pursuers, and repulsed them with loss. This advantage enabled the Prussian brigades to storm and carry the village a second time; and a second time the enemy, by force of numerical strength, succeeded in depriving them of their conquest. A detachment from the corps of Count Wittgenstein was now ordered up to the assistance of Prince Augustus; but notwithstanding a heavy cannonade on the solid masses of the enemy's infantry, and a murderous fire of grape-shot on his cavalry, he still retained possession of Probstheyda, and all the efforts made to dislodge him from that position proved unavailing.

Prodigious as were the efforts on this day of the confederate army, to make an impression on Napoleon's line of positions, yet the conflict was marked by no particular feature, nor distinguished by any bold manœuvre, or striking vicissitude: physical force supplied the place of military skill, and a series of regular assaults, bloody and obstinate, seemed to have formed the general characteristic of the battle of Leipzig. The theatre of these immense operations extended over a circle of many miles, within which death was dispersed at the same moment from the mouths of fifteen hundred pieces of cannon. On the field of battle, were congregated three emperors, two sovereign princes, and the heir-apparent to a crown; more than half a million of warriors, drawn from every region of their widely extended dominions, formed the combatants; and the stake at issue was nothing less than the independence of Europe.

At eight o'clock in the morning, the northern army, under the crown-prince, supported by the Silesian army, under General Blücher, quitted their position at Breitenfeld, and filed off towards Taucha, where they passed the river Partha, and formed a junction with General Benning's army. Marshal Ney was soon aware that his position behind the Partha was forced at all points by the northern army moving forwards from Taucha, and immediately changed his order of battle, by posting the three corps under his command in a line between Schoenfeld and Stuntz, while the 7th corps was drawn up in two lines near Paunsdorf. On this part of the field, the engagement now became animated in the extreme; thrice, say the French, did the enemy succeed in placing himself upon the left bank of the Partha, and thrice did the Prince of Moskwa drive him from that position, and overthrow him at the point of the bayonet.

It was now three o'clock in the afternoon, and victory still hovered between the two

armies, doubtful on which side to plant her standard; when a brigade of Saxon cavalry, the light artillery of the 7th corps, and a battalion of Saxon light infantry, together with a brigade of Wirtemberg cavalry, under General Normann, finding themselves on the point of being charged by the Russian cavalry, marched hastily forwards, the infantry shouldering their firelocks, and the cavalry sheathing their swords, and passed over to the allies! The Saxon corps posted in Paunsdorf no sooner heard of this event, than they took the same resolution; and although the Saxon General Zeschau exerted his utmost efforts to detain his troops in the French ranks, yet the whole of the 1st brigade, consisting of eleven battalions of infantry, three squadrons of cavalry, and three complete batteries of heavy artillery, followed the example of their brethren in arms, and made the cause of the confederates their own—proving to conquerors, that the terror which they inspire terminates with the power which has created it. This defection of the allies of Napoleon, at so critical a moment, not only caused an opening in the French lines, but gave up to the crown-prince the important debouch confided to the Saxon army, which carried its hostility to such a height as immediately to turn its forty pieces of cannon against General Duret's division. Disorder now prevailed in the French ranks; the allies established themselves on the left bank of the Partha, and soon advanced within half a league of Leipzig.

The French emperor, astonished, but not dismayed, by the "treason"* of the Saxon troops, instantly despatched General Nansouty, with twenty pieces of artillery, in order to take in flank the troops which were advancing along the Partha to attack Leipzig, while he himself was seen on the field proceeding in haste with a division of his guards to the village of Reudnitz, to oppose General Langeron. The promptitude of these movements re-established order in the French army; but the appearance of General Count Bubna at Molkan arrested the progress of Nansouty, and obliged him to forego his intention of outflanking the advanced column of the allies. From some unaccountable delay, the Swedish artillery had not arrived upon the field, but the crown-prince found a substitute in the cannon of the Saxons, which, being supported by a battery of Congreve's rockets, mowed down the ranks of the enemy, and contributed materially to their repulse. Napoleon, from his post at Reudnitz, pushed forward

* French bulletin of the 24th of October.

a division of his guards to the support of Marshal Marmont, who now succeeded in forcing Count Langeron to retire from his position at Schonfeld. The crown-prince, perceiving the inequality of numbers by which General Langeron was pressed and compelled to retreat, ordered the Swedish General Cardell to advance with twenty pieces of cannon; and thus reinforced, Langeron was enabled towards the close of the day to retake the village.

General Blucher, although he took no prominent part in the battle of Leipzig, contributed by his dispositions to promote the fortune of the day. Perceiving that the enemy was sending off troops in his rear on the road to Weissenfels, the veteran general, with his usual foresight and promptitude of action, detached General D'York with his whole corps, on the evening of the 18th, towards Halle, in hopes that on the left bank of the Saale he might reach Weissenfels before the enemy.

The approach of night put a stop to the operations of the conflicting armies. The enemy, in the midst of all their disasters, had made a gallant stand, and it must be admitted that they were not absolutely beaten out of the field; but the allies, by bearing up from all sides at one and the same moment, had established their united force within a few miles of Leipzig, and it had become obvious that further resistance on the part of the French must be unavailing. To add to the embarrassment of the Emperor Napoleon, Generals Sorbier and Dulauroy repaired to his bivouac at seven o'clock in the evening, to inform him, that in the course of the day ninety-five thousand cannon-balls had been fired; that the ammunition in reserve was exhausted; and that there remained only sixteen thousand cannon-balls, which would scarcely suffice for a cannonade of two hours, after which no ammunition would remain for ulterior events; that the army had in five days fired two hundred and twenty thousand cannon-balls, and that a further supply could be obtained only at Magdeburg or Erfurt. This state of things rendered an immediate retreat indispensable, and Napoleon determined to march upon Erfurt, for the same reason which induced him to march to Leipzig—to enable him to ascertain the defection of Bavaria.*

The passage along the road leading to Weissenfels, narrowed as it was at present, was attended with extreme difficulty. Five or six rivers running parallel, and near each other, and requiring bridges for each, formed a long and narrow defile,

through which an encumbered army could make only tardy movements. The evening had scarcely closed, when the French army began to defile, and the whole of the night of the 18th was occupied in the retreat. Napoleon, with the main body of his guards, remained in the vicinity of Leipzig till the morning of the 19th, when the victorious army of the confederates, headed by their gallant commanders, made every preparation to storm his last strong hold. At nine o'clock the bombardment commenced. The Emperor of Russia, and the King of Prussia, had scarcely joined the army in front of Leipzig, when a Saxon officer with a flag of truce arrived, and, in the name of the magistracy, requested that hostilities might be suspended for the purpose of arranging a capitulation. The messenger was received by the Emperor Alexander in person, who announced to him that his request could not be granted; and the preparations for the assault were continued with undiminished alacrity; when a second flag of truce appeared from Marshal Marmont, with an offer to deliver up the remainder of the Saxon troops, if the French might be permitted to retire unmolested, and the city spared a bombardment. These proposals being made only to gain time, were rejected, and the general attack had already begun. General Sacken, who had advanced to the north side of the city, carried the intrenchment in front of the Halle gate after a severe action; but a galling fire of grape-shot still retarded his advance, till General Langeron, by order of General Blucher, filed off a body of troops for his support through the meadows of the Partha, and after forcing the enemy to abandon the gate, entered the city as conquerors. The northern army commenced its operations towards the east; and the crown-prince ordered General Bulow to attack and occupy Leipzig in that direction. The gates were defended with great bravery, but nothing could withstand the Prussian bayonet; the French gave way in all directions, and notwithstanding all their attempts to rally in the streets, the intrepid Prussians bore down all opposition, and became masters of the eastern division of the town. About the same time, the advanced guard of General Benningsen's army entered the city, and after a severe engagement in some of the avenues, put the enemy completely to the rout. The immense quantity of baggage, artillery, and equipments of every description, relinquished by the French army in their precipitate retreat, had choked up every street, gateway, and outlet; and the retreating army exhibited a chaos of confusion that cannot

* French bulletin of the 24th of October.

be described, while each individual sought in flight his personal safety.

Obstinately as the French defended themselves, they were unable to withstand the iron masses of the assailants. They were overthrown in every quarter, and finally driven out of the city. In Leipzig, which, including the suburbs, occupies an area of little less than six English miles, scarcely a house presented itself which did not exhibit evidence of the sanguinary conflict. The ground was strewn with dead bodies, and the carcasses of horses were particularly numerous. The Runstadt causeway, where it is crossed by the Muhlgraben or mill-dam, exhibited a spectacle peculiarly horrid. Men and horses were everywhere to be seen: driven into the water, they had there found a grave, and their remains were now projected in hideous groups upon the surface. Here, the storming columns from all the gates, guided by the retiring foe, had united, and had found a sure mark for every shot in the closely compacted masses of the enemy. But the most dreadful sight of all, was that which presented itself in the beautiful Richter's garden, once the ornament of the city, on that side where it joins the Elster: there, the cavalry were engaged; and along the banks, heads, arms, and feet, appeared above the water. Numbers, in attempting to ford that treacherous river, had perished in its stream. The smoking ruins of whole villages and towns consumed by fire, or of extensive tracts laid waste by inundations, exhibit a melancholy spectacle; but a field of battle is the most shocking sight that the eye can behold. Here, all kinds of horrors are united; here, death reaps his richest harvest, and revels amid a thousand different forms of human suffering.*

Napoleon did not quit Leipzig till ten o'clock in the morning, and only a few minutes previously to the victorious entrance of the allies. Before his departure, he had ordered the engineers to form a mine under the grand bridge between Leipzig and Lindenau, with directions to blow up the bridge when the French troops had all marched over, and thus to retard the advance of their pursuers. This duty, by a strange neglect on the part of Colonel Montfort, was confided to a corporal and four sappers, who, ill comprehending the nature of the service, upon hearing the first shot discharged from the ramparts of the city, set fire to the mine, and blew up the bridge. When this explosion took place, the whole of the rear guard of the

French army, under Marshal Macdonald and Prince Poniatowski, were still on the Leipzig side of the river, with a park of eighty pieces of cannon, and several hundred wagons. A cry of dismay soon spread through the ranks, on the approach of the troops to the river—"The enemy are close upon our rear, and the bridges are destroyed!" was heard on every side. The soldiers dispersed, and were all either killed, wounded, or taken prisoners; Marshal Macdonald swam across the river, but Prince Poniatowski, less fortunate, plunged into the Elster, and sunk never more to rise.*

The results of the battle of Leipzig were immense and decisive. The allied armies took fifteen general officers, and among them Generals Regnier and Lauristow, commanding corps d'armee. The body of General Dumorestier was found in the river, and more than a thousand men perished in the stream. Two hundred and fifty pieces of cannon, nine hundred caissons, and about fifteen thousand prisoners, including the King of Saxony and all his court, fell into the hands of the allies, besides several eagles and colours. The enemy abandoned more than twenty-three thousand sick and wounded, and his total loss exceeded sixty thousand men. According to every calculation, the Emperor Napoleon was not able to save from the general disaster more than from seventy-five to eighty thousand troops.† "It is inconceivable," says the crown-prince, in the bulletin from which we quote, "how a man who had commanded in thirty pitched battles, and who had exalted himself by military glory, in appropriating to himself that of all the old French generals, should have been capable of concentrating his army in so unfavourable a position as that in which he had placed it; the Elster and the Pleisse in his rear, a marshy ground to traverse, and only a single bridge for the

* Prince Joseph Poniatowski, nephew of Stanislaus Augustus, the last King of Poland. This gallant prince had long ranked among the most devoted of the French generals, and when he perceived that he was in danger of being captured, he drew his sabre, and turning to the officers by whom he was surrounded, said—"Gentlemen, it is better to fall with honour than to live disgraced." He then rushed, at the head of a few Polish cuirassiers, upon the advancing columns of the allies, and cut his way through their ranks to the Elster, where he met his fate. His unshaken attachment to the Emperor Napoleon is attributed to a hope that he would one day restore the land of his nativity to that rank among nations from which she had been precipitated by the ambition and injustice of the courts of St. Petersburg, Vienna, and Berlin.

† Twenty-third bulletin of the crown-prince, dated Leipzig, October 21st, 1813.

* Narrative of the battle of Leipzig by an eye-witness

passage of a hundred thousand men, and three thousand baggage wagons. Every one asks, 'Is this the great captain who has hitherto made Europe tremble!'"

The allied monarchs, proceeding from different quarters, at the head of their guards, made a solemn entry into Leipzig about mid-day on the 19th of October, and met in the great square of that city, where the deliverance of Germany from a foreign yoke, the dissolution of the confederation of the Rhine, and the overthrow of the continental system, formed the animating topics of their mutual congratulations. Never in the ensanguined annals of Europe, had any military operations been exhibited on so grand a scale as those which, for four days, took place in the neighbourhood of Leipzig. Famine and pestilence, which follow in the train of war, did their part, and co-operated with the sword in the work of death. The city of Leipzig became an hospital. Thousands of the inhabitants of that place and the adjacent villages and hamlets, were deprived of their homes, stripped of their all, their habitations reduced to ashes, and their families left to perish by hunger. Their fields, which had gained everlasting celebrity from the most signal of victories, were, to the distance of ten or twelve miles, transformed into a desert. The industry of many years was annihilated in a few hours. All around was one wide waste. The miserable condition of these deplorable victims of the thirst of conquest, no language is able to portray.*

The retreat of Napoleon was such as might have been expected: a powerful army was behind, and clouds of Cossacks and other light troops were far advanced before him; his line of march from the Saale to Fulda was strewn with artillery, baggage, and every species of military wreck; and, the more effectually to impede his movements, the Bavarian army, amounting to thirty-five thousand men, had placed themselves at Hanau, near the banks of the Maine. On the arrival of Napoleon at Erfurt, on the 23d, he halted for two days, to reorganize and refresh his exhausted army. To the neighbourhood of this city, he was pursued by Field-marshal Blücher,† who, by an unfortunate, but very natural, calculation, concluded that

Bonaparte would endeavour to cross the Rhine at Coblenz, and advanced in the direction of that city. Relieved by this movement of the Silesian army, from the apprehension of being placed between two fires, Napoleon advanced by rapid marches upon Hanau, where he turned the whole of his remaining force against the Bavarians. General Wrede, with the most gallant determination, resolved to sustain the unequal contest; but after a well-contested battle, of eight hours duration, he was compelled to give way; and on the evening of the 31st the head-quarters of the French army were established at Frankfurt. On the 7th of November, Napoleon crossed the Rhine at Mentz, with the remnant of his German army, leaving behind him all his conquests, and with them his towering hopes of universal dominion.

Two days after the passage of the Rhine, the French emperor arrived in Paris; when the senate was immediately convened, and three hundred thousand men placed, by a decree of that body, at the disposal of the minister of war. This measure was declared to be necessary in consequence of the unparalleled treachery of the allies of France, at the battle of Leipzig; and the people, who were reminded of the fate of Poland, were asked what would be the situation of France, should the advancing enemy penetrate into her territory? Had not France been exhausted; had she, besides the requisite population to supply her new and great demand, still retained either that enthusiasm by which she was animated at the beginning of the revolution, or that stimulating and ambitious fondness for military glory, and that firm belief that Bonaparte was destined to render her the mistress of Europe, with which she was so fully possessed not two years before, she might have succeeded in raising a numerous and powerful army. But the campaigns of Russia and of Germany had stripped her almost of her efficient military population; the fondness for glory had abated; and not all the arts of Napoleon could restore it, or revive that patriotic ardour which distinguished the French nation, when the sovereigns of Europe leagued against the republic, invaded their country twenty years before.

In the mean time, the mighty edifice which Napoleon had erected on the ruins of the independence of the continent, was tottering to its fall. The victory of Leipzig, by freeing the minds of the people of Germany from all apprehensions of his power, completely dissolved the confederation of the Rhine, and deprived France of every efficient ally. The Kings of Denmark and Naples, indeed, still retained

* Memorial of the city of Leipzig to the British nation.

† At the close of the battle of Leipzig, the Prince of Schwartzberg, the commander-in-chief of the allied armies, was invested by his sovereign with the great cross of the order of Maria Theresa; and on the following day the King of Prussia promoted General Blücher to the rank of field-marshal.

the character of the friends of Napoleon; but the former was too remote in situation and too feeble in resources, to afford him any assistance, and the latter, before the close of the year, was employed in negotiating a treaty with the allied sovereigns for the preservation of his own dominions.

It is the happy impulse of tyranny, to pursue the road to its own destruction; and in Holland, the grievous oppressions suffered from the law of conscription, and the rigid enforcement of the continental system, had inspired every heart with an earnest desire to throw off the French yoke. Under the pressure of severe and long continued sufferings, all the parties which once divided and agitated that unhappy country, had undergone a salutary change. The remembrance of former evils and discontents had faded away, while the blessings which had once been enjoyed under the government of the house of Orange were borne in mind, with regret for the past, and hope for the future. The disasters experienced by the French army in the Russian campaign, had revived the hopes of the friends of national independence; and towards the close of the year 1812, the chiefs of the Orange party at the Hague met frequently, in secret, to consult on the best measures for freeing their country from French control, and effecting the restoration of the Prince of Orange.

During the spring and summer of the year 1813, Holland remained tranquil; and the French government seems to have been lulled by this tranquillity into a state of delusive confidence. Troops were marched from all quarters of that country, to join the army with which Bonaparte was about to attack the allied forces; and no serious apprehensions were entertained respecting the people of Holland. From this period, to the month of October following, no circumstance arose, calculated materially to alarm the French authorities; but when the intelligence of the result of the battle of Leipzig began to transpire, the confederates at the Hague, amounting to one hundred in number, judged that the time had arrived to emancipate their country, and as one of the first steps towards effecting their object, they determined to enlarge their number by the addition of a respectable body of their fellow citizens. With this view, each of the confederates engaged to select from among his friends, four individuals, who without any mutual concert or knowledge of each other, should engage to be ready, whenever called upon, to obey the command of the friend by whom each was selected. Thus they formed a band

of five hundred respectable adherents, selected chiefly from among the burghers of the town, and held together by the terms of friendship, patriotism, and mutual security. At the head of this band, stood Count Styrum; and the services of the inhabitants of Schœveningen, a village on the coast, about a mile from the Hague, were secured by the influence of an inhabitant of that place, of the name of Pronck. No measures were taken to influence the people, for none were necessary, it being perfectly clear that their good will and co-operation might be depended upon, the moment leaders were presented to them in whom they could confide. Count Styrum, whose zeal, courage, and activity, were remarkable, soon succeeded in gaining over the whole of the Dutch national guard at the Hague, consisting of three hundred men, together with their colonel (Tulling), who conducted himself with so much circumspection, as to retain, to the moment of the explosion, the confidence of the French prefect.

On the 15th of November, the populace being already in a state of great fermentation, a mob was collected at Amsterdam, which immediately proceeded to burn the wooden huts in which the douaniers, or excise officers, levied the duties, and to pillage the house of the receiver of the customs, who refused to take down the French arms. This tumult, which had the appearance of being purely accidental, succeeded in terrifying the French authorities, who on the next day quitted the town; and from this period, the corporation, and the more opulent part of the inhabitants of Amsterdam, who had hitherto resisted the idea of a counter-revolution, attached themselves to the popular cause. On the next day, a proclamation was issued, in which four-and-twenty citizens were called on by name, to assume the administration of affairs, and the government of the city passed into their hands. No sooner had the intelligence of the insurrection at Amsterdam, reached the Hague, than Count Styrum was immediately appointed governor by the confederates, in the name of the Prince of Orange. An instrument was also drawn up, summoning a meeting of those persons who had been members of the states of Holland, in the years 1794-5, and this meeting was appointed to take place on the following day. A proclamation addressed to the Dutch people, was at the same time issued by the provisional government, and this laconic and emphatic address, sufficiently indicates the wisdom and moderation which regulated their councils:—

ORANGE BOVEN!

Holland is free!—the allies advance upon Utrecht—the English are invited—the French fly on all sides—the sea is open—trade revives—party spirit has ceased—what has been suffered is forgiven and forgotten—men of importance and consideration are called to the government—the government invites the prince to the sovereignty—we join the allies, and force the enemy to sue for peace—the people are to have a day of rejoicing at the public expense, without being allowed to plunder or commit any excess—every one renders thanks to God—old times are restored.—*Orange boven!*

This proclamation was received by the people with every demonstration of joy; an Orange flag was hoisted on the tower of the Hague, and similar emblems were suspended from almost every window in the town.

It now became of great importance that the Prince of Orange should be informed of the events which had taken place on the 19th; and M. M. Perponcher and Fagel set sail from Schoeveningen, with a favourable wind, for England, to offer the sovereignty to his most serene highness, and to invite him to repair to Holland, and assume the government. Messengers were also despatched in different directions; some to the head-quarters of the allied sovereigns, which were now established at Francfort, to urge the immediate advance of the armies; and others to the English fleet, to solicit their co-operation.

On the 27th, M. Fagel arrived from England, and was made the bearer of a letter from the Prince of Orange to M. Van Hogendorp, who, with M. Maasdam, had been appointed, on the 21st, to the general administration of affairs at the Hague. In this letter, promises were made of the prompt arrival of succours, and the prince announced his intention to sail as soon as possible for Holland. On the 30th, the Prince of Orange, accompanied by Lord Clancarty, arrived off the Dutch coast, and in the course of the day effected a landing off Schteveningen, under a royal salute from a small English fleet off that station. The day was remarkably fine, the beach was covered with spectators, and the cry of *Orange boven!* was heard in every direction, accompanied by demonstrations of joy, approaching to phrensy.

The Prince of Orange, convinced that unanimity in a nation is the only source of strength, lost no time in giving the Dutch people a pledge of the principles and conduct of his future government. Accordingly, on the 1st of December an address was distributed, in which it was stated, that after nineteen years of absence, the prince received with the greatest joy their unanimous invitation to return among

them; and that he hoped, by the blessing of Providence, to be the instrument of restoring them to their former state of independence and prosperity; that this was his only object; and he had the satisfaction to assure them, that this was also the object of the combined powers; that it was particularly the wish of the Prince-regent of England, and of the British nation. In conclusion, he assured them that he had come among them determined to pardon and to forgive all that was past, and that the spirit of party should be for ever banished.

While these events were passing at the Hague, a Russian force, consisting of two thousand four hundred men, under the command of General Benkendorf, arrived at Amsterdam, and on the same day the important fortress of Brielle surrendered.

On the 3d of December, the Prince of Orange, accompanied by the English embassy, made his entrance into Amsterdam, where he was received with enthusiastic plaudits, and proclaimed by the title of William I. Sovereign Prince of the Netherlands. This proclamation was followed by the levy and organization of an army of twenty-five thousand men; and the rapid progress of the allied armies completed the triumph of Dutch independence; while the liberties of the people were secured by a constitution, combining many of the advantages of that admirable frame of government which seems destined to form, at no distant period, a model for all civilized nations.*

This revolution, though so sudden, was not disgraced by any excesses towards the civil and military authorities by which the nation had so long been oppressed. The Dutch showed to the kingdoms of Europe how to distinguish between the instruments and the instigators of their misfortunes; and this magnanimous example of moderation and prudence contributed probably to save France, in the approaching crisis, from the prevalence of that sanguinary spirit which too often prompts the predominant party to wreak its vengeance upon the fallen.

The British ministry seconded, by every means in their power, the exertions of the sovereign of the Netherlands to liberate his country from French vassalage. Parliament was assembled at an earlier period than usual, partly in consequence of the splendid prospects that were now opening on the continent, and partly in order to replenish the public treasury, which the immense expenditure of the war in the pre-

* Edinburgh Annual Register.

sent year had tended so much to exhaust. Never perhaps did the parliament of England exhibit so much coincidence of opinion as during this short session. Members generally adverse to the existing administration, expressed in the most frank and noble manner their commendation of ministers for the line of conduct they had pursued; and especially for the pacific and moderate tone of the speech of the prince-regent, wherein he had declared, that no disposition to require from France sacrifices of any description inconsistent with her honour or just pretensions, would ever be, on his own part, or on that of his majesty's allies, an obstacle to peace. Hopes were also expressed by the members of opposition, that every exertion would be made by his majesty's government to restore Holland to her former rank and dignity among the nations of Europe; and these expectations were amply realized. A bill was passed to enable the militia to enlist into the regiments of the line, without limitation; and thus the government was enabled to send a strong reinforcement to Holland, under the command of Sir Thomas Graham. Nor was this the only measure by which ministers, during the short sitting of parliament before the recess, assisted the cause of national independence; a bill was passed into a law, authorizing the issue of paper money, which was to be guaranteed by England, in conjunction with Russia and Austria, and to be employed on the continent for supplying the wants of the armies.

While the grand allied army, consisting of the Austrian, Bavarian, and part of the Russian and Prussian armies, directed its march towards the Rhine, and on the 5th of November established their headquarters at Francfort, the crown-prince, with the army of the north, liberated his majesty's Hanoverian dominions from the presence of the French armies. Although ten years had separated this country from its legitimate sovereign, the inhabitants displayed at Hanover, and other places of the electorate, proofs of the most unalterable affection and loyalty, and the re-establishment of the regency of Hanover, exercised in the name of the elector, gratified the wishes, and tranquillized the minds of every class of the people.

On the 4th of December, the corps of the prince-royal's army moved forward towards the Strecknitz; and on their arrival on the banks of that river, Marshal Davoust shut himself up in Hamburg, leaving the right wing of the Danes posted at Oldesloe. The crown-prince now

marched upon Lubec, which city soon capitulated;* and thence he directed his operations against Danish Holstein. An attempt was made by the government to raise the militia in this province, but the inhabitants refused to arm against the allies, and the conquest of Holstein became inevitable. The fall of Gluckstadt speedily followed the invasion of Holstein; and Denmark, finding all further resistance unavailing, separated her interests from France, and negotiated a treaty of peace with Sweden and Great Britain. By this treaty, Norway was surrendered to Sweden, in return for which Denmark was to receive Swedish Pomerania. Great Britain, on her part, agreed to restore to Denmark all the conquests made from that country, with the exception of Heligoland, in consideration of which the Danes were to join the allies with ten thousand troops, on receiving a subsidy from this country of 400,000*l*.

At the time when the negotiations were in progress between the allied powers and Denmark, the French Marshal Davoust, governor-general and commander-in-chief in Hamburg, exercised the most tyrannical conduct towards the inhabitants of that city. Nothing was deemed sacred. The funds of the bank of Hamburg, with all the private property deposited in that institution by the citizens, were seized and confiscated; every species of oppression and injustice was practised towards the inhabitants, and thousands of them, of all ages and of both sexes, were expelled from the city, because it was not in their power to accumulate a stock of provisions on which they could subsist for six months. The Prince-royal of Sweden, previous to

* The following letter on the capture of Lubec, addressed by the Prince-royal of Sweden to his son, breathes sentiments worthy of a prince:—

MY DEAR OSCAR,—The people of Lubec assisted Gustavus I. in restoring liberty to his country; I have just discharged this debt of the Swedes—Lubec is free. I had the happiness to gain possession of the city, without bloodshed. This advantage is dearer to me than victory in a pitched battle, even though it might not cost me many men. How happy are we, my dear son, when we can prevent the shedding of tears! How sound and undisturbed is our sleep. If all men could be convinced of this truth, there would be no more conquerors, and nations would be governed only by just kings. I set off to-morrow for Oldesloe, and the day after whither events may call me; I do all I can to make them conduce to the good cause, and the benefit of my country. The only recompense I desire is, that it may second you, my dear child, in every thing you will one day undertake for its prosperity and welfare.

"Your affectionate father.

(Signed) "CHARLES JEAN.

"Lubec, Dec. 7, 1813."

his departure to unite his forces with the allied armies on the Rhine, penetrated with the distresses of these unfortunate fugitives, ordered the sum of forty thousand dollars to be distributed to them from his military chest, and General Benning-sen, to whom was confided the command of the besieging army before Hamburg, contributed his best exertions to promote the beneficent designs of the crown-prince.

The battle of Leipzig was soon afterwards followed by the surrender of Dresden, and General St. Cyr, with his garrison of sixteen thousand men, were made prisoners of war, and marched into Russia. Bonaparte now proposed to treat for the surrender of all the fortresses on the Elbe, the Oder, and the Vistula; but, as the consequence of any arrangement of this nature would have been to restore an army of upwards of fifty thousand men to France, the proposal was deemed inadmissible, and rejected by the allied sovereigns. During the campaign, a change of the most disastrous nature had occurred in the affairs of the French emperor. He had on the Elbe, at one period, an army approaching to three hundred thousand men; but he had been driven across the Rhine with less than one-third of that number. While he remained on the Elbe, Hanover, Westphalia, Saxony, and Holland, were still his tributary states; now, that his army was upon the Rhine, Hanover, Westphalia, Holland, and all Germany, were against him. The people of the Netherlands were ready to throw off his authority; and the combined armies, in tremendous force, were preparing to pass the French frontier. The important fortresses of Breda, Wilhelmstadt, and Helvoetsluis, in Holland, he had caused to be evacuated without the slightest resistance. He fought no longer for conquest, but for safety. Fortresses were of comparatively little importance to him; his great object was to collect and to concentrate an army, to enable him to oppose a barrier to the torrent which threatened to overwhelm him. The allies, therefore, did not pause in their career to besiege fortresses; but marched on against the enemy's main force, well aware that if they could destroy his grand army, the fortresses could not long survive its fate.

During the "campaign of the liberties of Europe," by which name the military operations of 1813 have been dignified, a number of distinguished warriors closed their career of glory, and a short biographical sketch of some of the most eminent of their number may form an appropriate conclusion to the history of the great

events which have just passed under review.*

* *Michel, son of Ilarion, Prince Golenitscheff Kutusoff*, of Smolensk, born in 1745, of a noble and ancient family; Knight of the Orders of St. Andrew—of St. Alexander-Newsky—of St. George—of St. Wladimir—of St. Anne—Commander of the Sovereign Order of St. John of Jerusalem—Grand Cross of the Order of Maria Theresa—and Knight of the Black Eagle, and of the Red Eagle of Prussia.

Field-marshal Kutusoff, although nobly allied, entered the Russian army as a simple cadet in the year 1759. In the campaign of 1769 against the Polish confederates, he gave the first prestage of those distinguished talents which time served to develop, and which, in the progress of his military career, raised him to the summit of his profession. The following year, he was employed in the army of Marshal Count Romiantzoff Zadounaiski, and in the Turkish war received from that great general those lessons which serve to impart skill to the hero. In the year 1774, he was sent into the Crimea, and gave fresh proofs of his valour in the intrenchments of Schoumna, where he was struck with a ball, which, entering his left temple, passed through his head, and deprived him of the sight of his right eye. At the commencement of the second war against the Turks, in 1788, Kutusoff now became major-general, served under Prince Potemkin at the siege of Otchacoff, and was again severely wounded by a musket shot, which, entering his cheek, lodged in his neck. In September, in the same year, he served under General Suworow at the siege of Ismail, and that consummate judge of military merit soon recognised in Kutusoff talents which induced him to recommend him to the Empress Catharine as one of her most skilful generals. At the assault of Ismail, where every obstacle which art, numbers, and valour, could oppose, seemed united against the Russians, Kutusoff, at the head of the 5th column, scaled the walls, seized one of the bastions, and penetrated into the fortress. This service, the commander-in-chief was proud to acknowledge. "Kutusoff," says Suworow, "by aiding my left wing, has been my right arm." The rank of lieutenant-general, and commander of all the troops between the Pruth, the Dniester, and the Danube, rewarded his services on this sanguinary day, and procured for him the distinguished favour of his sovereign. During the whole of this war, he continued to deserve the applauding smiles of his country, and he acquired a new title to its gratitude by the part which he took in restoring the peace which happily crowned his labours.

In 1792 the troubles in Poland recalled him to arms. Appointed to the command of the first division of the Ukraine, he passed the Dniester and subdued Warsaw. The important services rendered to the state by his talents, not less than by his valour, pointed him out to the Empress Catharine as a fit person to represent the Russian court at Constantinople, and he was sent in June, 1793, in quality of ambassador to the Grand Seigneur. On his return to St. Petersburg, in May, 1794, he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Russian troops and fortresses in Finland.

During the reign of the Emperor Paul, he was charged with a private commission to Berlin, to Frederick William; and in 1799, after the unfortunate expedition of General Hermann, he was appointed to command the Russian troops in Hol-

land; but on the recall of the army, he returned to the Russian capital.

On the elevation of the Emperor Alexander to the throne of the czars, General Kutusoff was appointed military governor of St. Petersburg. In 1805, he was named commander-in-chief of an army of 40,000 men, and marched to the succour of Austria; but the defeat of General Mack, and the fall of Ulm, forced him to retire. The success so faithfully attached to his steps when he advanced, did not abandon him in his retrograde movements, and a skilful retreat conferred upon Kutusoff the only kind of glory which he required to complete his military renown.

In 1806, he was appointed military governor of Kieff; and in 1809, being with the army of Moldavia, he was charged with the functions of governor-general in Lithuania, which office he filled till 1811. On the death of Count Kamenskii, he resumed the chief command of the army of the Danube, and, with 30,000 men, not only succeeded in protecting the conquered provinces, menaced by a formidable army under the command of the grand vizier, Nazir Pacha, but forced the Turks from their entrenched camp on Mount Balkan, in the face of the most determined opposition. Not less skilful in taking advantage of the victory, than in gaining it, he led the grand vizier into a snare on the Danube, near Slobodze; deprived him of all the resources he had prepared on this side of the river, invaded Silistria and Tourtounkai, cut off entirely his retreat, and forced the enemy's army to submit to an unconditional surrender. To recompense such glorious labours, his imperial majesty presented him with his portrait enriched with diamonds, and conferred on him the title of count.

A deluge, which had overwhelmed two-thirds of Europe, vast from the immense wrecks which it swept along with it, now precipitated itself towards Russia. She had need of all her forces, to compose a mound capable of resisting the impetuous torrent. In these critical circumstances, peace with the Turks became indispensable, and Russia was indebted to the diplomatic skill of Count Kutusoff for this blessing. On his return to the capital, he was raised to the dignity of a prince, and the body of the nobility named him, by acclamation, chief of the soldiers of the government. But Alexander and Russia soon called him to the highest destinies; he was charged to save his country; and soon afterwards appointed by his imperial majesty commander-in-chief of all the armies. On the 28th of August, 1812, he arrived at the camp of the allied armies, near Giatzk. Scarcely had he made himself acquainted with the state of the troops, when he found it necessary to measure his strength with Napoleon, the Emperor of France. On the 7th of September, he was engaged in the memorable battle of Borodino.* Kutusoff, raised to the dignity of field-marshal for the battle of the 7th, might perhaps even now have arrested the progress of the invaders; but he knew what victory would cost him, and determined not to make the terrible sacrifice. The course he took, inflicted a present evil, but it produced a permanent good. Moscow fell into the hands of the enemy; and Kutusoff, skilfully encouraging the flattering delusions which lulled the conqueror, left him to sleep in the delicious dream of a chimerical peace, which should rivet the fetters of Europe, and open to her master the gates of Asia. At length, the period foreseen by this sagacious general arrived; Moscow, set free, beheld the flight of the enemy. The invin-

cible resistance of the Russians at Malo-Jaroslavit forced the enemy to retrace the route on which he had sown desolation and misery, and on which he could reap nothing but misery and desolation. His conqueror pursued him incessantly; every battle was a victory, every march was a triumph for the Russians. Whole armies fell beneath the rigours of a Russian winter, and the gallantry of Russian troops. Thus, these immense cohorts, which, by their numbers and formidable preparations, seemed destined to be marching to the conquest or ruin of the universe, marched only to captivity and death. On the 21st of December, the inhabitants of Wilna beheld their prince tenderly embracing the heroic author of these prodigies, decorating him with the grand cordon of St. George, and proclaiming him the saviour of his country. Already the Vistula and the Oder were free, and the order of the Black Eagle, and the portrait of the Prussian monarch, enriched with brilliants, testified to the liberator of his country the gratitude of that prince. Soon the Russian eagle, lately come from the banks of the Moskwa, hovered over the banks of the Elbe, which now became crowded by the sons of the Don and the Volga. But the destiny of this great man was accomplished; he died covered with glory, in the 68th year of his age, in the little town of Bunzlau, in Silesia, on the 16th of April, 1813.*

The tears of his companions in arms evinced how greatly he was venerated and esteemed by them; and the magnificent obsequies bestowed on his remains, demonstrated how highly his memory was revered by all; while the following letter, addressed to his widow, will show the high esteem in which he was held by his sovereign:—

“*Princess Catharine Ilinishina!*”

“The Almighty, whose decrees it is impossible for mortals to resist, and unlawful to murmur at, has been pleased to remove your husband, Prince Michel Larionovitch Kutusoff Smolensk, in the midst of his brilliant career of victory and glory, from a transient to an eternal life. A great and grievous loss, not for you alone, but for the country at large! Your tears flow not alone for him—I weep—all Russia weeps with you. Yet God, who has called him to himself, grants you this consolation, that his name and his deeds are immortal; a grateful country will never forget his merits. Europe, and the whole world, will for ever admire him, and inscribe his name on the list of the most distinguished commanders. A monument shall be erected to his honour; beholding which, the Russian will feel his heart swell with pride, and the foreigner will respect a nation that gives birth to such great men. I have given orders that you should retain all the advantages enjoyed by your late husband; and remain your affectionate

(Signed)

“ALEXANDER.”

“Dresden, April 25th, 1813.”

Marshal Bessieres, Duke of Istria, surnamed “The Brave,” was distinguished among the French generals for his courage and intrepidity. Italy, Germany, and the banks of the Nile, had witnessed his deeds in arms, and his urbanity in society was equal to his gallantry in the field. He was born at Pressac, in 1769, and entered the military service at the period of the revolution, as a common soldier. For sixteen years, he had, in

* *Galerie des Portraits des Généraux, &c. qui ont contribué aux Succès des Armes Russes pendant la Guerre en 1812.*

* See chap. xviii. p. 220.

different ranks, commanded the emperor's guard, and followed him in all his campaigns and battles. His death, on the field of battle near Lutzen, on the first of May, 1813, was so rapid, as to be without pain, and his memory was cherished by the whole army. A son of Marshal Bessieres, the inheritor of the name and renown of his father, has, by a striking act of magnanimity, been called, though in his nonage, to the dignity of a peer of France by Louis XVIII.

Marshal Duroc, Duke of Friuli.—Gerard Christopher Michel Duroc was the son of a scrivener, and born at Pont-a-Mousson, on the 25th of October, 1772. The studies of his youth were military, and the first levy took him into the army. The general served in the capacity of chief aid-de-camp to Bonaparte, and afterwards became a leader of a brigade, in which situation he distinguished himself, particularly at the passage of the Lœnon. He accompanied Bonaparte into Egypt, and returned with him to France in 1799, whence, on the formation of the consular government, he was sent in the capacity of ambassador extraordinary to Berlin. He was afterwards employed on missions to Stockholm and St. Petersburg, and the success with which all his negotiations were executed, shows that the warrior and the diplomatist are not incompatible characters. He knew how to ally civil virtues to military renown—to blend the olive with the laurel. On the 8th of July 1805, he was appointed grand-marshal of the palace, and decorated with the order of the Black Eagle of Prussia. He had long held the rank of the personal friend of Napoleon, and on the 22d of May, 1813, the day succeeding the battle of Bautzen, he fell by a cannon-ball, lamenting that he could no longer be of use to him to whose service his life had been consecrated.

General Moreau.—Among the distinguished characters called forth by the French revolution, may be ranked Jean Victor Moreau, born at Morlain, in the year 1761. A decided passion for arms led him, at the age of eighteen, to quit the profession of the law, in which his father held a respectable rank, and to enlist as a private soldier. From a situation so inferior to his education and prospects in life, he was soon removed by paternal kindness, and enabled to pursue his studies, till, at the period of the revolution, he had attained a marked superiority among the students at Rennes. In the year 1790, young Moreau obtained the command of a battalion of volunteers in his department, and from that time he devoted himself wholly to the military profession. His valour and genius soon attracted attention, and in 1793 he was elevated to the rank of brigadier-general. On the 14th of April, 1794, he was appointed general of division, on the recommendation of General Pichegru, under whom he served with splendid success in the army of the north. In the celebrated winter campaign of 1794, which bowed Holland beneath the power of France, Moreau greatly contributed to the rapid success of his country. After the retreat of Pichegru, in 1796, he took the command of the armies of the Rhine and Moselle, and in the month of June opened that campaign which laid the foundation of his military glory.* His memorable retreat through the Black Forest to the Rhine, procured him the appellation of the modern Fabius; and the happy union of caution and skill which enabled him to rescue the French army in Italy from the perilous situation into which it had been

precipitated, established his claim to rank with the Roman Cunctator. In 1797, General Moreau felt himself called upon by a sense of public duty to denounce his friend and patron, General Pichegru, who had entered into a treasonable correspondence with the Prince of Conde, and was meditating the overthrow of the republic. In 1800, he was nominated by the first consul to the command of the army of the Danube. The success of this campaign is justly ascribed to his skill and promptitude, and the battle of Hohenlinden, "where furious Frank and fiery Hun join'd in the dreadful revelry," may be recorded as one of the most signal of his victories.*

The treaty of Leoben, executed at Steyer, the headquarters of General Moreau, soon afterwards followed, and on his return to Paris, Bonaparte presented him with a pair of magnificent pistols, saying, "I could have wished to have had your victories engraved upon them, but there was not room enough." The general, having married during the preceding summer, now retired to his estate at Grosbois, where he spent his time in the bosom of his family, removed, apparently, from the cares of state and the intrigues of courts. It had however long been generally known that Moreau disapproved of the elevation of Bonaparte to the consular dignity, and it was soon discovered that he had held several interviews with General Pichegru, who had secretly repaired to Paris, and that even Georges was in their confidence. The official report of this conspiracy states, that he was willing to co-operate in the destruction of the consular authority, but he disapproved of the restoration of the Bourbons, and insisted on a representative government, on which, Pichegru observed, "I believe he has a mind to the government too, but he would not retain it a week." Moreau was brought, with the other conspirators, before the criminal tribunal, and defended no less by the eloquence of Bonnet, his counsel, than by public opinion; he was nevertheless condemned, on the 10th of June, 1804, to two years' imprisonment, a punishment which was immediately commuted to banishment.†

The United States of America was the country to which General Moreau determined to retire, and at the beginning of 1805 he embarked from Cadiz on his Trans-atlantic voyage. On his arrival in America, he purchased a handsome country-house at Morrisville, below the falls of the Delaware, and, surrounded by his family and friends, reposed in tranquillity under the shades of the laurels he had gained. In his exile, Moreau continued for many years, restrained by a high sense of honour from taking up arms against a cause which numbered his countrymen among its supporters. At length, however, the great crisis arrived when the kingdoms of Europe united all their forces, and all their talents, against the ambition of one man; and at the invitation of the Emperor of Russia, General Moreau consented to contribute his genius to the common stock. On his arrival in Europe, where he was received with every mark of favour by the allied sovereigns, it was determined to organize a corps d'armee, to be principally composed of French prisoners, and called *Moreau's Legion*. This body was to be decorated with the white cockade, to bear the motto *pro patria*, and to fight for the deliverance of Europe. The execution of this plan, which promised little good, and from which none was derived, was interrupted by the melancholy event which closed the career of the unfortunate

* See vol. i. book i. p. 185.

* See vol. i. book ii. p. 358.

† See vol. i. book iii. p. 487.

general. On the fatal 27th of August, Moreau received a mortal wound before Dresden, as already described, and after sustaining a journey of extreme torture with heroic fortitude, arrived at Laun, in Bohemia, on the 30th of that month. Hopes were now entertained of his recovery, and on the evening of that day he wrote with his own hand a letter to Madame Moreau, of which the following is a translation:—

"My dear Love—At the battle of Dresden, three days ago, I had both legs carried away by a cannon shot. The scoundrel, Bonaparte, is always fortunate. The amputation has been performed as well as possible. Though the army has made a retrograde movement, it is not directly backward, but sideways, and for the sake of getting nearer to General Blücher. Excuse my scrawl: I love thee, and embrace thee with my whole heart. Rapatel will finish.—V. M."

The following was added by his secretary:—

"Madame—The general permits me to write to you on the same sheet on which he has sent you a few lines. Judge of my grief and regret, by what he has told you. From the moment he was wounded, I have not left him, nor will I leave him, till he is perfectly cured: we have the greatest hopes, and I, who know him, am certain we shall save him. He supported the amputation with heroic courage, without fainting. ***

"I have stood in need of all my fortitude for the last four days, and shall still stand in need of it. Rely upon my care, my friendship, and upon all the sentiments with which both of you have inspired me. Don't alarm yourself—I need not tell you to exert your courage—I know all your heart. I will neglect no opportunity to write to you.—The surgeon has just assured me, that if he continue to go on well, he will be able, in five weeks, to go out in a carriage. Madame, and respectable friend, farewell—I am miserable. ***

"Your most devoted servant,

"Laun, August 30th, 1813. "RAPATEL."

"Sept. 1. He is going on well, and is easy."

During the night of the 30th, he was seized with a violent hiccup and other alarming symptoms, and three days afterwards he expired, at the moment when he was dictating a letter to the Emperor Alexander, expressive of the sentiments of admiration and devotedness with which his majesty had inspired him. The remains of General Moreau were embalmed, by command of the Emperor of Russia, and removed to St. Petersburg, to be interred in the Catholic church, by the side of the body of Marshal Kutusoff. The beneficent designs of the emperor were not confined to the dead, but extended also to the living, and on this melancholy occasion he wrote a consolatory letter to Madame Moreau, of which the following is a translation:—

"Madame—When the dreadful misfortune which befel General Moreau by my side, deprived

me of the luminous mind and experience of that great man, I cherished the hope that, by great care, it might be possible to preserve him to his family and to my friendship. Providence has ordained otherwise. He has died as he has lived, in the full energy of a strong and constant soul. There is only one remedy for the great evils of life—it is that of seeing them shared. In Russia, Madame, you will everywhere find these sentiments, and if it be convenient for you to settle there, I will seek out all the means to embellish the existence of a person, of whom I hold it to be my sacred duty to be the comforter and supporter. I pray you, Madame, to rely on it most confidently; never to leave me in ignorance of any circumstance in which I can be at all useful to you, and to write to me always direct. To anticipate your wishes, will be always an enjoyment to me. The friendship I had vowed to your husband, goes beyond the tomb, and I have no other means of acquitting myself well, at least in part, towards him, than in acting so as to insure, as I shall ever be disposed to do, the well-being of his family.

"Receive, Madame, in the present cruel and distressing circumstances, these testimonials, with the assurance of all my best sentiments.

(Signed)

"ALEXANDER.

"Toplitz, the 6th of September, 1813."

Sentiments such as these shed a splendour round thrones. The emperor, after conferring the rank of *Dame du Portrait* of the order of St. Catharine on Madame Moreau, and of *Demoiselle d'Honneur* to the empress on the only daughter of the deceased general, settled on the former an annuity of 40,000 roubles, and on the latter 6,000 roubles; ordering at the same time that 100,000 roubles (£2,500l. sterling) should be paid to Madame Moreau by the bank of St. Petersburg.

The presence of Moreau in the allied army had excited much enthusiasm throughout Europe; and a fate so tragical and untimely produced equal sympathy and regret. Yet the propriety of his conduct may admit of difference of opinion. Unjust expulsion from the political community may seem to destroy the ties by which an individual is united to his country, and to absolve him from the duties of allegiance. Yet the general sense of mankind has pronounced an indelible relation between men and the country which gave them birth, which no wrong can obliterate. Had the object of the allied sovereigns been to change the government—to restore either a free constitution or the ancient monarchy to France—General Moreau might have had a fair ground of justification; but they had, on the contrary, disclaimed all such intentions, and declared, that their purpose was to re-establish against France the ancient balance of power—an object highly laudable and honourable in them, but in him, as a French subject, equivocal, and at variance with the general law of nations.

CHAPTER XXIV.

CAMPAIGN IN FRANCE: Declaration of the Allied Powers previous to the Invasion of France—Meeting of the French Legislative Body—Abstract of the Report of the Committee appointed to examine the Diplomatic Correspondence—Napoleon's indignant Observations thereon—Passage of the Rhine by the Allied Armies—Proclamation of Prince Schwartzberg, the Commander-in-Chief, to the People of France—Disposition of the French Armies—Capture of Geneva by the Allies—The Invasion of France announced to his Senators by Napoleon—Congress assembled at Chatillon—Advantage of the invading Army into the interior of France—The Emperor quits Paris to place himself at the Head of his Army—Battle of Brienne—of La Rothiere—Retreat of the French, and Advance of the Allies—Prince Schwartzberg and Marshal Blucher divide their Force, and advance on Paris, the former by the Banks of the Seine, and the latter on the Course of the Marne—Vigorous and successful Exertions of Napoleon—Repulse of Marshal Blucher—of Prince Schwartzberg—their Retreat—Negotiations at Chatillon—Belgium released from French Dominion—Battles of Craone and Leon—The Allies again assume the offensive—Last Conferences at Chatillon—Rupture of the Congress.

THE vast empire which, at the close of the year 1813, extended over the rich and populous countries bounded by the Adriatic and the English channel, the Rhine and the Atlantic ocean; which reckoned, in the field and in the garrison, more than five hundred thousand warriors; which could arm, to reinforce them, at least an equal number of citizens, accustomed to camps, and in the flower of their age; whose existence was guaranteed by an age of victories, and by the fortune of a chief who had once been esteemed the arbiter of nations, and obtained the appellation of "The man of the destinies;"—that mighty empire, in a campaign of three months, was overthrown; all the princes of Europe occupied, and inundated with their troops, two-thirds of its territory; its warriors were sacrificed in useless combats; its chief survived that reputation for invincibility, the impression of which had so long contributed to uphold his power; and this man of indefatigable activity, suddenly struck with a species of stupor, crouched under the iron hand of destiny, and descended, like an actor who has finished his part, from a throne which he could no longer preserve, and in the defence of which he did not choose to die. This is one of those astonishing spectacles, which was reserved for an age fertile in revolutions, and one of those great catastrophes which form an epoch in the history of the world.

Long before Napoleon ceased to reign, he had acquired all the faults inseparable from the exercise of despotic authority. Success and adulation had relaxed his mental energies; he could not endure the slightest opposition to his will; he consulted only those who were ready to signify their approbation of his plans; and so deep-rooted was his persuasion of his own powers and resources, that the disasters of the last campaign had failed to convince him that it was in vain to contend against

congregated Europe. "Posterity," exclaimed he to his senate, "shall acknowledge, that the existing circumstances are not superior to France or to her sovereign." But the campaign that was now approaching served to dispel these delusions. It must, however, be acknowledged, that though surrounded with little more than the wreck of his former greatness, Napoleon remained undismayed, and placed his country in a formidable and imposing attitude. The frontiers, yet untouched and unbroken, and the fortresses, defended by numerous garrisons, promised to arrest, for a time, the progress of the troops who might attempt to force these barriers. It is true that the departments at the feet of the Pyrenees had been invaded, but no fatal blow was feared from that quarter; and the line of the Rhine was regarded as an impregnable defence, which would arrest the advance of the enemy. Tranquil in the midst of Paris, Napoleon, by his own authority alone, increased the indirect taxes, and received from the senate three hundred thousand conscripts. To these, were added one hundred and twenty thousand men, taken from the former classes, and in this way the losses sustained in the German campaign were in some degree retrieved.

The combined armies had now advanced to the Rhine; and on the 1st of December the allied sovereigns issued from their head-quarters the memorable exposition of their views and policy.* The allies dis-

** Declaration of the Allied Powers.*

The French government has ordered a new levy of 300,000 conscripts. The motives of the *armatus consultum* to that effect contain an appeal to the allied powers.—They therefore find themselves called upon to promulgate anew, in the face of the world, the views which guide them in the present war; the principles which form the basis of their conduct, their wishes, and their determinations.

The allied powers do not make war upon France, but against that preponderance, haughtily

claimed all desire to conquer France; they expressed, on the contrary, a readiness to confirm to the French empire an extent of territory which France under her kings never knew, and they intimated no disinclination to make peace with Bonaparte; but they at the same time declared, that they would not lay down their arms until the political state of Europe should be re-established anew—in other words, that France, by keeping within her natural limits, the Rhine, the Alps, and the Pyrenees, should preserve all the integrity of her territory; but that the principle of absolute independence, for Germany, Spain, Italy, and Holland, should be a *sine qua non*.

This declaration was considered by Napoleon as an appeal from the sovereign to the people. He felt that it separated him from the French nation, and in this emergency he called around him the legislative

announced,—against that preponderance which, to the misfortune of Europe and of France, the Emperor Napoleon has too long exercised beyond the limits of his empire.

Victory has conducted the allied armies to the banks of the Rhine. The first use which their imperial and royal majesties have made of victory, has been to offer peace to his majesty the Emperor of the French. An attitude strengthened by the accession of all the sovereigns and princes of Germany has had no influence on the conditions of that peace. These conditions are founded on the independence of the French empire, as well as on the independence of the other states of Europe. The views of the powers are just in their object, generous and liberal in their application, giving security to all, honourable to each.

The allied sovereigns desire that France may be great, powerful, and happy; because the French power, in a state of greatness and strength, is one of the foundations of the social edifice of Europe. They wish that France may be happy, that French commerce may revive, that the arts (those blessings of peace) may again flourish, because a great people can be tranquil only in proportion as they are happy. The allied powers confirm to the French empire an extent of territory which France under her kings never knew; because a valiant nation does not fall from its rank, by having in its turn experienced reverses in an obstinate and sanguinary contest, in which it has fought with its accustomed bravery.

But the allied powers also wish to be free, tranquil, and happy themselves. They desire a state of peace, which, by a wise partition of strength, by a just equilibrium, may henceforward preserve their people from the numberless calamities which have overwhelmed Europe for the last twenty years.

The allied powers will not lay down their arms until they have attained this great and beneficial result, this noble object of their efforts. They will not lay down their arms, until the political state of Europe be re-established anew,—until immovable principles have resumed their rights ever vain pretensions,—until the sanctity of treaties shall have at last secured a real peace to Europe.

Frankfort, Dec. 1, 1813.

body. On the 19th of December, the assembly was convened, and in order to shed an air of splendour over the opening of the session, the senate, the council of state, and the grand dignitaries, were summoned

"Every thing is against us," said Napoleon from his throne, "and France itself would be in danger, were it not for the energy and union of the French. I have never been seduced by prosperity—adversity will find me superior to its attacks. I have several times given peace to nations, when they had lost every thing. From a part of my conquests, I have raised thrones for kings who have forsaken me. Negotiations have been entered into with the allied powers; I have adhered to the preliminary bases which they have presented; I had then the hope, that before the opening of the session the congress of Mannheim would be assembled; but new delays, which are not to be ascribed to France, have deferred this moment, which the wishes of the world eagerly demand. I have ordered to be laid before you the original documents, which are in the *port-feuille* of my department of foreign affairs: you will make yourselves acquainted with them by means of a committee. On my side there is no obstacle to the re-establishment of peace.

An extraordinary commission of five members was immediately formed from the legislative body, by ballot, of which M. Laine was the president; and for the first time during thirteen years, the legitimate organ of the nation ventured to express doubts of the soundness of their sovereign's policy. After encountering various impediments, the committee of the legislative body made their report, and on the 28th of December this document was submitted to the assembly:—

"If," says the report, "the declaration of the foreign powers is fallacious—if their object be to enslave us—if they meditate the dismemberment of the sacred territory of France, it will be necessary to carry on a national war for the purpose of averting such calamities. But the more completely to effect this grand movement, by which an empire is to be preserved, is it not desirable to unite the nation and the monarchy by closer ties? It is necessary that silence should be imposed on the enemy as to their accusation of aggrandizement, conquest, and alarming preponderance; and since the allied powers have chosen to declare by public proclamations that such are our intentions, is it not worthy of his majesty to show the matter in a clear light, by solemnly declaring to Europe what are the designs of France and her emperor? In order that this declaration may have a salutary influence on foreign powers, and make the desired impression upon France, is it not desirable that it should announce the promise of continuing the war only for the independence of the French nation, and the integrity of its territory? If, after this, the obstinacy of the enemy should still force us to undertake a just and necessary war for national independence, France will know how to call forth in the maintenance of her rights, the energy, union, and perseverance, of which she has heretofore displayed such brilliant examples. Unanimous in the wish to obtain peace, she will be equally so in her determination to enforce it by conquest; and she will prove to the world, that a great nation can do all it wills

when its objects are only honour and its just rights. But it is not enough merely to rouse the people, and place them in a state of defence; it is for government to propose such measures, in conformity with the laws, as appear the most prompt and certain to repulse the enemy, and fix the peace on a durable basis. These measures will be efficacious, if the French are persuaded that government aspires only to the glory of peace—they will be so if the French are convinced that their blood will be shed only to defend their country and protect her laws. But the consolatory words, peace and country, will be pronounced in vain, unless the institutions are supported, which promise the benefits of both. It appears, therefore, indispensable to your committee, that when government shall propose the measures deemed most expedient for the safety of the state, his majesty shall be at the same time solicited to maintain the entire and constant execution of the laws, which guarantee to the French the rights of liberty, security, property, and the free exercise of their political privileges. This guarantee appears to your committee the most efficacious means of imparting to the French the energy necessary for their own defence."

This salutary advice was considered by Napoleon and his ministers as an attack upon the imperial authority; the publication of the report was interdicted, and on the 1st of January the representatives of the nation were reprimanded, in a speech full of asperity, reproaches, and menaces:—

"A twelfth part of the legislative body," exclaimed Napoleon, "consists of bad factious citizens; the members of the committee belong to that number; Laine is a traitor sold to England. I have suppressed the printing of the report. It is incendiary. Is it then at the moment when you ought to unite to chase the enemy from your frontiers, that you exact from me the change of the constitution? You are not the representatives of the nation, but of the departments. I was elected by four millions of Frenchmen to mount this throne. I alone am the representative of the people. Why do you wish to charge yourselves with such a burthen? The throne does not consist of wood covered with velvet. The throne is myself. If I listen to you, I shall cede more to the enemy than he demands. You shall have peace in three months, or I will perish. I go to seek the enemy, and I will overthrow him. I am at the head of this nation, because the constitution of the government pleases me. If France exacts another constitution, I shall say to her—choose another king. France needs me more than I need France."

In the midst of these intestine dissensions, the allied armies penetrated into France. At the opening of the campaign, the forces of the allies were divided into seven armies, of which four acted immediately against France, one in Holland, and two in Italy. They were thus divided:—

* This philippic is reported from memory, and rests upon the authority of some of the members of the legislative body. That it is substantially correct, is highly probable, but every thing published to the disadvantage of a sovereign after his fall, must be received with caution.

First, the grand Austro-Russian army, commanded by Prince Schwartzemberg, was composed of the Austrian divisions of Colloredo, Wimpfen, Giulay, Bianchi, Bubna, Maurice, and Louis of Lichtenstein; the Russian divisions of Barclay de Tolly and Wittgenstein; the Bavarians, in three divisions, commanded by Count Wrede; and the Wirtembergers, under the Prince-royal of Wirtemberg.

Second, the grand army of Prussia or Silesia, commanded by Marshal Blucher, was formed of the corps of D'Yorck, Kleist, and Bulow; the four Russian corps of Tscherbatoft, Langeron, Sacken, and Winzingerode; and the Saxons, under the Prince of Saxe Weimar, and Baron de Thielman.

Third, the grand Swedish army, commanded by Marshal Bernadotte, the Prince-royal of Sweden, consisting of the Swedish corps, the five Russian corps of Benningssen, Tettenborn, Doernberg, Benken-dorf, and Czernicheff—(the first of which remained before Hamburg)—a corps of Hanoverians, the Hanseatic troops, and the contingents of the smaller states of the confederation.

Fourth, the Anglo-Spanish and Portuguese army of the Pyrenees, under the command of Lord Wellington, in the south of France.

Fifth, the Anglo-Batavian army, commanded by Sir Thomas Graham, in Holland.

Sixth, the Austrian army in Italy, commanded by Count Bellegarde.

And seventh, the army of Naples, under the orders of King Joachim, who joined the confederation by a treaty, dated January 11th, 1814.

The strength of the armies operating upon the Rhine, was variously estimated, but they probably exceeded half a million of men. Prussia and Austria had between them an effective force of two hundred and fifty thousand men; Russia alone had nearly two hundred thousand; and to these may be added thirty thousand Swedes, ten thousand Danes, and a large number of troops contributed by the princes of the confederation of the Rhine. This immense body did not, however, take the field at the same moment. The first armies, which passed the Rhine at the end of December, consisted of about three hundred and fifty thousand men, to which an augmentation of about one-third was made by reinforcements, which arrived about the middle of February.

The first operations of importance were made on the side of Switzerland; and on the 21st of December, 1813, Prince Schwartzemberg, in contravention of the

remonstrances of the government of Zurich, advanced by Basle, through Belfort, towards Langres and Chaumont. On the 1st of January, the grand Prussian army, under Marshal Blücher, passed the Rhine in three divisions, at Mannheim, Kaub, and Coblenz, and while the corps of Sacken, D'Yorck, and Kleist, advanced on Mentz and Thionville, the division of Langeron was left to blockade the fortresses in the rear. The first care of the allies was to conciliate the people of France, and one of the first acts of Prince Schwartzberg on crossing the Rhine was to address the inhabitants in a proclamation founded on the declaration of the allied sovereigns:—

"Frenchmen," said the commander-in-chief, "victory has led the allied armies to your frontiers, which they are about to pass. We do not wage war against France; but we repel far from us the yoke which your government would impose upon our respective countries. They have the same right to independence and happiness as France. Magistrates, owners of property, farmers, remain at your stations. The maintenance of public order, respect for private property, and discipline the most rigid, will mark the conduct of the allies, while they pass through and remain on your soil. They are actuated by no spirit of vengeance. Other principles and other views than those which conducted your armies to us, preside in the councils of the allied monarchs. Their glory will consist in having terminated the misfortunes of Europe. The only conquest which is the object of their ambition, is peace; but a peace which ensures to their countries, to France, and to Europe, real repose. We hoped to have found it before we reached the territories of France—we are come hither in search of it."

The corps of Marshal Victor and Marmont, weakened by the sickness which had desolated the army since its retreat from Leipzig, consisted only of forty-five thousand men, and was altogether unable to arrest the progress of the invaders. At the approach of the allied army, Marmont had retreated to St. Mihiel; while Victor, in consequence of the movements of the Austrians, had quitted Strasburg for Lunéville; and Marshal Ney, forced to retire from the frontier, made a retrograde movement in the direction of Nancy. Marshal Macdonald, charged with the defence of the Lower Rhine, retreated in his turn before the army of the Crown-prince of Sweden, and established his head-quarters at Namur. The French General Maison sustained for some time a gallant struggle in front of Antwerp, but was at length obliged to retreat into France, and to throw his troops into Lille and the neighbouring places. In a word, the whole of the French frontiers, from Lyons to Antwerp, forming an extent of country of five hundred miles, were invaded, by armies whose object it was to plant their standards on the heights of the capital.

These retrograde movements were announced by the French government as the result of a previously concerted plan, and the emperor wished it to be considered as an essential part of his system to permit the undisputed entry of the allies into the interior, that his triumph might be the more distinguished, and their overthrow the more certain. In pursuance of this system, Marshal Mortier retired from Langres to Chaumont; Marshal Augereau, with the reserve, marched to Lyons; and General Dessaix confined his operations to the defence of Savoy.

The capture of Geneva served as a prelude to the campaign of 1814. This ancient republic had been united to France for more than twenty years, and by its alliance had lost both its independence and its prosperity. On the 30th of December, an Austrian advanced-guard, commanded by General Count Bubna, consisting of three thousand men, advanced from Switzerland, when General Jordy, a brave veteran officer, thunderstruck at witnessing a circumstance so unforeseen, fell senseless in the midst of his staff. The officer on whom the command now devolved, partaking of the general consternation of the army, marched out of the city at the head of a garrison of twelve hundred troops, and suffered the Austrians to enter without the formality of a capitulation. The capture of Geneva, which forms one of the gates of the French empire, opened the road to Lyons, and exposed the passes from Italy to the Austrian army.

Napoleon himself now raised the curtain which had concealed from his subjects the dangers of their country:—

"You have seen," said he to his senators, "by the papers which I have ordered to be communicated to you, all that I have done for peace. The sacrifices which comprise the preliminary bases which have been proposed to me by my enemies, and which I have accepted, I will make without regret. My life has but one object—the happiness of the French people. In the mean time, Bearn, Alsace, Franche Comte, and Brabant, are invaded. The cries of this part of my family pierce my soul. Let us obtain peace by a final effort. I call on the French to succour the French. I call on the inhabitants of Paris, of Brittany, Normandy, Champagne, Burgundy, and the other departments, to assist their brethren. At the sight of a nation in arms, the enemy will fly, or sign a peace on the bases which they themselves have proposed. Peace, and the deliverance of our territory ought to be our rallying cry. Our object is now no longer to recover our conquests."

The wish thus expressed to obtain a peace by treaty or by force of arms, was accompanied by corresponding exertions. No endeavours were spared to raise the male population *en masse*; commissioners were despatched to all the military divisions of the empire to facilitate the organi-

zation of the levies; and the Duke of Vicenza, minister of the interior relations of France, was sent to the head-quarters of the allied sovereigns at Basle, to propose that a congress for the negotiation of a general peace should assemble at Châtillon-sur-Seine. These overtures were accepted by the allies without hesitation; and plenipotentiaries were appointed to the congress, which assembled at the place proposed between the 15th and the 20th of January; but the allies, secure in their own resources, peremptorily refused either to suspend or to interrupt the military movements of their armies during the progress of the negotiations.

The invading army, bearing down all opposition, still continued to advance; the defiles of the Vosges, a chain of mountains stretching from Belfort to Strasburg, were forced in every direction; Vesoul, Langres, Nancy, and Thionville had fallen; and the Cossacks had pushed their advanced corps into the neighbourhood of Verdun. In the midst of these accumulated difficulties, Napoleon remained at Paris, incessantly employed in endeavouring to recruit his army, and to replenish his exhausted finances. The formation of twelve new regiments was announced at Paris, under the designation of volunteers, consisting of mechanics, whose shops being shut, could no longer afford them employment; and considerable supplies of troops were obtained from other quarters, though by no means in sufficient numbers, or of the best description. Since the maintenance of the French armies had fallen principally upon their own country, the public finances had sunk into the most deplorable state of embarrassment; and before the end of the month of January, the national bank encountered difficulties that approached to the confines of insolvency. From the report of the directors of this establishment, it appeared, that the available funds in their hands, at the time of making that report, amounted only to 600,000*l.* sterling, and that it had become indispensably necessary to restrict their daily payments to a sum not exceeding 20,000*l.*

At length, an army was assembled before Châlons, between the Marne and the Seine, and the French emperor prepared to quit his capital, in order to place himself at the head of his troops. Two days previous to his departure, he assembled the officers of the national guard, and in a speech delivered with a degree of emotion that seemed to indicate a presage that he was taking a final farewell, committed the empress and his infant son to their protection, and to the love of his faithful city of Paris. On the 25th of January, Napo-

leon quitted the capital and repaired to Vitry, to which point the French armies, under Marshals Marmont, Macdonald, and Victor, were retreating from different quarters. The allied armies at the same time were concentrating, and pressing towards the same point—Marshal Blücher by the way of Nancy and Toul, and Prince Schwartzberg in the direction of Langres and Chaumont.

On the 24th, the allies commenced their operations in the interior by the battle of Bar, between Chaumont and Joinville. Marshal Mortier defended this position with the greatest skill and bravery, but being overpowered by superior numbers, he was eventually obliged to abandon the town, and to retire upon Troyes. Marshal Blücher, proceeding on his march to form the meditated junction with Prince Schwartzberg, took possession, on the 23d and 24th, of Ligny and St. Dizier, and thence pushed forward a corps to Brienne, to establish a communication with the Austrian division at Bar. Napoleon, fully sensible of the importance of this movement, and determined to defeat its object, made immediate preparations to attack the Prussian rear-guard, while it awaited the arrival of D'York's division from St. Dizier. This attack, in which the French were successful, took place on the 27th, and the allies were forced from their position. Marshal Blücher, by no means disconcerted by the check which he had suffered, continued his movements upon Brienne, and having rallied his forces, awaited the arrival of Napoleon at that place. On the 29th at mid-day, the French army appeared; and the battle which ensued was most sanguinary. While General Alsouffieff defended the town with vigour, an attack was made by the allies upon the left wing of the French, which was known to labour under the disadvantage of a defective supply of cavalry. For several hours, the fate of the day was uncertain. Victory, which thus hung in suspense, seemed to depend upon the occupation of the castle of Brienne; when an officer of rank, attached to the staff of Marshal Victor, availing himself of the darkness of the night, and of his perfect knowledge of the country, found his way into the castle, and put his corps in possession of this position. In the action which followed for the recovery of this post, a dreadful carnage took place, but all the efforts of the allies proved unavailing, and the French army was left in possession of the field. This success compelled the Prussian field-marshal to continue his retrograde movement upon Bar; and enabled the French co-

lums under Marshal Victor and General Grouchy, to take up fine positions at the villages of La Rothiere and Dienville, on the 30th.

After the battle of Brienne, in which a principal part of the town fell a sacrifice to the flames, Napoleon posted his army on the heights in the neighbourhood of that place, and displayed his superior force to the army of Silesia. On the 31st he again deployed in the low grounds between La Rothiere and Trannes; and thus situated, the hostile armies passed two days in sight of each other. General D'Yorck availed himself of the interval to re-capture the town of St. Dizier; while Count Wittgenstein, supported by Count Wrede, repulsed the corps of Marshal Marmont near Vassy. Advancing from the south-east, the grand allied army, under Prince Schwartzberg, approached towards the Aube, and the general commandant, Count Barclay de Tolly, united the Russian and Prussian guards, to form a reserve on the heights and in the defiles of Trannes, from which he could support any point that was menaced. These dispositions, the Prince of Schwartzberg hastened to announce to Marshal Blucher, directing him, at the same time, to attack the French with his united force, while Count Wrede made an offensive movement from Doule vane-sur-Brienne.

In this situation, Napoleon was reduced to the necessity of fighting, not merely to secure a retreat, but to save his army. The length of the enemy's line compelled him to extend his own, and his whole force was disposed in two lines of battle, ranged under a chain of hills, his right resting on Dienville and the Aube, his centre on La Rothiere, and his left on the hamlet of Gibrie. At another important position, which covered the left flank, the 6th corps was posted, under the command of Marshal Marmont; General Duhesme defended La Rothiere, and General Gerard had orders to protect both banks of the Aube, by occupying Dienville. The infantry was ranged in masses upon the banks of the villages, which were bordered on all sides with artillery.

During these offensive dispositions on the part of the French, the three columns of attack belonging to the allied army, formed under Marshal Blucher, were taking directions in the following order: General Sacken's corps descended from the heights of Trannes into the plain of Rothiere, and advanced on the centre of the French in two strong divisions, the one upon Brienne by the Dienville road, and the other direct on La Rothiere. The Austrian corps of General Count Giulay,

and the Russian corps of General Alsenff, formed General Sacken's reserve. The Prince-royal of Wirtemberg, manœuvred with the right wing from Eclance on Chaumenil and Gibrie, in order to attack the left of the enemy; opening, by this combined march, the communication with General Count Wrede, who was moving on Chaumenil by Doulevant.

At half-past twelve o'clock, on the first of February, the cavalry of the two armies, ranged in battle array between the lines, were put in motion. The general attention was soon attracted by a violent discharge of musketry and artillery on the left of the French army, which was found to proceed from the corps of the Prince-royal of Wirtemberg, who, having penetrated through the forest of Eclance, began the battle by attacking the woody heights of Gibrie, which were defended by several regiments. After encountering an obstinate resistance, he made himself master both of the heights and of the hamlet. Napoleon, fearing that he might be outflanked, ordered a corps to manœuvre on his left, and Gibrie was retaken at the point of the bayonet by the French, who displayed prodigies of valour. The prince-royal, having in his turn obtained reinforcements, once more assailed the wood and hamlet. At first, he was repulsed, but the combined movement of Count Wrede was arranged with such precision, that a junction was speedily formed between the two corps, and Gibrie and Chaumenil were retaken. Napoleon, having learned that his left position was thus assailed, lost no time in hastening thither with part of the artillery of his guard, and on his arrival at that point, orders were immediately given that Chaumenil should be again carried. Count Wrede, determined to maintain a position that had been gained by so much valour, now ordered all the Austro-Bavarian divisions to advance; the charge was irresistible; the enemy's cavalry were put to the rout, the square of infantry broken, and the artillery obliged to retreat, leaving behind them several cannon and ammunition wagons. Marshal Marmont, who had in the mean time endeavoured, by strong columns of cavalry and infantry, to establish a communication with Chaumenil by Morvilliers, was repulsed by Count Hardegg, and a division of the Schwartzberg hulans, by a fortunate charge seized a battery of six pieces of cannon, which the French were just moving to the support of the 6th corps.

Nearly three hours were employed in the manœuvres and successive attacks on this point; and Marshal Blucher, finding his right secured by the success of Count

Wrede and the prince-royal, determined to carry La Rothiere—the centre and key of the enemy's position. About three o'clock, all the allied troops deployed in the plains of La Rothiere and Brienne, and at that hour the battle became general. The ardour of the troops was excited to enthusiasm by the presence of the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia. Taking a station with Prince Schwartzberg, between Trannes and Rothiere, on the ground of action, they observed and followed the progress of the attacks, which were in some degree confused by a high wind, and a heavy fall of snow that darkened the whole atmosphere. The artillery and musketry sometimes actually ceased, from the impossibility of discerning the objects against which they were intended to be directed. Of the Russian batteries, although served with evident superiority, half the cannon were left behind, and so deep was the snow, that it was only by doubling the usual train that the other half was removed. The resistance of the French at La Rothiere and Dienville, was obstinate in the extreme. Not only was General Sacken, by whom the attack was made, resisted for several hours with success, but towards sunset, the French cavalry, becoming in their turn the assailants, penetrated towards the centre of the Russian position, and obliged the masses of infantry, of which it was composed, to give way. At this critical moment, Marshal Blucher made one of those bold movements on which the fate of battles so frequently depend: he ordered his cavalry, which had been reinforced for the purpose, to turn the left flank of the French, and by a rapid movement to attack them in the rear: at the same time, directing the infantry, under General Sacken, to fall upon the enemy's right. These manœuvres, which the darkness favoured, were executed with equal spirit and precision. The French cavalry, finding themselves unexpectedly charged in the rear, retreated to Brienne, which place the Russians entered close at their heels. The infantry forming the enemy's centre, being now uncovered, General Sacken pushed his attacks with vigour, and soon made himself master of the long-contested position of La Rothiere. The battle appeared to be now decided. Napoleon himself, for a moment, feared the entire rout of his army, an event which must inevitably have taken place, had the allies redoubled their charges on Brienne and Lesmont. The disaster at Leipzig might have been repeated, for the bridge of Lesmont, which was broken down to impede the advance of the invaders, had not been reconstructed, and only a narrow

and difficult passage presented itself for the retreat of the French army.

The first alarm was succeeded by returning confidence. Napoleon placed himself at the head of General Colbert's cavalry, and in person directed a charge, which arrested the progress of the allies. Marshal Oudinot hastily arrived from Lesmont, with two divisions of the national guard, and thus reinforced, the French army was again enabled to assume the offensive. Strong columns of infantry, and batteries of flying artillery, were directed against La Rothiere. Thrice, did Napoleon renew the attack at the head of his guards, and these efforts so far succeeded as to enable him to seize the church and several houses, while the Russian grenadiers occupied the rest of the village. Being thus at close quarters, both sides resorted to the bayonet, and the slaughter was terrible. The efforts of the Russians, in front of the line, were directed by Marshal Blucher in person. This general exposed himself to the fire of the enemy in the attack of the imperial guards on La Rothiere, and so imminent was his danger, that a Cossack, pierced by a musket-shot, fell dead at his side. The Russian reserve now advanced, by command of the Emperor Alexander; and amidst these vicissitudes the battle was prolonged till midnight. Towards ten o'clock, Marshal Berthier, when traversing the French lines to visit the posts, found the two armies so closely in contact, that he several times mistook the posts of the allies for those of the French. At length, the whole village of La Rothiere was ceded to the obstinate valour of the Russians; and General Sacken, who had three times been on the point of becoming a prisoner, made a bold charge on the right of the village, seized twenty pieces of cannon, and took from five to six hundred prisoners of the French guards. At midnight, Napoleon made his last attack on La Rothiere, which the Russians repulsed, and thus decided the victory in favour of the allies.

Under favour of the night, the French army concealed from the allies the disorder into which it had been thrown at the close of the action, and effected its retreat on Troyes and Arcis.

The courage displayed by the French troops, their heroic efforts, and the danger to which the emperor exposed himself, all tended to prove the importance which he attached to this general engagement. The allies were obliged to carry every village, height, or wood, by assault; and purchased with their blood every foot of ground which they gained. Some villages, which during the battle had taken up arms against

them, were delivered up to military execution—a proceeding justified by the laws of war, but at variance with the principles of an enlightened policy. On the part of the allies, about eighty thousand men had been engaged; and on the side of the French, a number not much inferior. The loss of the latter was estimated at from four to five thousand men killed, wounded, and prisoners, besides seventy pieces of cannon; that of the allies exceeded this number, but they had not to include in their loss either prisoners or cannon. The moral effect of this day's defeat was the desertion of nearly twenty thousand newly raised conscripts from the ranks of Napoleon; and the allied monarchs might now, without presumption, cherish the expectation, that the time was not distant when they would be able to prescribe the terms of peace in Paris to him who had so often dictated treaties in their capitals.

After the battle of La Rothiere, the greatest anxiety prevailed in Paris, where contradictory reports were in circulation, according to the feelings and interests of those by whom they were propagated; but at length the official bulletin appeared, and represented the engagement as "a rencontre of the rear-guard." "The combat," it was added, "ceased at night, after a brisk cannonade; the army continued to concentrate itself without any obstacle; and that object was completely accomplished." To this soothing report, the Parisian journals added splendid details of the large reinforcements which were daily arriving; and corps were continually passing in review at the Tuileries before Joseph Bonaparte, who had obtained the rank of lieutenant-general to his imperial brother.

The allied monarchs now decided that their armies should march to the capital in two grand corps; the one following the course of the Seine, by the road to Troyes and Sens; and the other advancing on the banks of the Marne, by Chalons, Chateau-Thierry, and Meaux. This plan of dividing the allied forces, though liable to serious objections, afforded the double advantage of securing subsistence, in a country which they conceived to be drained of provisions, and of placing the enemy between two hostile armies, one of which might hold him in check, while the other, by its sudden appearance at the gates of the metropolis, would cause every idea of defence to be abandoned, and prevent the destruction of the city. The first effect of this arrangement was to separate the army of Silesia from the grand army; and while Marshal Blucher took the direction of Ferre Champenoise towards the Marne,

the Prince of Schwartzenberg marched on Troyes, the ancient capital of Champagne.

Resolved to expel the enemy from Troyes, the allies pushed forward strong corps on the roads to Arcis, Bur-sur-Aube, and Sens, to intercept the communication of the French army with Paris. But Napoleon, braving all these demonstrations, was induced to retreat only by the intelligence that Marshal Blucher had advanced to the Marne, and was marching with a formidable army in *echelon* direct for Paris. The alarm in the capital now became extreme. Works were begun for the purpose of guarding the approaches; the barriers were palisaded to guard against a *coup de main*; and Passy, Montmartre, and the adjoining heights, were fixed upon to serve as defensive positions. Towers were at the same time made to St. Denis and Abergvilliers, and an immense fabrication of pikes was announced, for the purpose of arming the peasantry. Such was the situation of the metropolis, when Napoleon, on the 6th of February, abandoned Troyes, and retreated to Nogent, for the purpose of arresting the progress of the Silesian army.

After the capture of Troyes, a momentary indecision seemed to pervade the councils of the allied sovereigns. The Austrian monarch, in common with the confederate princes of Europe, wished for peace, but his views did not at this time extend to the overthrow of the reigning dynasty. In this policy, Russia and Great Britain expressed their acquiescence, flattering themselves that Napoleon would at length accommodate himself to his situation, and bow to the necessity of concluding a treaty of peace conformable to the general interests of Europe. The conferences at Chatillon had opened on the 4th of February, and Lord Castlereagh, the principal secretary of state for foreign affairs to his Britannic majesty, had arrived at that place to take part in the deliberations. The pacific disposition of Austria did not escape the observation of the French emperor; and, relying on this disposition, he sent instructions to his plenipotentiary at Chatillon, the object of which was to propose an armistice, founded upon the basis laid down by the allies, and offering at the same time to surrender all the fortified places in the countries proposed to be ceded by France, on condition that military operations should be entirely suspended. To this, the allies replied, that instead of an armistice, it was their wish that the preliminaries of peace should be signed without delay, with a condition that the principal places now invested by their armies, comprehending Antwerp,

Wesel, Mentz, Strasburg, and Besançon should be resigned by the Emperor of France, as pledges for the sincerity of his intentions.

At the moment when these points were under discussion, Napoleon, who was still at Nogent, received several couriers from Marshal Macdonald, informing him that a strong Russian and Prussian force was advancing, under Marshal Blücher, along the course of the Marne, and that unless an imposing force was instantly placed on this line of operations, Paris itself would be lost. On the 9th of February, several Prussian battalions entered Chateau-Thierry, and were soon succeeded by a number of Russian brigades, supported by cavalry and artillery. These troops, which formed the advanced-guard of Marshal Blücher's army, soon extended themselves to Meaux, announcing that they were on their march to Paris, which it was their intention to enter on the succeeding Sunday. On the Seine, detachments from Prince Schwartzberg's army touched upon the gates of Sens, while his light troops pushed forwards to Melun, distant only ten leagues from Paris.

Napoleon, in his position at Nogent, found himself thus doubly outflanked; but by one of those brilliant combinations which, in the days of his glory, shed lustre on his military genius, he resolved to fall, by a bold and rapid march, on the flank and rear of Marshal Blücher's army, and not merely to repulse, but to annihilate, these divisions of the invaders. On the 9th, orders were despatched to Marshal Marmont and Ney to prepare to attack the enemy. The movements of the main army, which consisted of the veteran and imperial guard, and of troops drawn from the French army on the Spanish frontier, were effected with inconceivable celerity. In their march on Montmirail, through the forest of Traconne, the artillery became engulfed in the marshy road near Villenoxe, and the general commanding the artillery announced to the emperor the impossibility of continuing the movements: "Forward," answered Napoleon, "if we leave some pieces of cannon behind us!" He was obeyed; the soldiers themselves assisted to draw out the ordnance, and even carried it in their arms; and the Mayor of Barbonne suddenly collected five hundred horses belonging to the peasantry, with which the cannon was extricated, and the train reinforced. On his advance towards the Marne, he found the corps commanded by Generals Sacken and D'York posted, the first at Montmirail, and the other at La Ferte-sous-Jouarre, both having their advanced-guard pushed

two leagues in front of the Marne near Chateau-Thierry and Meaux.

The movements of Marshal Blücher at this period are considered by military men as liable to much animadversion. He had separated himself too far from the grand army, and by extending his divisions too widely, he had prevented them from combining their operations, or mutually supporting each other. On the 10th at daybreak, Napoleon, in person, conducted his troops to the heights of St. Prix, while Marshal Marmont was ordered to pass the swampy defile of St. Gond, and to attack the village of Baye. At this point, was stationed the advanced-guard of the Russian General Alsuieff, but being unprovided with cavalry, and seeing himself attacked by five or six thousand dragoons, as well as a superior body of infantry, he concentrated all his force, amounting to four or five thousand men, at Champeaubert, intending to fight as he retreated. The cavalry of the imperial guard now deployed upon the plain, attacking and turning the Russians, in order to intercept their march on the Chalons road. In vain, did General Alsuieff form his infantry in squares: in vain, did he attempt to resist the shock of the French cavalry, and the fire of their numerous batteries; his ranks gave way in all directions; and artillery, infantry, and cavalry, fled into the woods and marshes. The general, several superior officers, and more than two thousand men, were made prisoners; and of twenty-four pieces of cannon, nine remained in the hands of the victors.

But Napoleon aimed at still more brilliant achievements, and hoped to defeat General Sacken's whole corps. At eight o'clock in the evening, General Nansouty marched to Montmirail with two divisions of cavalry belonging to the guard, under the orders of Generals Colbert and Lasferriere; and at five o'clock in the morning of the 11th, General Guyot's division of cavalry was advanced to the same place. General Sacken, having learned the disaster of his advanced-guard, quitted Ferte-sous-Jouarre, and marched all night on the 10th towards Montmirail, after having despatched several messengers to General D'York, who, by his advice, marched from the environs of Meaux in the same direction. From this time, every thing seemed to presage a battle, the issue of which would be of the highest importance.

In the forenoon of the 11th, General Sacken's corps, reinforced by three brigades from General D'York's division, appeared before Montmirail, where Napoleon had already arrived with the division of

Ricard and the imperial guard. The Russian army consisted of only eighteen or twenty thousand men, but being no longer able to avoid a battle, they attacked the village of Marchais, where the division of Ricard was posted, under the immediate command of Marshal Ney. This village was twice taken and retaken; and the Russians exhibited in the assault as much impetuosity as the French displayed determination and bravery in its defence. At the end of five hours, each army found itself in the same position that it had occupied at the commencement of the action. Night was now approaching, and Napoleon, having, in the progress of the battle, received a reinforcement, determined to make a final effort. The success of the day appeared to depend upon assailing the Russian centre at Epine-aux-Bois, which was the key of General Sacken's position. Forty pieces of cannon defended the approaches to this point; the hedges were lined with a triple row of riflemen; and the infantry battalions, intended for their support, were stationed in the rear. At the command of the emperor, General Friant darted towards the farm of Haute-Epine, and charged the Russians with great impetuosity. The conflict at this point became sanguinary in the extreme, and success was for some time doubtful. At length, the lancers, dragoons, and horse grenadiers of Bonaparte's guard appeared on the right of Haute-Epine, and threw themselves on the rear of the Russian cavalry, with shouts of "Long live the emperor." The French infantry, availing themselves of the advantages gained by the cavalry, precipitated themselves upon the disordered columns of the Russians, and forced them to abandon the position, artillery, and baggage. The Russians, thrown into extreme disorder at all points, retired by the road of Chateau-Thierry, after having sustained a loss of five or six thousand men, in killed, wounded, and prisoners.

On the following day, Marshal Mortier pursued the retreating army by the direct road from Montmirail to Chateau-Thierry; and Napoleon, who had fixed his headquarters at Haute-Epine, hastened to advance in the same direction. The Russians, who retired in the direction of Rheims, suffered severely in the retreat, and their loss at the village of Coquerets alone exceeded two thousand men. Victories so unexpected seemed almost to partake of the miraculous, even in the eyes of those who had achieved them. The French army, of late so much discouraged and depressed, now supported their privations and fatigues without a murmur, and testified the happiest disposition. It

was remarked, that under no circumstances of preceding wars had so many Russian prisoners been taken; and the French soldiers, who suddenly pass from despondency to confidence, began to believe that: "France—the sacred country, which the foe had violated, would be found by her invaders a land of consuming fire." These successes, however, were neither complete nor decisive. Marshal Blucher, having heard from the fugitives of the disasters of Generals Sacken and D'Yorck, collected the Prussian corps of General Kleist, and the Russian division of General Langeron, forming in all about eighteen thousand men, and on the 13th marched against Marshal Marmont's position at Etoges, on the road from Chalons to Montmirail. This movement recalled Napoleon, in great haste, from the pursuit of General Sacken, and at three o'clock in the morning of the 14th he quitted Chateau-Thierry, and made a forced march to join Marshal Marmont, with the hope of being able to annihilate the Silesian army. At eight o'clock, the cavalry of his advanced-guard appeared upon the heights of Vauchamp, where they seized six pieces of cannon, planted on that station by the Prussians.

The French cavalry, which continually increased in number, suddenly appeared in great force, under the command of General Grouchy. The Prussians immediately formed themselves in squares, and for some time firmly maintained their ground; but being at length overpowered by numbers, two of the Prussian battalions were taken, and three others either sabred or driven into the woods. Marshal Blucher, being thus assailed by a superior force, and having only three regiments of cavalry, resolved to withdraw from a position which he conceived to be no longer tenable. In conducting the retreat, the infantry received orders to march in columns and squares towards Chalons, with artillery placed in the intervals to repel the advancing enemy, having the flanks and rear covered by the rifle corps. In the progress of this retreat not a single column or square of infantry was charged by the French or exposed to their fire. Napoleon played for a deeper stake: his object was to surround, and to capture or destroy, the whole of Blucher's force; and at sunset the Prussian commander perceived the main body of the French cavalry had turned his flank, and thrown themselves on the line of his retreat. Only one way of escape remained, and that, with the usual decision and promptitude of the veteran general, was instantly adopted—he ordered his troops to continue their march, and to cut their way through every obstacle. This

heroic expedient succeeded, but the loss sustained by the Prussians on this day amounted to at least four thousand men, together with nine pieces of cannon. Napoleon, being now called to the banks of the Seine, where other enemies had appeared in force still threatening the metropolis, left Marshal Blücher to accomplish this admirable retreat upon Châlons, and to rally and reunite the scattered corps of his army.

Prince Schwartzberg, desirous of effecting a diversion in favour of Marshal Blücher, developed an immense force upon the banks of the Seine, near Nogent, while Count Wrede and General Wittgenstein marched upon Melun, pushing forward the Cossack force, under Platoff, to Fontainebleau, which city he entered on the 17th. On the same day, Napoleon arrived by forced marches at Nangis, in the vicinity of Melun, and about four leagues to the east of that place. Here, three divisions of Count Wittgenstein's corps were posted. Good roads, and extensive plains, now allowed the cavalry to manœuvre; and the general of division, Gerard, opened an attack on the village of Marmont, while the cavalry of Generals Milhaud and Kellerman assailed the Russians on the left, and several batteries advanced to bombard the village. This position was only feebly disputed; the squares into which the Russians had formed themselves, gave way before the artillery, and fled in the direction of Montereau, leaving fourteen pieces of cannon, and four thousand prisoners, to attest the triumph of their enemies.

At three o'clock in the afternoon of the 18th, Napoleon arrived with his staff from Nangis in front of Montereau, and gave order for a vigorous attack upon the plain. The French army, amounting to twenty-eight thousand men, and sixty pieces of cannon, now moved from all parts of the line, while, at the same time, General Pagol, who arrived with a reinforcement of fresh troops on the Melun road, made a charge of cavalry, and turned the flanks of the Prince-royal of Wirtemberg, who commanded on this occasion. The onset was irresistible; and the allies, seeing the greater part of their artillery dismounted, fled precipitately into Montereau, vigorously pursued by the French dragoons, while the inhabitants of the place augmented the danger of their retreat, by firing upon them from the windows. The loss on the part of the vanquished army, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, amounted to about eighteen hundred men; besides which a considerable quantity of arms, and several pieces of cannon, fell into the hands of the French. The Emperor of Russia and

the King of Prussia, on hearing of the discomfiture of their troops at Montereau, hastily quitted Bray, where their headquarters had been established; and Napoleon exultingly exclaimed,—“My heart is relieved; I have saved the capital of my empire!”

Never was there a change of scene more rapid or complete. Couriers followed each other in succession from the army to Paris; the populace accompanied them to the Tuileries with shouts of victory; and public opinion, which is almost always guided by the fortune of arms, was expressed loudly in favour of the emperor.

The allies had now lost nearly all the ground which they had gained by the battle of Rothière, and they, in their turn, relied upon pacific negotiations. The Austrian general, Count de Paar, accordingly presented himself at the advanced posts of the French, on the day after the battle of Montereau, and demanded a suspension of arms, which the allied sovereigns were now of opinion would facilitate the issue of the conferences. That no time might be lost, M. de Rumigny, secretary to the cabinet, arrived on the same evening at the headquarters of the French army, from the congress at Chatillon, with a draft of the conditions of the preliminary treaty. The proposition transmitted to Napoleon by Marshal Caulaincourt, his plenipotentiary at the conference, comprehended all the bases deemed necessary for the re-establishment of a political equilibrium. The treaty, which, in its leading characteristic, proceeded upon the ground of placing France in the same territorial situation as she stood under her kings, with some small addition to her ancient limits, contained a proposition, that the capital of France should be occupied by the armies of the allied sovereigns till a definitive treaty of peace could be arranged and executed. Napoleon, elevated by his late successes, and apprehensive that some snare lurked under a proposal so humiliating, seized, with a mien of fury, the paper which contained the proposition of peace, exclaiming while he tore it, “Occupy the French capital! I am at this moment nearer to Vienna than they are to Paris!” Before he would consent to a degrading peace, he resolved to try again the fate of arms, on which he placed much greater reliance than upon deliberations and treaties: the tide of fortune had recently turned in his favour, and thus he was betrayed by her caresses, to the last days of his power.

The allied sovereigns on their part considered their situation as critical: alarmed at the attitude which the peasants of the Brie

and Champagne had assumed, they began to dread a national war, and abandoned the idea of seeking a compensation for their reverses in the hazard of a general battle. With an enemy who fortified himself even in the midst of disasters, and who defied all calculation by the enterprise and rapidity of his movements, a general battle might, in one day, extinguish all the hopes which their prudence and gallantry had brought so nearly to their consummation. Their advantages, however, were immense; every fortress which fell on either side of the Rhine augmented their means of invasion; the Oder, the Elbe, and the Rhine, had become a triple line of reserves, from which they continually drew reinforcements, and by a judicious union of caution, skill, and energy, they hoped ultimately to surmount all the obstacles that had hitherto retarded their progress.

On the 20th, the French army quitted Montreau, and on the 21st passed through Nogent. At Mery, on the Seine, a small town, six leagues to the north-west of Troyes, an attempt was made by the allies to check the progress of the enemy, but after an obstinate engagement, in which the bridge was broken down, and the town itself nearly destroyed by fire, Marshal Blucher was obliged to retreat, and on the 24th, Napoleon entered Troyes at the head of his victorious army.

The grand Austro-Russian army, continuing its retrograde movements, evacuated the whole country between the Seine and the Yonne, and fell back upon Vandœuvre and Chaumont. But while this retreat of the generalissimo attracted the whole attention of the French army, Marshal Blucher commenced the execution of a plan, by which offensive warfare was about to be renewed on the part of the allies with renovated vigour. From the 24th to the 27th of February, Napoleon, at that time deeply occupied in the pending negotiations, remained stationary at Troyes; and Marshal Blucher, availing himself of this period of inaction, marched, with the Silesian army, in the direction of Ferre Champenoise, towards the Marne, with the intention of forming a junction with the corps of Generals Winzingerode and Bulow, who, having forced the northern frontier, and released Belgium from the dominion of France, had advanced into the vicinity of Rheims and Soissons.

Nothing could more indisputably proclaim the declining power of the French emperor, than the fact, that his Belgic frontiers, defended as they were by fortresses almost impregnable, were at once

abandoned, and thrown open to the allies, who were thence enabled to penetrate into the heart of his empire. On the advance of the Russians, the small corps of French troops under General Maison had evacuated Brussels, and on the 2d of February the Cossacks entered that city. In almost all the towns of Brabant, the Russians were received with demonstrations of joy: a deputation from Ghent presented the keys of that place to General Bulow, and the allies soon extended their legions over every part of Belgium. In French Flanders, intestine commotions prevailed, at the same time, to a most alarming extent; the country was overrun by refractory conscripts, and the communication between Dunkirk and the capital became subject to daily interruptions.

Vitry, Chalons, Epervay, and Chateau-Thierry, again fell into the possession of the Silesian army, which now occupied forty leagues of the Marne, stretching from the source of that river to Meaux, in the vicinity of Paris. Alarmed by the dangers of the capital, Napoleon quitted Troyes on the 27th, for the purpose of repeating, if possible, the manoeuvres of Champeaubert and Montmirail. The same spirit of daring, and rapidity of movement, which had distinguished the first expedition against Marshal Blucher, were employed on the present occasion; but the result was widely different, and in its consequences accelerated the fate of the French empire. On the 1st of March, Napoleon arrived on the banks of the Marne, but the Prussian field-marshal, instructed by experience, immediately fell back with the main body of his forces upon Soissons, in order to complete the junction of the Silesian army with the army of the north, under Generals Bulow and Winzingerode. The corps of Marshals Marmont and Mortier, after having followed and harassed the allied army on its march from the Marne, was pushed forward to cut off the retreat of Marshal Blucher, and to prevent the junction of the allied armies, but in both of these objects they entirely failed. On the 6th of March, Napoleon had moved on Corbenie, and at a short distance he found the Russian infantry posted in front of Craone. Every thing announced the approach of a general battle.

Marshal Blucher now conceived one of those bold plans for which the tactics of that general have been so much distinguished. Having formed his army in *echelon*, from the plain of Craone to the approaches of Laon, he formed a detachment of ten thousand horse, consisting nearly of the whole of the cavalry; the command of this force he conferred upon General Winzingerode.

gerode, ordering him to march during the night by the roads of Chevigny and Prestle, and, after throwing himself upon the French line of communication, to turn Napoleon's position at Craone. That nothing might be wanting to secure the success of this enterprise, Marshal Blucher hastened on his charger to direct the operations in person; but unforeseen difficulties, arising out of the steep declivities and other impediments with which the country abounds, impeded the progress of this nocturnal movement, and completely defeated its object.

The position taken up by the allies on the evening of the 6th, was unusually strong; the right and left, as well as the front, were protected by ravines, to which there was no approach, except by a narrow defile. But nothing could damp the ardour of Napoleon. On the 7th, at day-break, he caused this position to be reconnoitred, and at eleven o'clock in the forenoon he commenced the attack with his whole force, estimated at fifty thousand men. While Marshal Ney moved on the right to attack the position of Craone, Marshal Victor's corps, with two divisions of newly levied guards, crossed the ravine, which was guarded by fifty pieces of ordnance, and immediately formed again upon the heights. At this moment, the French marshal was struck by a ball, and a great number of his men fell by the determined fire of the Russians; but his columns were followed by numerous trains of artillery, and they succeeded finally in establishing themselves on the heights. At the commencement of the action, Count Stroganoff, the commandant, saw his son fall dead at his side; and three other Russian generals were dangerously wounded. Marshal Ney, having passed the ravine on the left, fell upon the right of the enemy's position, while Generals Grouchy and Laferriere, at the head of the cavalry, crossed the defile amidst a shower of cannon shot and musket balls. Both these generals were wounded in the attack, and obliged to quit the field, but General Nansouty, more fortunate, passed the ravine on the right of the Russians, followed by two divisions of cavalry, without sustaining any severe loss. The allies, finding themselves turned and pressed on all sides, determined upon a retreat in the direction of Laon; but their movements were conducted with such admirable coolness and regularity, that they lost neither cannon nor men by being taken prisoners, and all the efforts of the French to break their ranks by a general charge of cavalry, failed in their object. Thus, the battle of Craone, though dreadfully sanguinary from the

ravages made by the artillery, produced no decisive result; the loss on each side was pretty nearly balanced; and the possession of the field by the French was the only reward, and the only sign, of victory.

Napoleon now determined to carry the position of Laon, and on the 9th he marched with the main body of his army from Chavignon to that place. This ancient town, the capital of the department of the Aisne, covers the greatest part of an eminence, and commands a vast plain, studded with villages and small woods. At the distance of a league from the town, the plain becomes narrow, and is bordered on the south-east by a double chain of lofty eminences, intersected by a marshy dale, through which flows the little river Lette. Far from being deterred by the difficulties of the position, the French commander seemed only the more excited to make the attack. Early in the day, the enemy advanced to the attack, and under cover of a dense fog, seized the villages of Semilly and Ardon, situated under the town itself, and forming part of its suburbs. Towards eleven o'clock, the fog began to disperse, and Marshal Blucher, perceiving from the heights that the French were in force behind the villages of Ardon, Semilly, and Levilly, immediately ordered the combined cavalry of the rear-guard to advance, and turn the left flank of the French army. At the same time, General Count Woronzow marched with his infantry from the left wing, and pushed forward two battalions of chasseurs, who drove the French advanced posts out of Semilly, and held their left in check till the allied cavalry arrived. The centre and left of the French army were now seen in full retreat, but this movement was merely a feint preconceived by the emperor, for the purpose of drawing the allies into the plain, while a more serious and general attack was made upon their position. Marshal Marmont, who had just arrived from Rheims with an advanced guard of sixteen battalions of infantry, supported by cavalry and flying artillery, attacked and carried the village of Athies, which was defended by Prince William of Prussia; but scarcely had he established himself in his new position, when night began to close in upon the combatants, and a mass of the Russian cavalry put in practice against his troops the manœuvre which had failed at Craone. About seven o'clock in the evening, the Cossacks, with a general *hourra*, surprised his park of artillery, and, notwithstanding every effort was resorted to by the French general, in order to save his ordnance, so sudden and vigorous was the attack, that the Cossacks succeeded in carrying off

thirty pieces of cannon. At this period, Prince William of Prussia, in concert with Generals Horn and Ziethen, and supported by the corps of Generals D'Yorck and Kleist, resuming the offensive, fell upon the flank and rear of the French army, and carried several batteries at the point of the bayonet. The conscripts, terrified by this nocturnal surprise, fled in all directions, taking shelter in the woods; nor did they rally again in numbers for several days after the battle. Forty-six pieces of cannon, fifty wagons, and nearly two thousand prisoners, belonging to the corps of Marshal Marmont and the Duke of Padua, fell into the hands of the Prussians.

Undismayed by this terrible check, Napoleon made his dispositions for a regular and general attack on the morning of the 10th, and orders were issued from his headquarters that the position of Laon should be turned on the right and left at the time when it was attacked in front. Nothing could be more hazardous than this enterprise; but, feeling that a retreat would, in its moral effects, be equivalent to the loss of a battle, the French army was again marched under the walls of Laon. General Charpenter, with a division of national guards, seized the village of Glacy, on the left of the allied position, and a wood in its vicinity was taken and retaken several times. In the centre, and on the left, the French fought with unabating intrepidity all the day; but still no impression was made. About an hour before sunset, the village of Semilly was again attacked: here, two Prussian battalions, belonging to the corps of General Bulow, were posted, and being supported by two cross fires on each flank, the murderous discharge was found so destructive that this last effort was at length abandoned. A retreat was now ordered; and the French army, after sustaining a dreadful loss before Laon, fell back without molestation in the direction of Soissons.

In vain, did Napoleon attempt to palliate the serious check which he had experienced at Laon; in vain, did he represent Marshal Blücher as marching without a regular plan, hoping by a *hourra* of the Cossacks to spread a panic, which might pave his way to Paris. Nothing could now escape the attention of the public; the truth soon became known; and the retreat from before the capital of the department of the Aisne, destroyed the moral effect of the victories by which it was preceded.

On the side of the Seine, the grand Austro-Russian army had availed itself of the diversion made by Marshal Blücher: after inflicting a severe defeat upon the corps under Marshals Victor and Oudinot,

at Bar, Prince Schwartzemberg advanced again towards the French capital, and on the 4th of March once more established his head-quarters at Troyes.

In another quarter, the Hetman Platoff obtained possession of Arcis-sur-Aube, which was defended only by a body of infantry, and made the commandant of the garrison prisoner. The next operation of the hetman was directed against Sezanne, which in its turn shared the fate of Arcis. A detachment of five hundred of the warriors of the Don, was now despatched in the direction of Montmirail, while strong columns of light horse swept the country from the Seine to the Marne, and maintained a regular communication between the grand confederated army and the army of Silesia.

Thus, within the short period of a fortnight, were lost all the advantages so recently obtained over the invaders of France: the alarms of the existing government again revived, and their only remaining hope seemed to repose upon the successful conclusion of the pending negotiations at Chaillon.

The progress of the negotiations had been retarded or accelerated according to the nature of military events; after the successes of Napoleon on the Marne and on the Seine, his expectations of ultimate success became unduly elevated, and he seemed determined to act upon the resolution formed by the Russians in the campaign of 1812—not to make peace with his enemies, till they had withdrawn beyond the frontier. The allied sovereigns, anxious to ascertain his views and intentions, allowed his plenipotentiary at the congress to present a counter-proposition, stipulating only that it should correspond with the spirit and substance of the conditions already submitted. To afford time for the preparation of this document, some delay became necessary, and the 10th of March was fixed upon by mutual consent, as the period at which the final determination should be made.

In the mean time, the confederated sovereigns of Europe thought it necessary to draw still closer the ties by which they were united, and for this purpose they entered into a formal engagement, by which they covenanted to bring six hundred thousand men into the field. This new treaty of alliance, on the part of the Emperors of Austria and Russia, the King of Prussia, and the King of England, was signed on 1st of March, at Chaumont, to which place the sovereigns and their ministers had repaired after the retreat from Troyes. By this treaty, the high contracting powers engaged, that if the French emperor should refuse to coincide in the propositions sub-

mitted to him, they would employ all the means afforded by their respective dominions in a vigorous prosecution of the war; that they would act in perfect concert for the purpose of procuring a general peace; and that Austria, Russia, England and Prussia, should keep constantly in the field, to be actively employed against the common enemy, one hundred and fifty thousand men each; Great Britain, wishing to contribute in a manner the most prompt and decisive towards this great object, engaged to furnish a subsidy of five millions sterling, to be equally divided among the other three powers; reserving to herself, however, the right of furnishing her contingent in foreign troops, at the rate of twenty pounds sterling per annum for infantry, and thirty pounds for cavalry. The treaty finally stipulated that the league should continue for twenty years, and should extend also to such other powers as might determine to join the confederation.

It is believed that Napoleon had no knowledge of the existence of this treaty, when he despatched his *ultimatum*; and it appeared as if fortune had a pleasure in perpetuating his illusions, for at the very moment when his pretensions were about to be laid before the congress at Chatillon, she again smiled upon him at Rheims. On the 12th of March, General St. Priest had carried that city by assault, and the greater part of the garrison, as well as the artillery, and several superior officers, fell into his hands. No sooner had the emperor heard of this disaster, than he formed the resolution of marching upon Rheims; and on the following day, at six o'clock in the morning, his army was put in motion, leaving at Soissons only the force under Marshal Macdonald. On arriving in the vicinity of Rheims, the allied troops, amounting to about fifteen thousand men, were found posted on an eminence, within a quarter of a league of the city. The advanced guards of the armies immediately engaged; and for several hours the plain between the two positions was a scene of continual skirmishing and cannonade; but it was not till four o'clock in the afternoon, that Napoleon arrived with the remainder of his army, and then the attack became general. Fifty pieces of ordnance opened a tremendous cannonade; and the Russians were long exposed to a destructive fire, much superior to their own. General St. Priest sustained this unequal combat on all points with undaunted intrepidity, facing every danger, and exhibiting, amidst a shower of cannon and musket balls, a brilliant example to the chosen troops under his command. At this decisive moment, he fell from his horse, mor-

tally wounded, and was carried from the field of battle. The loss of their general threw the Russian battalions into disorder, and General Defrance, seizing the favourable moment, made an impetuous charge, which completed their rout. The victory in front of Rheims put the French emperor in possession of this important city; upwards of two thousand Russian troops were made prisoners, and a large quantity of cannon, baggage, and other trophies, fell into the hands of Napoleon—but it was the last triumph of his reign.

Soissons, Troyes, Nogent, Sens, Arcis, and Bar-sur-Aube, had all now been recovered by the French troops; but no sooner did they quit any one of these places, than it was reoccupied by a persevering enemy, whose numbers were immense. Thus the theatre of hostilities became gradually more and more contracted; if Napoleon succeeded in surmounting one difficulty, another and more dangerous one presented itself; and this exhausting war realized in some degree the hydra and its renovated heads.

From the 14th to the 16th of March, Napoleon remained at Rheims, expecting the result of the conferences at Chatillon, which had been delayed a few days longer than the time prescribed. On the 15th of March, the French plenipotentiary laid before the congress his sovereign's counter-proposition. This *ultimatum* proved that "adversity had not subdued him." He demanded that the Rhine should form the boundary of the French empire; that Antwerp, Flushing, Nimeguen, and part of Waal, should be ceded to him; and that Italy, including Venice, should form a kingdom for the viceroy, Eugene Beauharnois. In addition to these claims, he demanded indemnities for Joseph Napoleon, in lieu of the kingdom of Spain; for Jerome Napoleon, who had lost Westphalia; for Louis Napoleon, the Grand-duke of Berg; and finally, for the viceroy, as Duke of Francfort.

To these demands, the ministers of the allied powers replied, that the extent of dominion demanded by the French emperor was incompatible with a system of equilibrium, and would confer power on France out of all proportion to the other great political bodies of Europe. The present, they held, was not an ordinary war—it was not undertaken for the purpose of obtaining territorial possessions—its object was not to enforce particular rights, but to defend the cause of the world, and to restore to the nations of Europe a durable peace. It had now, they conceived, become clear, that no such peace could be made with Napoleon; and that to continue the negotiations under the present auspices

would be to renounce the objects which they had in view, and to betray the universal confidence reposed in them. These considerations prevailed. Austria herself abandoned Napoleon to his fate; and on the 18th of March the congress at Chatillon was dissolved.

At this decisive moment, the allied sovereigns renewed their solemn engagements never to lay down their arms till the great object of their alliance was attained. Up to the present time, the Emperor Napoleon was at liberty to accept the sovereignty of France, as it stood in 1792, but though engaged in a contest against the military force of combined Europe, and placed at the head of an army that did not exceed sixty thousand men, he rejected the proposed bases of peace, preferring rather to stake his empire upon another appeal to arms. The first effort of the French government, after the rupture of the congress, was to awaken the slumbering energies of the people, and to convert the contest in which they were engaged into a national war. For this purpose, orders were again issued to raise the *levy en masse*, and an imperial decree was promulgated, enjoining all mayors, public functionaries, and others, to encourage the peo-

ple to take up arms; and denouncing as traitors all those who should dissuade them from rallying round the standard of their country. About the same time, the generalissimo of the allied armies published a proclamation to the French nation, in which he declared, "that all who resisted the allied arms would expose themselves to inevitable destruction;" and Marshal Blücher, in a similar proclamation, dated on the 13th of March, at Laon, announced, "that painful as he should feel it, to confound the innocent with the guilty, he would henceforth cause every town and village to be burned, the inhabitants of which should dare to take up arms against his troops, and impede his military operations."

A war of extermination seemed thus on the eve of being proclaimed; both the belligerents had expressed their determination to resort to reprisals upon the spot; and the inhabitants of the invaded provinces were reduced to the terrible alternative, either of submitting to the denunciations of their own government for remaining in a state of inaction; or of exposing themselves and their property to destruction, from the allied troops, if they ventured to take any part in the war.

CHAPTER XXV.

CAMPAIGN IN FRANCE (continued): Liberation of Ferdinand VII.—Operations in the South of France—Battle of Orthez—Counter-revolution at Bourdeaux—Movements of the hostile Armies in the departments of the Seine and the Marne—Battle of Arcis-sur-Aube—Retreat of Napoleon—Stratagem to draw the allied Armies from Paris—The Allies resolve to advance upon the Capital—Disastrous Attempt upon Bergen-op-Zoom—Inactivity of the Prince-royal of Sweden—Operations in Italy—Junction of the armies of Prince Schwartzemberg and Marshal Blücher—Advance on Paris—Preparations made by Marshals Marmont and Mortier to defend the Capital—Battle of Paris—Armistice—Capitulation—Advance of Napoleon with a Detachment of Guards into the neighbourhood of Paris—State of Parties—Exertions of the Royalists to induce the People to demand the Restoration of the Bourbons—Triumphal Entry of the Allies into the French Capital—Proclamation of the Emperor Alexander explanatory of the Views of the Allies towards France—The Senate convoked by Prince Talleyrand—They abjure the Imperial Sway, and create a Provisional Government—The French Prisoners of War in Russia liberated without Ransom—Napoleon collects an Army at Fontainebleau—Establishment of a Regency Government at Blois under the Empress Maria Louisa—Abdication of the Emperor Napoleon—Battle of Toulouse—Cessation of Hostilities in the South of France—Entry of the Count d'Artois into Paris as Lieutenant-general of the Kingdom—Dissolution of the Imperial Government, and the Regency at Blois—Napoleon's Farewell to his Guards—His departure for the Isle of Elbe—Constitutional Charter—Entry of Louis XVIII. into Paris—Adhesion of the French Marshals—Definitive Treaty of Peace.

In the great struggle to curb the ambition, and limit the aggrandizement, of the ruler of France, no country had acted so conspicuous and persevering a part as Great Britain; for many years, indeed, her co-operation had been confined principally to her own element, and to the supply of the sinews of war; or if she did send troops to the continent, their courage was rendered unavailing by defects either in the plan or the execution of the purpose for which

they were despatched; at length, however, the war in the peninsula of Spain and Portugal commenced, and the British soldier found a theatre on which he could show how much he was capable of effecting when led on by a general worthy to command him, and taught the nations of Europe that the character of invincible was no longer due to the soldiers of France. It was not to be imagined that Lord Wellington, who had accomplished so much against

the power of Napoleon, would be inactive now, when the contest was approaching to its crisis, or that he would fail to co-operate with the allies in their endeavours to secure the independence, and restore peace to the nations of Europe.

During the whole of the month of January, and a considerable portion of the following month, the state of the weather in the vicinity of the Pyrenees prevented Lord Wellington from commencing offensive operations; and this period of inaction was employed by the French government in an endeavour to separate Spain from the cause of the allies. Towards the close of the year 1813, Napoleon, actuated by that tortuous policy which had exhibited itself in every part of his conduct towards Spain, and convinced that Ferdinand VII. who had so long been a captive in France, would subscribe to any conditions which secured to him liberty, and the complete re-establishment in his sovereignty, summoned to Paris the Duke de San Carlos, Ferdinand's ex-minister. When this nobleman arrived, he was informed that a disposition existed in the French government to restore the throne of Spain to its sovereign; and Count Laforet, the plenipotentiary of Bonaparte, was despatched along with the duke to the residence of the unfortunate Ferdinand at Valencay, for the purpose of negotiating the conditions of his restoration. Little difficulty existed in prevailing upon the Spanish monarch to afford the sanction of his name to the documents already provided; the treaty was ratified without delay, and by this instrument the captive monarch engaged to pay the deposed king, his father, a pension of four millions of rials; to liberate, without loss of time, the French prisoners of war at that time in Spain; to restore the property, revenue, dignity, employment, and pensions of every Spaniard who had declared in favour of the Napoleon dynasty in Spain; and finally, to cause the evacuation of that country by the troops of his Britannic majesty. This treaty, which was signed at Valencay, on the 11th of December, 1813, was rendered nugatory by a decree of the cortes, dated on the 1st of January, 1811, which declared null and void all the acts and conventions signed by the king during his captivity either in Spain or elsewhere. But it was supposed that royal influence would remove every difficulty, and Ferdinand, some time afterwards, entered upon his journey to his own dominions, where he was received with ecstatic demonstrations of joy.

The negotiations between the French emperor and the King of Spain, had no influence whatever upon the operations of

the English army in the south of France. No sooner had the weather become favourable for military movements, than Lord Wellington resolved to pass the Adour, and to penetrate to the Garonne; and on the 24th of February, Lieutenant-general Sir John Hope, in concert with Rear-admiral Penrose, crossed the Adour below Bayonne, and took possession of both banks of that river where it empties itself into the ocean.

At this time, Marshal Soult had concentrated his army on a strong commanding ground, of very difficult access, in front of the town of Orthes; and on the 26th, Sir Thomas Picton, who commanded the 3d division of the British army, having forded the Gave de Pau, drove in the advanced posts of the enemy, and took up a position within four miles of their main army. On the morning of the following day, the 4th, 6th, and 7th divisions, passed the river; but in consequence of the wretched state of the roads, it was nearly one o'clock before all the corps had taken up their appointed positions.

The army of Marshal Soult, which consisted of from thirty-five to forty thousand troops, was, on this occasion, collected at a point as favourable as the most skilful commander could have chosen, for the purpose of arresting the progress of an invading army. His right, commanded by General Count Reille, occupied the village of St. Bois, and the heights near Orthes; the left, commanded by General Clausel, rested on Orthes, and the adjoining heights, for the purpose of opposing the passage of the river by General Hill; from the direction of the heights on which the French army was ranged, the centre, commanded by Count d'Erlon, was thrown back, while the strength of the position afforded the flanks extraordinary advantages. Lord Wellington, being unwilling longer to delay the attack, ordered Marshal Beresford to turn the enemy's right; while the left and centre were vigorously assailed by the troops of General Picton, who occupied the road from Peyrehorade to Orthes; and at the same time General Hill was to effect a passage of the river, in order to attack the left of the enemy's position.

Marshal Beresford obtained possession of the village of St. Bois, after an obstinate resistance; but the ground in front was found to be so circumscribed, that the columns could not deploy to obtain the heights. At this point, the French troops displayed great intrepidity and *sang froid*; the action became sanguinary, and the result appeared dubious. Perceiving that it was impossible to turn the French army on the right without an undue extension

of his line, Lord Wellington, with his characteristic promptitude, instantly changed his plan, and caused the third and sixth divisions to advance with a brigade of light infantry, ordering them to make an impetuous attack on the left of the heights, where Marshal Soult's right wing was stationed. This attack, led by the 52d regiment, and supported by General Brisbane and Colonel Kean's brigade, placed the centre of the French army in a perilous situation; and so decisive was the result, that Lord Wellington, being strongly supported by simultaneous attacks, on the right by Sir Thomas Picton, and on the left by General Anson, obtained a decisive victory. Lieutenant-general Hill, having in the mean time forced the passage of the defile below Orthes, and compelled General Clausel to fall back on the heights, made a rapid movement on the high road from Orthes to St. Sever with the tenth division of infantry, and General Fane's infantry threatened to cut off the retreat of the left of the French army. Marshal Soult, finding himself thus assailed and turned in every quarter, was obliged to order a retreat. For some time, the discomfited army, being supported by solid masses of infantry in succession, and favoured by the numerous advantageous positions with which the country abounds, fell back in good order; but the repeated attacks of a numerous and determined enemy, combined with the dangers threatened by the movement of General Hill, obliged the French marshal to accelerate his march, and his retreat, towards evening, degenerated into an absolute flight. The French army, being thus driven from the high road by the columns of General Hill, and vigorously charged by Lieutenant-general Sir Stapleton Cotton and Lord Edward Somerset's brigade, retired over the heights towards St. Sever; but numbers of the conscripts threw down their arms and fled, and six pieces of cannon, with a large quantity of baggage, and a considerable number of prisoners, fell into the hands of the victors. The loss of the allies in the sanguinary battle of Orthes, amounted in killed and wounded to about two thousand. Lord Wellington, with his usual caution on this subject, professes his inability to estimate the enemy's loss, but it may, without exaggeration, be stated at ten thousand men, independent of the void caused in his ranks by the desertion of a large portion of the newly raised levies. The French marshal, in directing his retreat upon St. Sever, manifested an intention to cover Bourdeaux, but he soon afterwards fell back upon Tarbes, leaving the direct road to that city, where

a new scene was now opening, entirely exposed.

The operations of the allied armies in the south, had produced, in succession, the defeat of the French army and the capture of its magazines, the investment of Bayonne, Navarrens, and St. Jean Pied-de-Port, the passage of the Adour, and the possession of all the great communications upon that river. Though reduced by so many disasters to twenty-five thousand men, the troops of Marshal Soult seemed still to flatter themselves that they could preserve to Napoleon the southern provinces, and, at least, they were determined to dispute the possession of them with tenacity. To excite this spirit to the highest degree, and to check the disposition which had already exhibited itself among the inhabitants to favour the English army, Marshal Soult addressed a proclamation to his army on the 8th of March, in which he says:—

"Soldiers! let us devote to opprobrium and execration, every Frenchman, who shall favour, in any manner, the insidious projects of our enemies. For ourselves, our duty is clearly pointed out. Let us fight to the last for our august emperor and our dear country. Let us respect the persons and the property of our loyal countrymen; but let our hatred to traitors, who are inimical to France, be implacable. War, even to extermination, be waged against those who would attempt to divide us, in order to effect our destruction. Let us contemplate the prodigious efforts of our great emperor; let us be always worthy of him; let us be Frenchmen, and rather die, with arms in our hands, than survive our dishonour."

Thus was announced, on the part of the southern army and its leader, a devotion which appeared even to brave reverses. Nothing but still more decisive events, and the avowal of public opinion, could convince men who had been accustomed to live in camps, that the cause which they defended with so much valour, was incompatible with the interests of the country. But this lesson was now to be inculcated; and the arrival of the nephew of Louis XVIII. in the south of France, favoured a revolution which had been some time contemplated.

Lord Wellington, having made himself master of the whole extent of the French coast from Bayonne to Bourdeaux, invited his royal highness the Duke d'Angoulême to his head-quarters at St. Sever; and soon afterwards a deputation from the royalists repaired to the British camp. His lordship, however well inclined to the restoration of the Bourbons, found himself embarrassed by the negotiations at Chatillon, which at that time still existed; but at length, yielding to the solicitations of the mayor, and other inhabitants of Bourdeaux, Marshal Beresford was authorized

to move from Mont-de-Marsan upon that city, with a body of fifteen thousand men. At the report of the approach of Marshal Beresford, who was now rapidly advancing, the Senator Cornudet, the extraordinary commissary of Napoleon in this quarter, left the city, along with the civil and ecclesiastical authorities, and his example was soon afterwards followed by General Lhuillier, at the head of two thousand soldiers. The royalists, thus released from all restraint, awaited with confidence the arrival of the English army. M. Lynch, the mayor of Bourdeaux, and an ardent friend of the Bourbon family, had made every arrangement to receive the allies in a manner that should exhibit the most unequivocal proof of devotion to the exiled monarch; couriers were despatched to meet Marshal Beresford; and deputies hastened to lay at the feet of his royal highness the Duke d'Angouleme, the homage of the city.

On the arrival of Marshal Beresford at the bridge of La Maye, in the morning of the 19th of March, Colonel Vivian was despatched to the mayor, to announce that the British general hoped to enter a city favourably disposed to the cause in which he was engaged. The mayor returned the most solemn assurances of his friendship, and confirmed his declaration by repairing, at the head of a large body of municipal officers, to hail the arrival of the advancing army. The king's commissary, with a train of more than ten thousand inhabitants of every rank and description, accompanied the chief magistrate, and the rear of the procession was brought up by the Marquis de la Rochejaquelein, the brother of the unfortunate Vendean chief of that name. Advancing to the staff of the British army, the mayor addressed Marshal Beresford:—

"General," said he, "the generous nation which has given distinguished proofs of its magnanimity by succouring its oppressed allies with unshaken perseverance, presents itself this day at the gates of Bourdeaux. If you come as conquerors, you can possess yourselves of the keys without being presented with them; but if you come as the ally of our august sovereign Louis XVIII. I offer you the keys of this interesting city, where you will soon witness the proofs of affection exhibited on all sides in favour of our legitimate king. To these testimonies, will be united the sentiments of lively gratitude towards our liberators."

Marshal Beresford, in the most impressive manner, assured M. Lynch that he considered the city which he was about to enter as the city of an ally, inhabited by the subjects of Louis XVIII. Scarcely had he uttered these words, when the mayor exclaimed, "*Vive le Roi!*" The shout was instantly repeated with enthusiasm, both by the military and the inha-

bitants; while the mayor cast away his scarf, and resumed the ancient emblem of the French nation. At this moment, the white flag was displayed from the steep of St. Michael, and the white cockade was generally adopted with a spontaneous sentiment of satisfaction and joy. Shouts of "*Long live the Bourbons!*"—"Honour to the English nation!"—"Long live the mayor," succeeded each other, and resounded through every quarter of the city.

The people now became clamorous to see the illustrious descendant of Henry IV. the nephew of the king, and the husband of the daughter of Louis XVI. in the person of the Duke d'Angouleme, who was advancing from the head-quarters of Lord Wellington, accompanied by Count Etienne de Damas, the Duke de Guiche and Count d'Escars. When the duke entered the city, the cries of *Vive le Roi* were renewed, and the transport exhibited by the inhabitants became unbounded. The crowd was so immense, that two hours were scarcely sufficient to reach the cathedral, where the archbishop of Bourdeaux, at the head of his clergy, awaited the arrival of his royal highness, and on his entrance thus addressed him:—

"MONSIEUR.—Afflicted for a long time by calamities of every kind, we have, while groaning under their oppression, addressed our prayers to Heaven for deliverance, looking towards the issue with alternate hope and fear. These painful emotions are at length calmed by the arrival of your royal highness. We shall be happy. I venture, in the name of the faithful clergy connected with this diocese, to entreat that your royal highness will transmit to our august sovereign Louis XVIII. the assurances that he will not find in his dominions more faithful and devoted subjects, Long live our legitimate king."

As soon as silence could be obtained, for even the sanctuary could not restrain the acclamations of the populace, *Te deum* was chanted; and at the conclusion of the service, the duke returned to the palais royal, where he took up his residence. The presence of the nephew of Louis XVIII. served to convert into allies irritated nations, bearing the character of enemies till they reached the gates of Bourdeaux; the friendly ensigns of England, Spain, and Portugal, were now united with the *ori-flamb*—the signal for the restoration was given, and the short, but comprehensive sentences—"No more tyranny—no more war—no more conscription—no more vexatious taxes," uttered by the Duke d'Angouleme, and reiterated by the mayor of Bourdeaux,* gave a currency to the counter-revolution, which like an electric shock, instantly extended its influence

* See the proclamation of M. Lynch, mayor of Bourdeaux, dated March 12, 1814.

through the southern departments of France.

Important as were the events on the shores of the Gironde, the fate of the campaign was to be decided in the departments of the Marne and the Seine, and it was to the issue of the operations in that quarter that the attention of all Europe was at this moment directed. On the 15th of March, Napoleon reviewed his army at the gates of Rheims, and on the same evening Marshal Ney re-entered Chalons without striking a blow. The inhabitants of Chalons, misled by false accounts of important victories obtained by the French arms, spontaneously illuminated the town, and the municipal body repaired without delay to Rheims, to compliment the emperor on the deliverance he had wrought for his country!

At length, the grand Austro-Russian army, which had remained ever since the 4th of March in a state of mysterious inaction, commenced a general movement of attack upon the corps of Marshals Oudinot and Macdonald, which were posted between Melun and the Aube, to cover the capital. The Emperor of Austria re-entered Troyes about the 13th of March; and on that day the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia repaired to the headquarters of Prince Schwartzberg at Arcis, where the troops received orders to repass the Seine at Montereau, Nogent, and Pont. On the arrival of the courier who brought intelligence that the movement of the allied armies indicated an intention to make an attack on the whole of the French line, Napoleon perceived that the least success of the Russians might place him in the most critical situation. If he persisted in opposing Marshal Blucher, Paris would be left at the mercy of Prince Schwartzberg; and if he marched to the Seine, a similar danger awaited his capital from the advance of the hostile army on the Marne. Thus, with not more than from fifty to sixty thousand men, he found himself between two armies, each consisting of a hundred thousand; but his enemies were timid, and he enterprising, and a blow suggested by despair, might release him from the terrible situation into which he had been plunged by the delirium of ambition and the love of conquest.

On the 16th, he put the main body of his army in motion, and on the following day entered Epernay at the head of his imperial guard, with an army of forty thousand men. The marches and counter-marches of the emperor, aided by the dark veil cast over political and military events, so far imposed upon the inhabitants, that wherever he directed his steps, he was hailed as a conqueror, and thought to be

in pursuit of the vanquished invaders. From Epernay, the French army advanced to Fere Champenoise, where M. de Rumigny, secretary to the cabinet, arrived from Chatillon with intelligence of the dissolution of the congress. This event caused a deep sensation in the army, and many of his most enlightened generals augured the most disastrous results.

The advance of the French emperor, at the head of his army, had once more produced in the allied army on the Seine a determination to retreat to Troyes; but the Emperor Alexander, seeing no end to these marches and counter-marches, formed the determination to concentrate all the allied forces at Arcis, and there to give battle to Napoleon. On the 19th, the principal part of the allied force was concentrated in front of that place, and on the same day the French cavalry, infantry, and artillery, advanced to the Aube, and occupied both banks of that river. No sooner had the French emperor arrived on the banks of the Aube, than he received intelligence that the squadrons of the allies were wheeling into the plain between Troyes and Arcis. The cavalry, which had hitherto appeared only in small bodies, was gradually reinforced, and soon appeared in formidable masses in the plain between Troyes and Arcis, where several lines of infantry had already formed in order of battle. The two armies were now in sight of each other; and the first column of the French, on commencing the attack, found themselves opposed to a battery of sixty pieces of cannon, and one hundred squadrons of horse. Against this impregnable barrier, all their efforts were directed in vain, and the danger of a repulse became the more imminent, because the town of Arcis is so situated, as to form, in some degree, the head of a defile, half a league in length, in which several bridges afford the only means of crossing the marshes and the various arms of the Aube. The preservation of the town became, therefore, of the highest importance. After the repulse of the French guard, the retreating squadrons were pursued with extreme ardour by the cavalry of the allies, under General Count Pahlen, who, by a sudden and bold attack, captured three pieces of cannon. Every appearance induced a belief that the enemy's dragoons would enter the town at the heels of the French squadrons; when Napoleon, seeing the fugitives almost surrounded, placed himself at their head, exclaiming—"Are you not the conquerors of Champeaubert and Montmirail?" Inspired with fresh ardour by the presence of the emperor, a fresh charge was made by the French cavalry; while Napoleon

in person marched for several minutes at the head of the assailants, exposed to every danger. At this period of the engagement a blow was aimed at him by a Cossack, but colonel Girardin, his aide-de-camp, had the good fortune to parry the lance, and to avert the fate of his sovereign. A dreadful cannonade now took place on both sides. The fire of the allies caused great destruction among the French battalions, which were formed in squares, and remained immovable under the walls of Arcis, covering the town with heroic constancy and perseverance. The emperor, less cautious than usual, braved all danger; several officers of his staff were wounded round his person, and his horse was struck by a musket-ball, which rendered the animal unserviceable. Murmurs of dissatisfaction were now heard among the French troops, who seemed to reproach their general with exposing himself to unnecessary danger. "Subdue your fears," said he to those around him, "the ball which will be fatal to me is not yet cast." This sanguinary conflict terminated only with the day; both armies remained on the disputed ground; the field of battle was covered with the bodies of the slain, and the Austrian General de Hardegg was numbered among the wounded.

During the action, reinforcements arrived on both sides; and after night had concealed their operations from the enemy, the allied army concentrated themselves by a retrograde movement on the heights of Mesnil-la-Comtesse, where Prince Schwartzberg determined to await the attack of the French on the following day. At daybreak on the 21st, Napoleon proceeded to reconnoitre the position of the allies, and found to his surprise that their force had considerably increased. The difficulty of dislodging this formidable army from its present advantageous position, appeared extreme, but the danger of inaction was still more alarming. The French corps which had been left on the Marne, under the command of Marshal Mortier, was too weak to maintain its position, and it was evident that Marshal Blücher with all his strength would soon manoeuvre on the flank and rear of the main army. Napoleon, aware of the necessity of striking a prompt and decisive blow, had reunited with his troops the corps under marshals Oudinot and Macdonald, and a large reinforcement of cavalry drawn from the army of Spain. These reinforcements were posted on the right bank of the Aube, and on the heights of Arcis. The two armies remained in the presence of each other, ready for battle, till half-past one o'clock; and in the interval, Napoleon,

apparently undecided as to his measures, changed his plan several times, sent orders, and counter-orders but appeared nevertheless, determined on a general battle. About two hours after mid-day, all the troops were ordered to advance through the town of Arcis, and to deploy before the allied army; but scarcely were they in line, when Napoleon suddenly resolved to retreat on Vitry and St. Dizier, in hopes of drawing the enemy to a distance from his capital. This determination was no sooner formed, than orders were issued to the troops to retreat immediately along the defile in the rear, while directions were given to General Sebastiani and Marshal Oudinot to defend the bridges of Arcis, and to form a rear guard for the protection of the retreating army. This duty, so important to the safety of the army, was performed with distinguished bravery and success, and, though exposed to the combined attacks of three different corps of the allied army, they maintained their position till one o'clock in the morning, at which hour the bridges were destroyed. During the retreat, the light troops of the allies hovered on the flanks of the enemy, and General Count Angerouski, with a body of Russian cavalry, seized twenty-two pieces of cannon, several ammunition carriages, and sixty baggage-wagons, together with five hundred men, belonging to Marshal Macdonald's corps, who formed the escort.

On the 22d, the whole of the grand allied army advanced towards the Marne, for the double purpose of interposing between the French army and the capital, and uniting with the force under Marshal Blücher. After the battle of Rheims, that vigorous and enterprising general had been by no means inactive; Rheims had in the interval been entered for the third time; and by advancing on Chalons, he was soon enabled to join in the bold operations which were to decide the fate of the campaign, and to fix the destinies of Europe.

Without interrupting his march to carry the town of Vitry, which was at this time garrisoned by a corps of Prussians, Napoleon pushed on to St. Dizier, whence he despatched a corps of cavalry, under General Piré, in the direction of Chaumont, with orders to seize on the road every courier, *estafette*, and carriage, which departed from Vessoul. By a rapid march, the general arrived near Chaumont on the 25th of March, and penetrated into that place. Having thus cut off the line of communication of the allies, General Piré was enabled to intercept several ministers of state, and other persons of distinction, who were proceeding on missions to the headquarters of the allied army. The seizure of

These persons and their papers, tended to develop the plans and objects of the allies to the enemy, but in his grand object, which was to capture Monsieur Count d'Artois, who had recently arrived from England, and was known to be in the eastern provinces of France, he was happily disappointed.

The Cossacks, always on the alert, intercepted a courier who had been sent to Paris with a letter from Napoleon to the Empress-regent Maria Louisa, disclosing the object of his movement on St. Dizier, and holding out flattering expectations regarding the final issue of the campaign. On the same day, another courier was intercepted on his way from Paris to the emperor, with despatches from the minister of war, containing official intelligence of a descent made by ten thousand British troops on Leghorn, adding, that Lyons had been entered by the Austrian General Count Bubna, in defiance of the French reserve under Marshal Augereau; that Bourdeaux was occupied by the English; and that it was conjectured that Lord Wellington would advance along the Garonne, in order to combine his operations with those of General Bianchi. To these disastrous despatches, was joined a report from the minister of police, regarding the state of the public mind in Paris, and expressive of a strong apprehension of serious disturbances on the slightest appearance of the allies.

It resulted from the information which had thus fallen into the hands of the allied commanders, that Napoleon was about to place himself on the line of their communications, and that by this movement he might have three objects in view: first, to compel the allied armies to retrograde towards the Rhine; secondly, if he did not succeed in this, to manœuvre on their rear, and to form a junction with Marshal Augereau; or, thirdly, to take the direction of Metz, Thionville, and Longwy; there to prolong hostilities by defending a new line, and drawing the allies to the centre of France, after having taken all possible means to ensure the defence of his capital, and to raise the mass of the population in their rear.

The only way in which these consequences could be averted, and the great crisis accelerated, was to advance at once to Paris with a formidable force. The repeated declarations made by the allied sovereigns, that they had no desire to interfere in the measures which the French nation might pursue relative to the choice of a government, was considered as a sacred guarantee for the freedom of decision, and gave an impulse to the general spirit in

their favour, which no other circumstance could have produced. Being certain that Paris, and even the government itself, contained many persons who were discontented, and that the population of that capital were far from being disposed to take up arms and sacrifice every thing for a man who had imposed upon his country a military despotism, the confederated monarchs determined to effect a junction of the allied armies, to place themselves between the French army and Paris, and to march at the head of two hundred thousand men direct to the capital.

On the side of Holland, the operations of the British army, under Sir Thomas Graham, were by no means of that magnitude and importance to the cause of the allies that was expected from them. The Dutch people, after the first impulse of their detestation of the French yoke, and their anxiety for the restoration of the house of Orange had subsided, seemed disinclined to exert themselves either to co-operate in the invasion of France, or even to lend any cordial assistance in the expulsion of the enemy from the fortresses in their own dominions. At Bergen-op-Zoom, where Sir Thomas Graham had collected four thousand British troops, with a determination to carry the place by storm, it does not appear that any efficient assistance was afforded by the Dutch soldiery. The assault was made on the night of the 8th of March, when this small British army was formed into four columns, two of which were destined to attack at different points of the fortifications, a third to make a false attack, and the fourth to penetrate into the fortress by the entrance of the harbour, which is fordable at low water. The first column, on the left, led on by Major-general Cooke, incurred some delay on account of the difficulty in passing the ditch on the ice, but at length established itself on the rampart. The right column, under Major-general Skerrett, and Brigadier general Gore, had forced their way into the body of that place, but the fall of the latter officer, and the dangerous wounds of the former, caused the column to fall into disorder, and to suffer a severe loss. The centre column, being driven back by the heavy fire from the enemy's batteries, was re-formed, and marched round to join General Cooke. At break of day, the enemy turned their guns upon the troops on the unprotected rampart, and much loss and confusion ensued. General Cooke, now despairing of success, directed the retreat of the guards, but finding it impossible to withdraw his weakened battalions, he saved the lives of the remainder of his men by a surrender. The

governor of the place, General Bizanet, who is represented as a brave and humane man, agreed to a suspension of hostilities for an exchange of prisoners, and to liberal stipulations for the treatment of the wounded left in his hands. The British army, which displayed the most heroic valour on this disastrous occasion, sustained a loss exceeding one-half its whole amount, the number of slain being computed at three hundred, and the prisoners at eighteen hundred men.

The Crown-prince of Sweden, freed from the war with Denmark, was expected to put forth a vigorous and effectual co-operation in the invasion of France; but, either from the peculiarity of his situation as a French subject, or from some other cause, his movements became extremely slow; nor did he arrive near the scene of action, till his services were no longer wanted.

In Italy, the contest between the Austrians and the French was maintained with considerable vigour. The treaty concluded between the Emperor of Austria and the King of Naples had provided that the emperor should keep fifty thousand men in Italy, and the king twenty thousand, till the end of the war, to act in concert, and to be augmented in case of necessity: it was also stipulated that the emperor should guarantee to the king and his heirs the possession of the dominions actually held by him in Italy; and that his mediation should be exerted to induce the allies to accede to this guarantee. Joachim, in consequence of these arrangements, united his force with the Austrian army; and thus reinforced, Count Bellegarde succeeded, in spite of the vigorous resistance opposed to him by Eugene Beauharnois, in establishing himself on both banks of the Mincio.

But the operations in Holland and Italy were altogether subordinate to the great events which were preparing in the neighbourhood of Paris. On the 24th of March, Prince Schwartzenberg established his head-quarters at Vitry, and on the same day, Field-marshal Blucher arrived with a large proportion of his army at Chalons. Generals Winzingerode and Czernicheff were now despatched, with ten thousand horse, and fifty pieces of cannon, to observe the march of Napoleon on St. Dizier, and to menace his rear. The arrangements being complete, the King of Prussia issued orders to Marshal Blucher, to direct his army on Paris, and on the 25th the Austro-Russian army faced about from Vitry, and took the same direction, by the route of Fere Champenoise, where a junction between the two armies was formed. A splendid and unforeseen advantage was

about to mark this re-union. A column of five thousand men had been despatched from Paris, under the command of Generals Amey and Pactod, as an escort to an immense convoy of ammunition, and one hundred thousand rations of bread, intended for Napoleon's army. Protected by Marshal Marmont's corps, this convoy had approached to Montmirail, and found, when it was too late, that it was impossible to escape the two grand armies of the allies. Captain Harris, the aide-de-camp of Lieutenant-general Stewart, who had been despatched on a reconnoitring expedition, with a body of Cossacks, was the first to perceive the convoy, and hastened to apprise Marshal Blucher of its advance. The whole column was soon surrounded; but in spite of the most vigorous attacks, they formed themselves into squares, and refused to lay down their arms. Colonel Rapatel, the French officer who attended General Moreau in his dying moments, advanced to aid this unavailing struggle by a friendly remonstrance with his countrymen; but scarcely had he presented himself, when he was struck by two musket-balls, and fell dead in the front of the ranks. The artillery was now called in to subdue these self-devoted victims, who were at length forced to surrender, with the whole of their cannon, ammunition, and stores.

During the night of the 26th, General Woronzow surprised a French corps at *bivouac* near Montmirail, and took about two thousand prisoners, while the corps of Marshals Marmont and Mortier fell back continually before the advancing army, with a prodigious loss of both men and artillery. The grand army, continuing its march, established its head-quarters at Coulommiers on the 27th, having marched twenty-seven leagues in three days, and being now no more than thirteen leagues from Paris. The plan of the allied sovereigns was to concentrate the whole of their force on the right banks of the Marne and Seine, and to attack Paris on the north, by taking a position on the heights of Montmartre. On the 28th, they continued their progress, to Meaux, by the two roads of Fere Gaucher and Montmirail, and in the evening of that day the allied sovereigns arrived in the neighbourhood of the French metropolis, without having encountered any formidable obstacle in their line of march.

At the moment when the allies commenced their rapid movement, Napoleon displayed to his army the most invincible confidence in the final result of the campaign, considering the armies to which he was opposed, as cut off in their retreat,

and enclosed in the heart of France. But roused at length from this delusion, by intelligence received on the 27th, that the allied armies were marching directly on the capital, he advanced at the head of his army, by the route of Vitry, to the Aube. On the 29th, at daybreak, the advanced guard was preparing to pass that river at the bridge of Doulan-court, when a courier arrived from Paris with despatches for the emperor. The report of his arrival spread instantly through the army, and excited the highest degree of curiosity. More than ten days had elapsed since Napoleon and his marshals had received official intelligence from the capital. On the appearance of the courier, Bonaparte alighted from his horse, in a small meadow on the borders of the Aube, where he hastily broke the seals of the packet, and put questions to the courier. The result of his answers and information proved, that on the preceding day, the 28th, the allied armies were at Claye, five leagues from Paris, and that Marshals Marmont and Mortier, after having fallen back before the enemy, were making dispositions to defend the capital. All the hopes and favourable pressages of Napoleon were at once dissipated; the bandage which had covered his eyes was torn away. He was well aware of the insufficiency of the means that existed for the defence of the capital, and foresaw the catastrophe which was about to destroy the great edifice of his power. He appeared to be subdued by his reverses. In this state, he passed several hours at the bridge of Doulan-court, surrounded by his aide-de-camps and generals, and deliberating upon the course that was to be pursued. Listening to the sentiments of apprehension and compassion expressed by the officers around him, respecting the fate of Paris, he despatched General Dejean in great haste, with a formal order, to his lieutenant-general, not to sacrifice the capital by an obstinate defence. During this short interval of resignation, he determined to apply to the Emperor of Austria, and for that purpose, he summoned into his presence Baron de Wissenberg, the Austrian minister, recently seized and made a prisoner near Chaumont. In the conference that ensued, he conjured the baron to repair, without loss of time, to his imperial father, for the purpose of interceding in favour of Maria Louisa, and recommending his son, the King of Rome, to the tenderness and political influence of his august grandfather. Baron de Wissenberg, yielding to the entreaties of Napoleon, repaired immediately to Dijon, to which city the emperor, his master, had retired.—The emperor was too much de-

voted to the cause of confederated Europe, and to the interests of his own monarchy, to sacrifice either to personal considerations; and the mission of Baron de Wissenberg, though seconded by a similar application through the medium of M. de Galbois, failed of success. The time for saving the Napoleon dynasty had passed, and the seat of his empire was no longer sacred.

The tempest hovered about the heads of the Parisians, and they expected soon to be crushed by the explosion. On Sunday the 27th of March, six thousand regular troops, and twenty thousand national guards, were ranged in battle array, and passed in review before the Tuileries. The tremendous spectacle of the artillery, the gloomy silence of the soldiery, and the intense anxiety of the populace, formed the distinguishing traits of this military procession; every one laboured under a weight of oppression, and the most intrepid could not divest their minds of an involuntary fear. The eyes of all were turned to the affecting scenes which the Boulevards principally exhibited in the morning of the 28th; the peaceful promenades, generally embellished by brilliant equipages, with all the accompaniments of pleasure and luxury, were suddenly filled with wounded soldiers, and peasants who had abandoned their farms, carrying with them the remnant of their rustic fortunes.

In the morning of the 29th, the allies removed their advanced posts towards Pantin, Vilette, and the forest of Vincennes, harassing the French corps which were rallying under the walls of Paris. Every thing now indicated an approaching attack, but neither the government nor the people of Paris were fully aware of the extent of the dangers by which they were menaced. During the whole day, immense masses of infantry advanced by different roads, a large body of cavalry covered the plains, and six hundred pieces of artillery approached, to thunder from the heights, and to announce the arrival of an army of two hundred thousand men. For nearly two centuries, war had never approached the walls of Paris, and of all the spectacles, the most novel and terrible to its inhabitants was a general battle. All business in the city was suspended; the shops in principal streets were closed; and the countenances of the numerous groups assembled on the quays and in the squares exhibited mingled feelings of consternation and alarm. It was clearly perceived that the late colossal power of the French empire was falling into dissolution. The treasure and equipage of the agents of

government, were at this time seen filing off on the roads of Loire; the council sat in close deliberation, and the empress and her son, accompanied by several of the principal officers of state, suddenly abandoned Paris.

The troops left to defend the capital, consisted of the remains of the corps which had fallen back before the allied armies, five or six thousand regulars in garrison, commanded by Generals Compans and Ornans, and thirty thousand national guards, of whom only eight or ten thousand at the most were fit for active service. This small army was under the immediate command of Joseph Bonaparte, assisted by Marshals Mortier and Marmont, and the Governor-general Hulin. Joseph, who had thrice fled from Madrid on the approach of the enemy, appeared determined to hold this last bulwark of his family's power: and with this view, a concentrated position was taken by his troops; the right being stationed on the heights of Belleville, Mesnil-Montant, and Saint-Chaumont, resting on Vincennes; the centre towards the canal of Ourcq, protected on the rear by Montmartre; and the left extending itself from Mousseaux to Neuilly. To add to the strength of this defensive position, one hundred and fifty pieces of cannon, advantageously disposed, were placed along the whole line, while several redoubts covered the centre, and increased the difficulty of approach.

In the night between the 29th and 30th, a council of war was assembled in the camp of the allied sovereigns, when the final arrangements for the attack on the French capital were made, and at which it was determined that the Prince-royal of Wirtemberg, whose corps formed the left of their position, should march on Vincennes; General Rayefski, on Pantin and Belleville; and the Russian and Prussian guards on the high road which leads from Bondy to Paris, along the Ourcq canal. On the right, the army of Silesia was to take a direction by the Soissons road towards St. Denis, and on the village of Vilette, and to attack the heights of Montmartre; while the grand army was to make its offensive efforts on the heights of Belleville and Romainville. The third corps, and part of the cavalry, were posted in reserve.

On the 30th of March, at two o'clock in the morning, Joseph Bonaparte gave a formal order for the defence of Paris, and the march of the national guards. Two hours afterwards the Parisians were roused from their beds by the beat of the drums, and the soldiers and citizens, in spite of their diversity of opinion, seemed penetrated by a feeling sacred to every nation—

the duty of defending their capital. At the dawn of day, two officers from the allied army presented themselves at the advanced posts of Marshals Marmont and Mortier, bearing a proclamation from the commander-in-chief to the inhabitants of Paris, in which, they were told—"that there existed in the nature of the government which oppressed them, an insurmountable obstacle to that peace which the allies had made so many attempts to obtain; that Europe in arms, now before their walls, sought only for a salutary authority in France, which might cement the union of all governments with her; that the inhabitants had only to declare themselves, and from that moment the allied armies would become the supporters of their decisions." The bearers of this proclamation were refused admittance; and every thing was prepared for a determined resistance on the heights of Paris.

The fire of artillery commenced between five and six o'clock in the morning, and the engagements on the hills of Belleville and Saint Chaumont, where the principal part of the French force was stationed, under Marshal Mortier soon became very animated. At this moment, a number of the inhabitants, consisting principally of mechanics and artizans, formed themselves into bodies, and repaired to the parades to demand arms. After waiting for several hours, they were told that no arms were to be had, but that they might be supplied with pikes. These they indignantly rejected, and a cry of "treason!" rang through the city. At eight o'clock in the morning, the Russian corps of General Rayefski had advanced from Bondy in three columns, supported by the guards, as well as the reserve, and quitting the high road from Meaux, attacked the heights of Belleville and Romainville, which, like those of Montmartre, command Paris, and are covered with villages and chateaux. The division under Prince Eugene of Wirtemberg, after having commenced the fire, endeavoured to turn the right flank of the position at Belleville, but his infantry was repulsed by the batteries, and Marshal Marmont instantly assumed the offensive. The nature of the ground not permitting the allied cavalry to make any decisive charge, the fire of the Parisian artillery mowed down the ranks of their enemies, and obliged them to give way. The combat was soon renewed with great obstinacy, and such was the determination on both sides, that the riflemen were more than once renewed. The villages of Pantin and Romainville were several times taken and retaken, but the allied troops were at length obliged to withdraw from these

points, and to leave them in possession of the enemy.

Marshal Blücher had not yet arrived on the field, and the gallant resistance of the French began to render the issue of the contest doubtful. Had Napoleon suddenly appeared at this moment, in the midst of his military and political resources, the course of affairs might have been changed, and the beams of his imperial power might once more have shone forth. Penetrated with the full urgency of the danger, and the necessity of an extraordinary effort, General Barclay de Tolly, the commander-in-chief of the Russian armies, judged it indispensable to bring the choicest of his troops at once into action, and thus, if possible, to decide the fortune of the day. Without a moment's delay, he ordered the grenadiers of the reserve, as well as the Prussian and Baden guards, to advance, and to co-operate in General Rayefski's attack. The village of Pantin was soon retaken at the point of the bayonet, and Prince Eugene of Wirtemberg seized the village of Pris St. Jervais. The French troops, also reinforced, returned to the charge, and attempted several times to resume the offensive. Being at length checked by the Russian grenadiers near the woods of Romainville, they were driven back into the villages of Belleville and Mesnil-Montant; no advantage, however, was obtained, but at the price of great sacrifices, and after the most vigorous resistance. A continual fire of musketry and cannon prevailed on the whole line. Persons unhabituated to the occupation of war, joined in the combat, and the Parisian artillery was served by the pupils of the Polytechnic school, boys principally from twelve to fifteen years of age, with a devotion and enthusiasm which in some degree compensated for their inexperience. The soldiers of the line, still animated by the hope of saving the capital, ceased not to renew their attacks upon the advancing columns, and frequently descended from the heights to attack the allies with the bayonet. The field of battle thus became covered with the dead, and the carnage presented on all sides a hideous spectacle. The hills between Romainville and Plantin being now occupied by the columns of the grand allied army, General Barclay de Tolly ordered the regiments, many of which were reduced almost to the rifle corps, to collect their forces, and to cease to act on the offensive; being convinced, that when the army of Silesia, and the advanced-guard, under the Prince-royal of Wirtemberg, came on the ground, the army would be enabled to seize on Belleville and Saint-Chaumont with less sacrifice.

The French troops, though aware of the superior numbers of their enemy, were induced by a sentiment of national honour to redouble their gallant efforts. Joseph Bonaparte himself manifested a degree of emulation, and flattered himself that the seat of his brother's government would yet remain unconquered. But no sooner was the lieutenant-general informed that the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia were at Bondy, and that their whole force was congregated in the vicinity of Paris, than he exclaimed,—"In that case, there is no alternative but to capitulate." Soon after the arrival of the intelligence which apprized the French commanders of the magnitude of the force by which the capital was assailed, the confederated armies were perceived spreading over the plain of St. Denis, and displaying a front of more than two leagues. At noon, the national guards departed from the barriers to support the line, and it was then clearly perceived that the allies were making dispositions for a general attack. The first column of the Silesian army had reached the ground, and St. Denis was blockaded. The corps of General Langeron, after having dislodged the troops which occupied Aubervilliers, instantly advanced by Clichy on Montmartre, while the Prussian corps, under Generals D'Yorck and Kleist, marched on Vilette, and carried that village.

During these combats, the rifle corps belonging to the Prince-royal of Wirtemberg's advanced-guard, had approached from Vincennes; and General Barclay de Tolly now ordered a general attack. The division commanded by Prince Eugene of Wirtemberg moved on Belleville, and that under Prince Gotschakoff on the village of Charonne; while the corps of Russian grenadiers, led by Lieutenant-general Lambert, marched also to attack the villages of Belleville and Mesnil-Montant. On the side of Montmartre, the batteries of the allies were advanced to the foot of the hill, and opened a fire which reached the lieutenant-general and his staff. Marshal Marmont now announced to the commander-in-chief that the French troops were about to be overpowered, and could not sustain the battle more than an hour and a half. It was also perceived that the capture of Belleville, Saint-Chaumont, and Montmartre, would speedily afford the allies access to the capital, and Joseph Bonaparte once more sought his safety in flight. On his departure, he authorized Marshal Marmont to apply for a suspension of arms, to afford time for a capitulation; but these pacific dispositions could not be effected with a promptitude suffi-

cient to stop the effusion of blood; the conflict was prolonged through the whole line; and the successive arrival of reinforcements gave to the allies a decided superiority.

While the vicinity of this great metropolis had thus become the theatre of a wide-spreading carnage, the interior presented a calm and singular aspect. The populace covered the squares, streets, and interior *boulevards* of the north, though without confusion or disorder, and without any manifestation of surprise or alarm. The crowd, actuated apparently by a spirit of curiosity and expectation, moved principally towards the gates of St. Denis and St. Martin, as if to assist at a public ceremony. Amidst an uninterrupted line of carriages, baggage wagons, and artillery trains, with officers and soldiers of every description, filing towards the field of battle, or returning wounded from it, an immense multitude proceeded through the city, consisting almost of as many women as men, attracted by a spectacle the most singular in the annals of their country. A secret presentiment seemed to assure the inhabitants that the *denouement* of the great drama now before them would not be fatal, and that the interior of this beautiful capital would be preserved from the horrors of war. But if the populace waited the event with composure, such was not the case with many families. How many wives and mothers were in tears and agony, looking forward with horror to the probability of Paris being sacked, and their daughters outraged; and trembling for the fate of their husbands and sons, who had taken up arms as much to defend their homes as to support the existing government?

Towards Charonne, Belleville, Measil-Montant, and Saint-Chaumont the allied troops had surmounted every obstacle. In every direction, the French troops had been driven to the barriers, and the capital was about to be forced, when Marshal Marmont, on whom the command had now devolved, despatched an officer to General Barclay de Tolly, to solicit a truce; engaging to abandon all the ground which he occupied beyond the barriers, and to sign a capitulation for the surrender of Paris in two hours. The Russian general lost no time in submitting this proposition to his imperial master, and to the King of Prussia, neither of whom had for a moment quitted the field of battle. These monarchs, animated by a desire to stop the effusion of blood, and wishing to preserve from ruin one of the first cities in Europe, agreed to the truce without hesitation, and ordered their armies to cease hostilities. Count

Orloff, aide-de-camp to the Emperor of Russia, and Count de Paar, aide-de-camp to the Prince of Schwartzenberg, were charged with the office of regulating the cessation of hostilities, in concert with Colonel Deny's, principal aide-de-camp to Marshal Marmont, and Colonel Baron Fabrier, attached to his staff. A shout of "*a capitulation!*" now resounded on all sides: the thunders of the artillery had already ceased; and the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia repaired to the heights of Belleville, where they surveyed the capital of France, and received its deputies. At four o'clock in the afternoon, Count de Nesselrode entered the city, furnished with full powers to ratify the capitulation, which was concluded at two o'clock in the morning of the 31st of March.*

Paris, surrounded as it was with dangers, escaped only by a sort of miracle; the very resistance which duty and honour commanded might have occasioned its ruin. The obstinate resistance of the French troops cost the conquerors seven or eight thousand men; and the vanquished sustained a loss of about half that number. The commander-in-chief of the Russian armies, Count Barclay de Tolly, exhibited a happy union of skill and moderation, and his services on this memorable day were rewarded by his sovereign with the elevated distinction of *feld-marshal*.

The Emperor Napoleon, urging the movements of his army with incredible celerity, arrived at Troyes at eleven o'clock at night on the 29th, after having exhausted his troops by a march of twenty

* CAPITULATION OF PARIS.

Article 1.—The corps of the Marshals Dukes of Treviso and Ragusa shall evacuate the city of Paris on the 31st of March, at seven o'clock in the morning.

II.—They shall take with them all the appurtenances of their corps d'armées.

III.—Hostilities shall not recommence until two hours after the evacuation of the city, that is to say, on the 31st of March at nine o'clock in the morning.

IV.—All the arsenals, military establishments, work-shops, and magazines shall be left in the same state they were previous to the present capitulation being proposed.

V.—The national or city guard is entirely separated from the troops of the line. It is either to be kept on foot, or disarmed, or disbanded, according to the ulterior disposition of the allied powers.

VI.—The corps of the municipal gendarmerie, shall, in every respect, share the fate of the national guard.

VII.—The wounded and the stragglers remaining in Paris after seven o'clock shall be prisoners of war.

VIII.—The city of Paris is recommended to the generosity of the high allied powers.

leagues that day. Agitated by alarming presentiments, he had formed an opinion that the duration of his power depended upon the resistance of Paris, and that unless he could prevent the reduction of that city, all would be lost. Under this persuasion, he adopted the resolution of despatching General Girardin, his aide-de-camp, during the night, with orders diametrically opposite to those of which General Dejean had been the bearer from the bridge of Doulan-court. These last despatches were addressed to the ministers of war and police, and contained positive commands to defend Paris by all practicable means, assuring the ministers, that in twelve hours after the arrival of his aide-de-camp, himself and his army would enter Paris. Early in the morning of the 30th, Napoleon left Troyes at the head of his guard, taking the direction towards Sens. But so great was his impatience, that he quitted his army at the distance of five leagues from Troyes, and with an escort of fifteen hundred cavalry, selected from his horse-guards, proceeded with the utmost rapidity to Fontainebleau, and in the night of the same day arrived at Cour-de-France, about four leagues from the capital. Assuming an air of tranquillity, he awaited, at an inn, the return of his aide-de-camp from Paris. For some time, he paced the room in silence, without suffering any trace of disquietude to appear on his countenance, and after having supped with appetite, threw himself upon his bed, and enjoyed several hours of sleep. With every exertion, General Girardin was not able to reach Paris till the armistice had taken place, and all hopes of preventing the entrance of the allies were completely dissipated.

Paris, the focus of those revolutionary wars which had agitated Europe for five-and-twenty years, saw, on the 31st of March, Europe in arms within her walls. The approach of the crisis had secretly given birth to three parties, into which the city was divided. The first was composed of a numerous body, who felt a desire for the re-establishment of liberty; another party, less numerous, was composed of faithful royalists, anxious for the restoration of the Bourbons; while a third wished to maintain the existing government. These elements of intestine discord existed in every department of France; but the partisans of liberty, from a hope that adversity had inculcated upon the Bourbons the salutary lesson—that the best security of thrones consists in the liberty and happiness of the people, cast their weight into the scale of the royalists, and favoured the return of their ancient sovereigns.

The occupation of Paris by the allies had suggested a movement to the royalists, which had for its object to convince the European monarchs that the wishes of the French, too long suppressed, were favourable to the royal cause. With this view, one hundred young royalists entered into an engagement to meet on the morning of the 31st, at the Place Louis XV. and to declare for the Bourbons. At nine o'clock in the morning, M. Charles de Vauvineaux appeared on horseback at the appointed rendezvous, and read aloud to the citizens by whom he was surrounded, the proclamation of the commander-in-chief of the allied armies, which declared that they sought to establish "a salutary authority in France, able to join in cementing the union of all nations and governments." Having finished the proclamation, he mounted the white cockade, and uttered, for the first time that it had been heard in Paris since the death of Louis XVI. the shout of "*Long live the king!*" This cry was instantly reiterated by a number of the partisans of royalty, who dispersed in various directions, and explained to the people the advantages of the restoration. "By recalling your legitimate monarch," said they, "you will obtain peace, and with it the end of the conscription, as well as the abolition of all vexatious taxes." These popular harangues, so grateful to the ears of the Parisians, were followed by a distribution of white cockades, which were received by the populace with cries of—"Down with the Tyrant!" "*Long live the Bourbons!*" "*Long live Louis XVIII!*" To fan these returning indications of loyalty into a flame, a group of royalists, headed by Count Thibault de Montmorency, retraced their steps to the place of Louis XV. without their numbers having been materially increased; but here they were joined by the Viscountess de Chateaubriand, Madame de Vauvineaux, Madame de Semalle, the Countess de Choiseul, the Princess de Leon, and several other ladies of distinction, who encouraged the citizens to assume the royal colours, and when they had no longer any cockades to distribute, they tore into shreds several parts of their dress, which served to multiply the tokens of the restoration. Napoleon, however, still had partisans, who went from group to group, exclaiming—"Remove your cockades. Have we not an established order of things? Would you unsettle all our institutions, disturb property, and renew the scenes of the revolution? We ought to have no wishes but for the emperor."—These cold remonstrances were lost in the tumultuous shouts of the multitude; and

by a strange vicissitude, the same voices which, one-and-twenty years ago, had exulted in the death of Louis XVI. were now raised for the restoration of the Bourbons.

The cavalry of the allied armies, under the command of the Grand-duke Constantine, the brother of the Emperor of Russia, were formed in columns during the morning on the road from Bondy to Paris; and the emperor himself, with his staff, his generals, and his suite, repaired to Pantin, where he was joined by the King of Prussia with a similar equipage. The two monarchs, attended by their suites, at length proceeded by the suburbs of St. Martin, through the barriers of Paris, the Cossacks of the guards forming the head of the procession. Towards noon, the troops which preceded and followed the imperial and royal retinue, made their entry, with the sound of trumpets and martial music—the infantry marching with a front of thirty, and the cavalry of fifteen men. On reaching the suburb, the crowd was so immense that the military procession was for a long time delayed. All Paris seemed to be concentrated at a single point. Towards one o'clock the army of Europe, from the borders of the Volga, the Danube, and the Spree, debouched on the *Boulevards*, with as much regularity as if defiling on a parade, accompanied by the most rapturous greeting of the multitude by which they were surrounded. When the Emperor Alexander, the King of Prussia, and the Grand-duke Constantine appeared, accompanied by the generalissimo, Prince Schwartzberg, and the British ambassador, Lord Cathcart, the crowd rushed towards them, and exclaimed, "*Long live the Emperor Alexander! Long live Frederick William! Long live our deliverers!*" and these cries were frequently mixed with the exclamations of "*Long live Louis XVIII. Long live the Bourbons!*" During the whole of this imposing procession, which occupied several hours, the two sovereigns replied to the acclamations of the populace with unbounded affability, and soothed the wounds of national pride by repeating to all around them, "We come not as your conquerors, we are your allies." The royalists, seizing the auspicious moment, crowded round the Emperor Alexander, and continually implored him to restore the legitimate monarch. Madame de Senneville, a lady who had distinguished herself by her activity and zeal in the royal cause, threw herself at the feet of the czar, and with a flood of tears urged the claims of her sovereign, the king:—"You wish it," answered Alexander, "and the French nation wish it. Enough—you shall be gratified." These assurances spread like electricity

through Paris; accompanied by assurances that the capital should be exempt from contributions and war charges; and that all the monuments of art should be respected. To complete the picture, the populace, so lately greeting the ears of Napoleon with the cry of "*Vive l'Empereur!*" were now seen throwing a cord round the neck of his statue, on the column of victory, and labouring to remove it from the pedestal, with repeated cries of "*Down with the tyrant!*"

Napoleon, as if doomed to assist at the funeral rites of his own power, passed the night of the 30th at a distance of only four leagues from Paris, and slept with tranquillity, while two hundred thousand foreign troops were making preparations to deprive him of his crown. Early in the morning, the intelligence reached him that his capital had capitulated, and that no effort could now prevent the entrance of the allied armies into Paris. In this emergency, he held a council with the officers by whom he was surrounded, consisting of the Duke of Vicenza, General Bertrand, and several others, at which it was determined that the emperor should repair to Fontainebleau, and there rally his army, while the Duke of Vicenza proceeded to the head-quarters of the allied monarchs, furnished with full powers to coincide in such conditions as the conquerors might be disposed to dictate.

The military government of Paris was confided to General Baron Sacken, and the propriety of this choice was manifested by the good order and tranquillity which prevailed in all quarters. Business resumed its natural course; the barriers were opened, and a sentiment of general security began to prevail in a city occupied by an army so lately in a state of hostility against France. Still the opinions of the people, regarding the future government, had not been expressed in an authorized way. The legislative corps, which, from its popular construction, seemed the proper organ of the national will, had been abruptly dissolved on the 31st of December, and it was impossible to assemble the deputies with sufficient promptitude to take a lead in the momentous decisions of the present moment. The senate was the only body which possessed any authority; but this assembly thought itself crushed beneath the ruins of Napoleon's throne, till the following declaration on the part of the Emperor Alexander called it into action, and gave it a new existence:—

"The armies of the allied powers have occupied the capital of France, and the sovereigns gladly meet the wishes of the French nation. They declare that though the conditions of peace

must have been protected by the strongest guarantees, while it was their object to fetter the ambition of Bonaparte, these conditions may be more favourable, when France herself, returning to a sage system of government, offers the assurance of repose. The sovereigns consequently declare, they will no further treat with Napoleon Bonaparte, nor with any member of his family; that they will respect the integrity of ancient France, such as it existed under her legitimate kings; and that they may even do more, because they lay it down as a principle, that, for the happiness of the people, it is necessary France should be great and strong; that they will acknowledge and guarantee the constitution which the French nation shall choose for itself; and that they consequently invite the senate to appoint, without delay, a provisional government, which is capable of providing for the wants of administration, and preparing a constitution suitable to the French. The intentions which I thus avow, are entertained by me, in common with all the allied powers.

"ALEXANDER."

This proclamation was no sooner promulgated, than the senators were suddenly convoked by Prince Talleyrand de Perigord, in his quality of vice grand elector. Sixty-five senators, assembled by this authority, on the 1st of April, threw off the imperial sway, and created a provisional government, charged with the office of re-establishing the functions and administration of the state. The persons fixed upon for this duty were Prince Talleyrand, the Senators Count Beurnonville and Count de Jancourt, the counsellor of state, Duke Dalberg, and the Abbe de Montesquieu, an old member of the constituent assembly. The installation of the provisional government was signalized by an address to the French armies, in which it was said:—"You are no longer the soldiers of Napoleon; the senate and all France release you from your oath." On the following day, the 2d of April, the senate decreed, that the Emperor Napoleon had forfeited the throne of France, and that the people as well as the army, were released from the oath of fidelity.* At

* DECREE OF THE SENATE.

The conservative senate, considering,

That in a constitutional monarchy, the monarch exists only in virtue of the constitution or social compact;

That Napoleon Bonaparte, during a certain period of firm and prudent government, afforded to the nation reasons to calculate for the future on acts of wisdom and justice; but that afterwards he violated the compact which united him to the French people, particularly in levying imposts and establishing taxes otherwise than in virtue of the law, against the express tenor of the oath which he had taken on his ascending the throne, conformable to the 57th article of the act of the constitutions of the 28th Floreal, year 12;

That he committed this attack on the rights of the people, even in adjourning, without necessity, the legislative body, and causing to be suppressed, as criminal, a report of that body,† the title of

the close of the sitting, the members proceeded in a body to the Emperor of Russia, who, after receiving their homage, addressed them in these terms:—

"A man, who called himself my ally, came as an unjust aggressor into my dominions. It is against him, and not against France, that I have carried on the war. I am the friend of the French,

which, and its share in the national representation, he disputed;

That he undertook a series of wars in violation of article 50 of the act of the constitutions of the 22d Frimare, year 8, which purports, that declaration of war should be proposed, debated, decreed, and promulgated, in the same manner as laws;

That he issued, unconstitutionally, several decrees, inflicting the punishment of death; particularly the two decrees of the 5th of March last, tending to cause to be considered as national, a war which would not have taken place but for the interests of his boundless ambition;

That he violated the constitutional laws by his decrees respecting the prisoners of the state;

That he annulled the responsibility of the ministers, confounded all authorities, and destroyed the independence of judicial bodies;

Considering that the liberty of the press, established and consecrated as one of the rights of the nation, has been constantly subjected to the arbitrary control of his police, and that at the same time he has always made use of the press to fill France and Europe with misrepresentations, false maxims, doctrines favourable to despotism, and insults on foreign governments;

That acts and reports heard by the senate have undergone alteration in the publication;

Considering that, instead of reigning, according to the terms of his oath, with a sole view to the interest, the happiness, and the glory of the French people, Napoleon completed the misfortunes of his country by his refusal to treat on conditions which the national interests required him to accept, and which did not compromise the French honour;

By the abuse which he made of all the means intrusted to him in men and money;

By the abandonment of the wounded, without dressings, without assistance, and without subsistence.

By various measures, the consequences of which were the ruin of the towns, the depopulation of the country, famine, and contagious diseases;

Considering that, for all these causes, the imperial government, established by the *senatus consultum* of the 28th Floreal, year 12, has ceased to exist, and that the wish manifested by all Frenchmen calls for an order of things, the first result of which should be the restoration of general peace, and which should also be the era of a solemn reconciliation of the states of the great European family.

The senate declares and decrees as follows:—

Article 1.—Napoleon Bonaparte has forfeited the throne, and the hereditary right established in his family is abolished.

II.—The French people and the army are released from their oath of fidelity towards Napoleon Bonaparte.

III.—The present decree shall be transmitted by a message to the provisional government of France, conveyed forthwith to all the departments and the armies, and immediately proclaimed in all the quarters of the capital.

† See book iv. page 307.

and you cause me to renew this declaration. It is just and wise that France should have strong and liberal institutions, commensurate with her present enlightened state. The allies and I have come only to protect the freedom of your decisions. As a proof of the durable alliance which I wish to contract with your nation, I restore to you all the prisoners now in Russia. The provisional government has solicited this of me; I grant it to the senate in consequence of the resolution which it has taken."

Thus, by a splendid act of munificence, two hundred thousand French captives were about to be restored without ransom, and returned from the extremities of Europe and Asia to the bosom of their families in France.

The members of the legislative body who still remained in Paris, amounting to seventy-seven in number, assembled on the following day in the ordinary hall of their sittings, and assented to the act of the senate, which decreed that Napoleon and his family had forfeited the throne. The body of advocates, and the court of cassation, immediately followed this example, invoking the constitutional charter, which they considered necessary to confirm public liberty, and restore France to the descendants of Henry IV. Marshal Marmont, in a correspondence with Prince Schwartzberg, on the third of April, professed his readiness to accede to the decree by which Napoleon Bonaparte was declared to have forfeited the throne of France, but he required as a guarantee—"That all troops quitting the standard of Napoleon should have leave to pass freely into Normandy; and that if the events of the war should place Bonaparte as a prisoner in the hands of the allies, that his life and safety should be guaranteed, and that he should be sent to a country chosen by the allied powers and the French government." To these demands, Prince Schwartzberg acceded, and Marshal Marmont, with his corps of twelve thousand men, passed within the lines of the allies. The counter-revolution was thus advancing at a steady pace, and all the authorities, both civil and military, successfully rallied around the senate and the provisional government.

In the mean time, Napoleon collected all his troops at Fontainebleau, amounting to sixty thousand men, and announced, that it was his intention to march his army to the capital, and to repel the invaders. But the talisman of passive obedience was broken; some of the marshals had already sent in their adherence to the provisional government,* and a majority of the other marshals refused to acquiesce in the romantic enterprise of marching against

Paris. France was invaded from the Pyrenees to the Garonne; from the Alps to the Auvergne; from the Rhine to the Loire; Paris and its environs were occupied by two hundred thousand foreign troops, and the army which Napoleon still had under him might be considered as almost surrounded. The struggle, therefore, had become hopeless, and the army, however well disposed to follow their leader, had no disposition to sacrifice themselves, or to light up a flame of civil war, which might lay their country in ruins. The Major-general Berthier, having at all times access to the emperor, was deputed to repair to the palace during the night of the 3d of April, and to recommend to him the salutary measure of abdication. The first mention of this subject roused the natural irritability of his temper into rage; but when Marshals Ney, Oudinot, and Macdonald, who afterwards arrived, assured him that this measure alone could save the country, his towering spirit seemed subdued, and he consented to abdicate his throne in favour of his son, the infant King of Rome. This proposal it was determined to submit to the senate and the French nation, and on the 4th, Marshals Ney and Macdonald, accompanied by M. de Caulaincourt, were deputed to repair to Paris for that purpose.

On quitting Paris, the empress and the King of Rome had taken the road to Tours, by Rambouillet and Chartres, and on the 1st of April they arrived at Blois, the capital of the department of the Loire, where a regency government was established in the name of the empress. The ministers, and the brothers of Napoleon, forming the council of regency, determined to maintain one government against another; the war-office was placed in full activity, and four hundred commissioners were employed day and night in collecting levies, under a persuasion that this unfortunate country would become the theatre of a civil war. To forward the execution of the projects of the emperor, the ephemeral regency of Blois issued the following proclamation, which was dated on the 3d of April, and signed by the empress:—

FRENCHMEN! The events of war have placed the capital in the power of foreigners; but the emperor has hastened to its protection at the head of his armies, so frequently victorious. They are in the presence of the enemy under the walls of Paris. It is from the residence I have chosen, and from the ministers of the emperor, that the only orders will proceed which you can acknowledge. Every place which is in the possession of the enemy, ceases to be free. Every direction which emanates from it, is in the language of strangers, or such as it suits their hostile views to adopt. You will be faithful to your oath of allegiance. You will listen to the voice of a pr n-

* Marshal Victor, who was detained at Paris by a severe wound, was the first of this number.

cess, who was consigned to your good faith, who glories in being a French woman, and in having associated her destiny with that of the sovereign whom you freely chose for yourselves. My son was less sure of your affection during the hour of prosperity than at the present moment. His rights and his person are under your safe-guard.

(Signed) "MARIA LOUISA, Empress-regent.
"MONTALIVET, Sec. to the Regency."

It was amidst these melancholy prospects, that the negotiators from Fontainebleau, who had repaired to Paris to defend the Napoleon dynasty, were introduced during the night of the 4th into the presence of the Emperor Alexander. Marshals Ney and Macdonald, faithful to the obligations imposed upon them by their commission, represented that the emperor was disposed to abdicate his throne in favour of his son. The political and moral considerations connected with the question of the succession, were debated with great energy at a special conference convened on this question, at which Prince Talleyrand, General Pozzo di Borgo, and others attended, and the result was, that the Bourbon dynasty should be restored. At the breaking up of the conference, Marshals Ney and Macdonald returned to Fontainebleau, where they arrived at eleven o'clock at night on the 5th. The Prince of Moskwa was the first to enter the apartments of the palace, when the emperor inquired with earnestness if he had succeeded "In part, sire," said the marshal, "but not with regard to the regency—it was too late. Revolutions never give way. This has taken its course, and the senate will to-morrow recognise the Bourbons." The marshal then proceeded to state, that the personal safety of the emperor and his family had been stipulated for; that he would be permitted to retire to the Isle of Elba; and that a stipend of two millions of francs would be allowed for his annual expenditure. The composure and acquiescence with which a man who had aspired to universal empire received these proposals, astonished those around him, and the utter impossibility of controlling the adverse events by which he was surrounded, combined with a love of life, bowed him to his destiny. In virtue of these arrangements, Napoleon consented to the entire renunciation of his rights, and on the 6th of April announced his abdication in the following terms :—

"The allied powers have proclaimed that the Emperor Napoleon is the only obstacle to the re-establishment of peace in Europe; the emperor, faithful to his oath, declares, that he renounces, for himself and his heirs, the thrones of France and Italy; and that there is no personal sacrifice, even that of life, which he is not ready to make for the interest of France."

This act, which was officially announced in the London Gazette Extraordinary of the 9th of April, was not known at Paris till the 12th, the day after the conclusion of a secret treaty between the confederated sovereigns of Europe and the modern Charlemagne, now become, by a strange vicissitude of fortune, the Emperor of the Isle of Elba !*

The same day on which the deed of abdication was signed by Napoleon, a new constitution for the government of France was submitted to the conservative senate, and adopted by the unanimous consent of that assembly. By this constitutional charter, Louis XVIII. was called to the throne of his ancestors, and in its enact-

* The secret treaty between Napoleon and the allied powers consisted of twenty-one articles; it was dated the 11th of April, 1814, and fixed and guaranteed the future destiny of Napoleon and his family. The first article stipulated, that "His majesty the Emperor Napoleon shall for himself, his successors, and descendants, and for all the members of his family, renounce all right of sovereignty and dominion, as well over the empire of France and the kingdom of Italy, as every other country;" by the second, the titles of Bonaparte and his family were guaranteed to them during their lives; by the third, the Isle of Elba was appointed as his future residence, of which the full sovereignty was vested in him, with an annual revenue of two millions of francs, (83,333*l.*) in rent charge on the great book of France; one million to revert to the Empress Maria Louisa; to whom, by the fifth article, the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, were granted in full propriety and sovereignty to pass to her son and his descendants in the direct line, the prince, her son, to take the name of Prince of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla. By the sixth article, a rent charge of two millions five hundred thousand francs was decreed to the different branches of Bonaparte's family, in the following proportions :

	Francs.
To Madame, the mother of the emperor,	300,000
King Joseph and his queen,	500,000
King Louis,	200,000
Queen Hortensia and her children	400,000
King Jerome and his queen,	500,000
The Princess Eliza,	300,000
The Princess Pauline,	300,000

Article seven fixed the future revenue of the Empress Josephine at one million of francs; and article eight provided that a suitable establishment should be given to her son, Prince Eugene, the Viceroy of Italy, in some country out of France. The seventeenth article stipulated that the emperor should carry with him, and retain as his guard, four hundred volunteers, including officers, subalterns, and privates; and by the nineteenth, the Polish troops of every description in the service of France were permitted to return to their native country, carrying with them their arms and baggage; and the officers, subalterns, and privates, retaining the decorations which had been bestowed upon them, and the pensions attached to those decorations. The other articles of the treaty were either explanatory or merely prescribed the mode of carrying into effect those above enumerated.

ments the prerogatives of the sovereign were happily blended with the liberties of the subject. The resemblance of many articles in this constitution to that form of government under which it is the happiness of Englishmen to live, is sufficiently obvious;* and hence it might perhaps be

* CONSTITUTIONAL CHARTER.

Article I.—The French government is monarchical, and hereditary from male to male, in order of primogeniture.

II.—The French people call freely to the throne of France, Louis Stanislaus Xavier de France, brother of the last king, and after him the other members of the house of Bourbon.

III.—The ancient nobility resume their titles. The new preserve theirs hereditarily. The legion of honour is maintained with its prerogatives. The king shall fix the decoration.

IV.—The executive power belongs to the king.

V.—The king, the senate, and the legislative body, concur in the making of laws.

Plans of laws may be equally proposed in the senate and in the legislative body.

Those relating to contributions can be proposed only in the legislative body.

The king can invite equally the two bodies to occupy themselves upon objects which he deems proper.

The sanction of the king is necessary for the completion of a law.

VI.—There are one hundred and fifty senators at least, and two hundred at most. Their dignity is immovable, and hereditary from male to male, in order of primogeniture. They are named by the king. The present senators, with the exception of those who should renounce the quality of French citizens, are maintained, and form part of this number. The actual endowment of the senate and the senatorship belongs to them. The revenues are divided equally between them, and pass to their successors. In case of the death of a senator without direct male posterity, his portion returns to the public treasure. The senators who shall be named in future cannot partake of this endowment.

VII.—The princes of the royal family, and the princes of the blood, are by right members of the senate. The functions of a senator cannot be exercised until the person has attained the age of twenty-one years.

VIII.—The senate decides the cases in which the discussion of objects before them shall be public or secret.

IX.—Each department shall send to the legislative body the same number of deputies it sent thither. The deputies who sat in the legislative body at the period of the last adjournment, shall continue to sit till they are replaced. All preserve their pay. In future, they shall be chosen immediately by the electoral bodies, which are preserved, with the exception of the changes that may be made by a law in their organization. The duration of the function of the deputies to the legislative body, is fixed at five years. The new election shall take place for the session of 1816.

X.—The legislative body shall assemble of right each year on the 1st of October. The king may convocate it extraordinarily; he may adjourn it; he may dissolve it; but in the latter case another legislative body must be formed, in three months at the latest, by the electoral colleges.

XI.—The legislative body has the right of discussion. The sittings are public, unless in cases

inferred that the French were at last to be blessed with as great a portion of civil, religious, and political liberty, as the people of this country enjoy; but no constitution, however liberal in its principles, and apparently practicable in its details, can of itself bestow on a nation the blessing

where it chooses to form itself into a general committee.

XII.—The senate, legislative body, electoral colleges, and assemblies of cantons, elect their president from among themselves.

XIII.—No member of the senate, or legislative body, can be arrested without a previous authority from the body to which he belongs. The trial of a member of the senate or legislative body belongs exclusively to the senate.

XIV.—The ministers may be members either of the senate or legislative body.

XV.—Equality of proportion in the taxes is of right; no tax can be imposed or received, unless it has been freely consented to by the legislative body and the senate. The land tax can be established only for a year. The budget of the following year, and the accounts of the preceding year, are presented annually to the legislative body and the senate, at the opening of the sitting of the legislative body.

XVI.—The law shall fix the mode and amount of the recruiting of the army.

XVII.—The independence of the judicial power is guaranteed. No one can be removed from his natural judges. The institution of juries is preserved, as well as the publicity of trial in criminal matters. The penalty of confiscation of goods is abolished. The king has the right of pardoning.

XVIII.—The courts and ordinary tribunals existing at present, are preserved; their number cannot be diminished or increased, but in virtue of a law. The judges are for life, and irremovable, except the justices of the peace, and the judges of commerce. The commissions and extraordinary tribunals are suppressed, and cannot be re-established.

XIX.—The courts of cassation, the courts of appeal, and the tribunals of the first instance, propose to the king three candidates for each place of judge vacant in their body. The king chooses one of the three. The king names the first presidents and the public ministry of the courts and the tribunals.

XX.—The military on service, the officers and soldiers on half pay, the widows, and pensioned officers, preserve their ranks, honours, and pensions.

XXI.—The person of the king is sacred and inviolable. All the acts of the government are signed by a minister. The ministers are responsible for all that those acts contain violatory of the laws, public and private liberty, and the rights of citizens.

XXII.—The freedom of worship and conscience is guaranteed. The ministers of worship are treated and protected alike.

XXIII.—The liberty of the press is entire, with the exception of the legal repression of offences which may result from the abuse of that liberty.

The senatorial commissions of the liberty of the press and individual liberty are preserved.

XXIV.—The public debt is guaranteed. The sales of the national domains are irrevocably maintained.

XXV.—No Frenchman can be prosecuted for opinions or votes which he has given.

ings of liberty. Unless in the great body of the people, there be a proper degree of intelligence; a due sense of their own importance, weight, rights, and duties; and unless also there be, in the higher classes, and particularly in those who are intrusted with the government, a conviction that their own happiness and the permanency of their rule will be best secured by maintaining the liberties of the people, free constitutions will be of little avail. The body will be there, but the animating spirit will be wanting; and years, perhaps ages, must roll away, before nations once sunk into slavery can become free and happy.

After the fall of Bourdeaux, that city, and the departments of La Vendee, became the focus of royal insurrection, and Lord Wellington, pursuing his success, marched to the conquest of Languedoc. From Tarbes, Marshal Soult had been obliged to retreat to Toulouse, and thither he was pursued by the British army. On the 7th of April, Colonel Cooke had left Paris for the express purpose of apprising Lord Wellington of the revolution which had so completely changed the aspect of public affairs; and this officer was accompanied by Colonel St. Simon, who was employed by the provisional government to give Marshals Soult and Suchet information of the same event. From some cause, not very satisfactorily explained, these messengers of peace were arrested, and detained on their way to the south; and owing to their detention the lives of ten thousand brave men were uselessly sacrificed, in a battle fought, on the 10th of April, under the walls of the capital of Languedoc.

The incessant rains had impeded the advance of Lord Wellington; and time was afforded to Marshal Soult to prepare for the defence of this city. Toulouse, though not naturally a strong fortress,

is defended on three of its sides by the Garonne, and the celebrated canal of Languedoc; and the French, availing themselves of these advantages, constructed *tetes de pont*, commanding the approaches by the canal and the river, and supported them by musketry and artillery from the walls. In addition to these advantages, they had placed five redoubts on a commanding height to the eastward; and, as the roads had become almost impassable for artillery, the allies were compelled to attack under great disadvantage. Early in the morning of the 10th of April, all the corps of the combined army were put in motion, while the French troops, ranged in battle array, prepared to make the most vigorous resistance. At seven o'clock in the morning, the battle commenced, near the wharves at the mouth of the canal, and it soon became extremely animated. The French brigade, being at first repulsed, set fire to several houses in the suburbs, for the purpose of arresting the progress of the assailants, and then fell back towards the *tete de pont* formed at the junction of the canals; and in this situation they maintained themselves with so much firmness that all the efforts of the allies to dislodge them proved unavailing.

The attack soon spread along the whole line, and the battle became general. Marshal Beresford, by previous arrangement, crossed the Ers, and forming his corps into three columns at Croix d'Orade, immediately seized the village of Montblanc, and re-ascended the river over difficult ground, in a direction parallel to the position of Marshal Soult. On reaching the extremity of the village, he lost no time in proceeding to the attack. As soon as Don Manuel Freyre, the Spanish commander, perceived that Marshal Beresford's corps had reached its station, he advanced to attack the French intrenchments in concert with that commander. It was Marshal Soult's intention to receive the combined army with a tremendous cannonade, and to avail himself of this favourable moment for attacking it unawares, hoping to break the line by a bold and decisive charge. Every thing seemed at first to presage success; his army stood firmly in its line, and saw, without intimidation, the approach of the Spanish troops, marching in good order under a brisk fire of musketry and artillery, with their general and his staff at their head. On moving round to the left flank, Don Manuel's corps was repulsed with loss, and Marshal Soult immediately ordering a charge to be made, his troops darted from their line. By this charge, the right wing of the Spanish corps was turned on both sides of the high road

XXVI.—Every person has the right to address individual petitions to every constituted authority.

XXVII.—All Frenchmen are equally admissible to all civil and military employments.

XXVIII.—All the laws existing at present remain in vigour, until they be legally repealed. The code of civil laws shall be entitled, *Civil Code of the French*.

XXIX.—The present constitution shall be submitted to the acceptance of the French people, in the form which shall be regulated. Louis Stanislaus Xavier shall be proclaimed King of the French, as soon as he shall have signed and sworn, by an act stating, *I accept the constitution; I swear to observe it, and cause it to be observed*.

This oath shall be repeated in the solemnity when he shall receive the oath of fidelity of the French.

Signed by the PRINCE OF BENEVENTE, President; and by sixty-seven members of the senate.

from Toulouse to Croix d'Orade, and compelled, notwithstanding the utmost exertion of their officers, to fall back in disorder.

This partial success, which animated the French army to the highest degree, induced Lord Wellington to redouble his efforts. The 4th division, under the command of Lieutenant-general Sir L. Cole, and the 6th division, under Lieutenant-general Sir H. Clinton, led by Marshal Beresford in person, carried part of the heights, after two successive attacks, and obtained possession of the first redoubt, which covered and protected the flank of his position. This advantage was not obtained without much bloodshed, and the French troops having shown that they were resolved to defend every intrenchment and redoubt, inch by inch, Marshal Beresford suspended his attacks till the arrival of his artillery, and till the Spanish corps was prepared to return to the charge. These dispositions being completed, the marshal resumed his offensive movements along the heights, and successfully attacked the other redoubts, with General Pack's brigade supported by the 6th division. The Spanish and Portuguese corps failed in several attempts to carry the redoubts, but Lord Wellington, undismayed by the heroic resistance of the enemy, renewed the assault, and towards noon succeeded in carrying the two principal redoubts in the centre, and the intrenchments, which constituted the principal strength of the position. Victory now evidently inclined towards the allies; but on approaching the castle of Guery, towards the banks of the canal, they had to sustain a fierce attack, made by a French division, which rushed from a place of ambush, and made a desperate, but unsuccessful, effort to regain the heights. The French General Tampin, to whom the command of the troops issuing from this ambuscade was confided, forfeited his life by his impetuous valour; and the 6th division of the British troops continuing to advance steadily along the summit of the hill, while the Spaniards made a corresponding movement in front, the French army was at length dislodged from the two remaining redoubts. The victorious troops of Lord Wellington now occupied the Montaudron road, and the whole range of heights fell into their possession.

While these operations were taking place on the left of the combined army beyond the Garonne, Lieutenant-general Hill, with the right wing, dislodged the enemy's left from the interior works of the St. Cyrien suburb. Lieutenant-general Picton also renewed his attacks and drove the

French troops from the *tête de pont* at the canal, near the Garonne; but, upon attempting to seize that position, his division was repulsed with loss, and compelled to desist from the further prosecution of this part of the enterprise.

The allied army, now victorious at all the principal points, and particularly on the left, established themselves on three of the sides of Toulouse; and, after having turned the French army, compelled it to seek refuge in the city, and finally, to retreat from that place in the direction of Castelnau-dry, leaving Generals d'Harispe, Bourot, and St. Hilaire, with sixteen hundred prisoners, in the hands of the victors. Of the numerous battles fought by Wellington, the battle of Toulouse, which was the last of the campaign, and of the war, may be classed among the most sanguinary; the engagement, which commenced at seven o'clock in the morning, did not cease till the same hour in the evening; and the number of killed and wounded in the allied armies amounted to nearly five thousand. The loss of the French was not estimated, but it no doubt swelled the whole number of those whose blood flowed in vain on this glorious but melancholy day, to more than ten thousand. (79)

(79) The French writers give a very different representation of the battle of Toulouse from that in the text. According to them, the force of the army under Marshal Soult did not exceed 20,000 men, while that of the allies is estimated at upwards of 80,000. The dilatory movements of Lord Wellington, after the battle of Orthez, had enabled his opponent to fortify his position at Toulouse in the strongest manner. The object of the allies was the possession of the French intrenchments, but night closed upon the field of battle without their having gained any important point. They are said to have lost fifteen thousand men, the French about twenty-five hundred; and when the advantageous position of the latter is considered, this statement will probably be found nearer the truth than the English. The narratives of individuals, generally speaking, convey a more faithful, and at the same time a more picturesque view of an engagement, than the official despatches of commanders. The subjoined anecdote, copied from the memoirs of an eyewitness of the battle of Toulouse, will probably interest our readers.

"The French lost, in the affair of Toulouse, about 2500 men; of the English, from their own confession, more than 15,000 were put *hors de combat*, and the regiments which fought with the greatest bravery, were as usual those which suffered the most. The morning after the battle, I was detached with my battalion to the bridge at the head of the canal. Without fear of being accused of exaggeration, I can confidently assert, that in a space of twenty square yards I counted more than two hundred and sixty corpses, all either English or Scotch. Near this place, I met with an English officer, who had been sent for the purpose of burying their dead. He spoke a little French, and although enemies, we soon entered into a familiar conversation. Between military men, confidence is soon established. Seeing us

On the 11th of April, Colonel Cook and Colonel St. Simon arrived at Toulouse with the intelligence that Napoleon Bonaparte was dethroned; and the same information was conveyed with all possible despatch to Marshals Soult and Suchet. For some days, the French marshals did not consider the communication as sufficiently authentic to induce them to lay down their arms; and in the interval Sir John Hope was made prisoner by the enemy in a sortie from Bayonne; but the arrival of other messengers placed the fact of the overthrow of Bonaparte's government out of all doubt, and a convention was entered into by the commanders of the hostile armies, on the same bases as the convention of Paris.

All France was left at complete liberty to follow the impulse and the example of the capital; in every part of that fine country an ardent desire existed to see public liberty flourish under the shelter of the laws; and the Bourbons, aware of the rock upon which the unfortunate Louis XVI. had perished, would, it was hoped, secure to the nation over which they were again destined to rule, a portion, at least, of that first of blessings. At the period of the restoration, Louis XVIII. was confined at his residence in England by sick-

tranquilly seated together, at the foot of a tree, partaking of the same frugal breakfast, and drinking from the same cup, no one would have supposed that we had been bitter enemies the evening before. I asked him what he thought of the battle. "It was a severe one," he replied, with the usual English phlegm. "We have great confidence in Lord Wellington, but another such day as yesterday"—"Yes," I interrupted him, with the vivacity of a volageur officer, "another such day as yesterday, and Lord Wellington will return to England as Pyrrhus did to Epirus." My new acquaintance blamed the conduct of the Spaniards, severely accusing them as the cause of the disasters of the preceding day. "There is no occasion to accuse any one," I replied; "the Spaniards behaved well on their own ground, and so will we on ours; a nation determined to defend itself, can never be subjected." We then spoke on the subject of peace, for to that theme men willingly recur: nature never formed them to destroy each other. He confessed that he was heartily tired of the fatigues of war, and wished to live in tranquillity. "I believe you sincerely," I said, "but peace appears to me still at a distance; your government, which at one time proposed reasonable terms, now seems bent on the ruin of my country, and sows among us the seeds of dissension and civil war. Your general brings in his train, men who call themselves French princes, but who are in fact unknown to us, and whom we have resolved never to acknowledge. We must therefore, I am afraid, renounce all hope of peace." We drank to the health of each other, and parted with a mutual promise, that if by chance we should again meet, we should recall to each other's recollection our singular interview on the field of battle of Toulouse."—*Precis Historique*, &c. par A. Carel, p. 218.

ness and infirmity; in consequence of which, his brother, the Count d'Artois, was appointed lieutenant-general of France, and requested immediately to repair to the capital from Vesoul. On the 12th of April, his royal highness made his public entry into Paris, surrounded by several of the great officers of the state, and attended by a group of French marshals. The enthusiasm with which the French people had now become animated, was rapidly communicated to the Russian, Austrian, Prussian, English, Spanish, and Portuguese officers assembled in the church of Notre Dame; and it appeared as if all Europe, represented by a deputation of warriors, swore on the altar, at the festival of the restoration, to maintain that peace which had been so happily and unexpectedly restored.

The cause of Napoleon was for the present entirely lost: the emblems of his government disappeared, and his army was rapidly melting away. The regency at Blois, astonished at the rapid progress of the restoration, and overpowered by the intelligence of the emperor's abdication, was suddenly dissolved; and the Empress Maria Louisa and her son, placing themselves under the protection of Prince Esterhazy, retired first into Switzerland, and afterwards to that paternal residence from which, four years before, she had withdrawn, under the combined influence of the blandishments of imperial splendour, and the dictates of filial obedience.

Napoleon, who, in the plenitude of his power, had commanded five hundred thousand warriors, and held all Europe in awe, now found himself at Fontainebleau, with no troops except his guards, and those reduced to two or three thousand men. The shock of his sudden overthrow had produced an attack of catalepsy,* a disorder to which he was subject, and his departure for the Island of Elba was in consequence delayed. His indisposition was not so severe as to prevent him from daily reading the Paris journals; but instead of those extravagant eulogiums, of which for fifteen years he had been the object, he now found his conduct canvassed with freedom, and frequently censured with a spirit that awakened his fury, and called down his menace; but speedily recollecting that he was no longer the formidable Napoleon, he exclaimed—"Had any one

* A disease in which the senses and the power of voluntary motion are suddenly suspended, the body and limbs of the patient remaining unmoved in the situation in which they happen to be at the moment of attack, and readily receiving and retaining any position which is communicated to them by external force.

told me, three years ago, one-hundredth part of the truths I now hear, I should still have been upon the throne of France."—What a reflection on the dastardly and servile flatterers of princes!—During his reverse of fortune, he still preserved his adventurous character, and prepared himself for the last scene of his expiring power. Assembling his guards, he placed them in review, and with an emotion that could ill be suppressed, he thus addressed them ;—

"Generals, officers, and soldiers of my guard, I bid you farewell. I am satisfied with you. For twenty years, I have always found you in the path of glory. The allied powers have armed all Europe against me ; part of the troops have betrayed their duty, and France herself wishes for another dynasty. With you and the other brave men who have remained faithful to me, I could maintain a civil war for three years ; but this would be a misfortune to France, and as such, is contrary to the object I have ever had in view. Be faithful to the new king which France has chosen ; and do not abandon this dear country, which has been so long unhappy. Lament not my fate ; I shall be always happy when I know that you are so. I might have died—nothing would have been easier for me ; but I will continue in the path of honour. I will write the history of our achievements. I cannot embrace you all, but I embrace your general. Bring me the eagle. Dear eagle ! may these kisses resound in the hearts of all my brave soldiers. Adieu, my children !"

On the 20th of April, at noon, Napoleon departed from Fontainebleau for Elba, accompanied by Generals Bertrand and Drouet, who retired with him to that island. The exiles were escorted on their journey by four superior officers,* acting as commissioners to the allied powers, together with one hundred and fifty foreign troops, supported by detachments placed at a distance from each other.

To accomplish the great work of a general peace, the allied sovereigns of the continent assembled at Paris. The Emperor of Austria, who had hitherto remained at Dijon, made his entry into the French capital in great state on the 15th of April, and was received by the Emperor Alexander, the King of Prussia, and his royal highness the Count d'Artois. On the 23d, a convention was signed between the allied powers and France, by which it was agreed that hostilities should every where cease ; and that the allied armies should evacuate the French territory in fourteen days from that date ; the boundary line to be observed being that which constituted the limits of France on the 1st of January, 1792. Fifteen days were allowed for mutual evacuations in Piedmont, and twenty

days in Spain ; the fleets were to remain in their then present stations, but all blockades were declared to be raised, and the fisheries and the coasting trade were permitted. By this convention, all prisoners were mutually and immediately liberated, and sent to their respective countries.

The health of Louis XVIII. was sufficiently restored on the 20th of April to enable him to repair from Hartwell to London, and his reception in the British metropolis was little inferior to that which awaited him in his own. The prince-regent, who ranked among the warmest friends to the restoration, went out to meet the future sovereign of France, and the inhabitants of London, and indeed of every part of the kingdom, participated largely in the feelings of their prince.

On the 2d of May, the French king arrived at the castle of St. Ouen, a royal residence in the vicinity of Paris, where the members of the provisional council were admitted to an audience, and on which occasion the following declaration was issued :—

"Louis, by the grace of God, King of France and Navarre, to all whom these presents shall concern, health !

"Recalled by the love of our people to the throne of our fathers, and guided as to our conduct by the misfortunes of the nation which we are destined to govern, our first idea is to invoke that mutual confidence, so necessary to our repose, and the happiness of France.

"After having attentively read the plan of constitution proposed by the senate at its sitting of the 6th of April last, we are convinced that the bases of it are good, but that a great number of articles bearing the stamp of the precipitation with which they have been framed, cannot, in their present form, become fundamental laws of the state.

"Being resolved to adopt a liberal constitution, wishing that it may be sagely combined, and not being able to accept one which it is indispensable to rectify, we convoked, for the 10th of June, in the present year, the senate and legislative corps, engaging that we will then submit to them the result of our labours, with a committee chosen from the members of these two bodies, and that the constitution shall be founded on the following bases :—

"The representative government shall be maintained as it exists at this day, and shall be divided into two bodies, the senate and the chamber of deputies from the departments.

"The taxes shall be freely assented to.

"Public and individual liberty shall be secured.

"The liberty of the press shall be respected, subject to such precautions as are necessary to ensure public tranquillity.

"Religious liberty shall be guaranteed.

"Property shall be sacred and inviolable ; the sale of national effects shall be irrevocable.

"The ministers, who shall be responsible for the measures of government, may be arraigned by one legislative chamber, and judged by the other.

"The judges shall hold their offices for life ; and their judicial power shall be independent.

"The public debt shall be guaranteed

* Colonel Campbell, (English ; General Schuwalow, (Russian ; General de Koller, (Austrian ; and General Valdeburgh Fruchels, (Prussian.)

"The pensions, degrees and military honours, shall be preserved, as well as the ancient and new nobility.

"The legion of honour shall be retained, and we will fix the decoration of it.

"Every Frenchman shall be admissible to civil and military employments.

"No individual shall be disturbed for his opinions and votes.

"Given at St. Ouen, the 2d of May, 1814.

"Louis."

Accompanied by the acclamations of the people from the frontiers of his kingdom to the gates of his capital, the impatiently expected monarch made his solemn entry on the 3d of May. The procession was headed by the marshals of France, the generals of the army, and all the officers of the court; accompanied by the national guards, and by detachments of the regular army. The king, dressed in a general's blue uniform, appeared in an open carriage, drawn by eight horses; on his left was placed the august daughter of Louis XVI.; opposite to them were the Prince of Conde, and his son, Duke of Bourbon; and Monsieur, and his son, the Duke of Berri, mounted on their chargers, took the right and left of the carriage. The procession entered the city amidst the reiterated shouts of the populace, and peals of artillery. All the windows in the streets through which they passed, up to the roofs, were filled with spectators, and the king saluted the crowd with the most gracious condescension and benignity. On entering the gates of Notre Dame, the royal personages were saluted by the thousand times repeated cry of "*Vive le Roi!*" The king alighted at the gate of the cathedral, and after receiving the holy water and incense, was addressed by the vicar-general in the name of the chapter:—"On entering my good city of Paris," said his majesty in reply, "my first object was to thank God and his blessed mother, the almighty protectress of France, for the miracles which have terminated my misfortunes. I am a son of St. Louis, and will imitate his virtues." At the close of the ceremony the king repaired to the palace of the Tuilleries, and in presenting himself to the countless multitude assembled under the windows of his palace, he laid one hand on his heart, and raised the other towards heaven, as if to express, by a single gesture, that the acknowledgment which he owed to God, he would manifest by his love to his people.

As the stability of the new government depended in a great degree on the adherence of the French marshals, and of the army, over which they had a powerful influence, their sentiments on the counter-revolution were anxiously looked for.

Most of them were not slow in offering the incense of their adhesion at the shrine of power; and if they had simply contented themselves with expressing their fidelity to their new sovereign, and their hope that by his restoration peace would be secured to France and to Europe, no blame could have been attached to them; but many of them, in their acts of adhesion, indulged in the most violent and outrageous language against Napoleon—language which, however well warranted by his conduct, ill became men who had been the instruments of his ambition, and had largely partaken in the honours and emoluments which his successful career had enabled him to show down upon his followers. Of the number of *girouettes*, Marshal Augereau, the Duke of Castiglione, held the most distinguished rank; and his subsequent conduct sufficiently proved how little reliance is to be placed upon that spurious loyalty which has for its basis a compound of ingratitude and apostasy. "Soldiers!" said the marshal, in his proclamation to the army, "you are freed from your oaths; you are freed by the nation, in whom the sovereignty resides; you are freed also, if this were necessary, by the abdication of a man, who, after sacrificing millions of victims to his cruel ambition, had not the heart to die like a soldier."*

The convention signed between the allied powers and the French government on the 23d of April, was the precursor of a more comprehensive and specific arrangement; and on the 30th of May a definitive treaty of peace between his Britannic majesty and his most Christian majesty Louis XVIII. was signed at Paris, of which the subjoined copy is a faithful transcript:—

DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE,

Concluded at Paris on the 30th day of May, 1814.

"In the name of the most Holy and Undivided Trinity. His majesty the King of the united Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his allies, on the one part; and his majesty the King of France and of Navarre, on the other part; animated by an equal desire to terminate the long agitations of Europe, and the sufferings of mankind, by a permanent peace, founded upon a just repartition of force between its states, and containing in its stipulations the pledge of its durability; and his Britannic majesty, together with his allies, being unwilling to require of France, now that, replaced under the paternal government of her kings, she offers the assurance of security and stability to Europe, the conditions and guarantees which they had with regret demanded from her former government, their said majesties have named plenipotentiaries to discuss, settle, and sign a treaty of peace and amity; namely,

* Proclamation of Marshal Augereau to his army, dated Valence, April 16, 1814.

His majesty the King of the united Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, the Right Honourable Robert Stewart, Viscount Castlereagh, his principal secretary of state for foreign affairs, &c. &c. &c. the Right Honourable George Gordon, Earl of Aberdeen, his ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to his imperial and royal apostolic majesty; the Right Honourable William Shaw Cathcart, Viscount Cathcart, his ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to his majesty the Emperor of all the Russias; and the Honourable Sir Charles William Stewart, his envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to his majesty the King of Prussia; and his majesty the King of France and Navarre, Charles Maurice de Talleyrand Perigord, Prince of Benevente, his said majesty's minister and secretary of state for foreign affairs; who, having exchanged their full powers, found in good and due form, have agreed upon the following articles:

ART. I.—There shall be from this day forward perpetual peace and friendship between his Britannic majesty and his allies on the one part, and his majesty the King of France and Navarre on the other, their heirs and successors, their dominions and subjects respectively.

The high contracting parties shall devote their best attention to maintain, not only between themselves, but, inasmuch as depends upon them, between all the states of Europe, that harmony and good understanding which are so necessary for their tranquillity.

II.—The kingdom of France retains its limits entire, as they existed on the 1st of January, 1792. It shall farther receive the increase of territory comprised within the line established by the following article:

III.—On the side of Belgium, Germany, and Italy, the ancient frontiers shall be re-established as they existed on the 1st of January, 1792, extending from the North Sea, between Dunkirk and Nieuport to the Mediterranean, between Cagnes and Nice, with the following modifications:—

1.—In the department of Jemappes, the cantons of Dour, Merbes-le-Chateau, Beaumont, and Chimay, shall belong to France; where the line of demarkation comes in contact with the canton of Dour, it shall pass between that canton and those of Euseau and Paturage, and likewise further on it shall pass between the canton of Merbes-le-Chateau, and those of Binck and Thuin.

2.—In the department of the Sambre and Meuse, the cantons of Walcourt, Florennes, Beauring, and Gedinne, shall belong to France; where the demarkation reaches that department, it shall follow the line which separates the cantons from the department of Jemappes, and from the remaining cantons of the department of Sambre and Meuse.

3.—In the department of the Moselle, the new demarkation, at the point where it diverges from the old line of frontier, shall be formed by a line to be drawn from Perle to Fremersdorff, and by the limit which separates the canton of Tholey from the remaining cantons of the said department of the Moselle.

4.—In the department of La Sarre, the cantons of Saarbruck and Arneval shall continue to belong to France, as likewise the portion of the canton of Lebach which is situated to the south of a line drawn along the confines of the villages of Herchenbach, Ueberhofen, Hilsbach, and Hall, (leaving these different places out of the French frontier,) to the point where, in the neighbourhood of Querselle, (which place belongs to France,) the

line which separates the cantons of Arneval and Ottweiler reaches that which separates the cantons of Arneval and Lebach. The frontier on this side shall be formed by the line above described, and afterwards by that which separates the canton of Arneval from that of Bliescastel.

5.—The fortress of Landau having, before the year 1792, formed an insulated point in Germany, France retains beyond her frontiers a portion of the departments of Mount Tonnerre and of the Lower Rhine, for the purpose of uniting the said fortress and its radius to the rest of the kingdom.

The new demarkation from the point in the neighbourhood of Obersteinbach, (which place is left out of the limits of France,) where the boundary between the department of the Moselle and that of Mount Tonnerre reaches the department of the Lower Rhine, shall follow the line which separates the cantons of Weissenbourg and Bergzabern (on the side of France) from the cantons of Pirmasens, Dahn, and Annweiler, (on the side of Germany,) as far as the point near the village of Volmerheim where that line touches the ancient radius of the fortress of Landau. From this radius, which remains as it was in 1792, the new frontier shall follow the arm of the river de la Queich, which on leaving the said radius at Quiechheim (that place remaining to France,) flows near the villages of Merlenheim, Knittelsheim, and Belheim (these places also belonging to France) to the Rhine, which from thence shall continue to form the boundary of France and Germany.

The main stream (Thalweg) of the Rhine, shall constitute the frontier; provided, however, that the changes which may hereafter take place in the course of that river shall not affect the property of the islands. The right of possession in these islands shall be re-established as it existed at the signature of the treaty of Luneville.

6.—In the department of the Doubs, the frontier shall be so regulated as to commence above the Rancônière, near Locle, and follow the crest of Jura between the Cerneux, Pequignot, and the village of Fontenelles, as far as the peak of that mountain, situated about seven or eight thousand feet to the north-west of the village of La Brevins, where it shall again fall in with the ancient boundary of France.

7.—In the department of the Leman, the frontiers between the French territory, the Pays de Vaud, and the different portions of the territory of the republic of Geneva, (which is to form part of Switzerland,) remain as they were before the incorporation of Geneva with France. But the cantons of Frangy and of St. Julien, (with the exception of the districts situated to the north of a line drawn from the point where the river La Loire enters the territory of Geneva, near Chancy, following the confines of Sesequin, Laconer, and Seceuvre, which shall remain out of the limits of France,) the canton of Reignier, with the exception of the portion to the east of a line which follows the confines of the Muraz, Bussey, Pers, and Cornier, (which shall be out of the French limits,) and the canton of La Roche (with the exception of the places La Roche and Armanoy, with their districts) shall remain to France. The frontier shall follow the limits of these different cantons, and the line which separates the districts continuing to belong to France, from those which she does not retain.

In the department of Montblanc, France acquires the sub-prefecture of Cambery, with the exception of the cantons of L'Hospital, St. Pierre d'Albigny, la Rocette, and Montmelian, and the sub-prefecture of Annecy, with the exception of the portion of the canton of Faverges, situated to

the east of a line passing between Ourechaise and Marlens on the side of France, and Marthod and Ugine on the opposite side, and which afterwards follows the crest of the mountains as far as the frontier of the canton of Thoues; this line, together with the limit of the cantons before mentioned, shall on this side form the new frontier.

On the side of the Pyrenees, the frontiers between the two kingdoms of France and Spain remain such as they were on the 1st of January, 1792, and a joint commission shall be named on the part of the two crowns for the purpose of finally determining the line.

France on her part renounces all right of sovereignty (*suzeraineté*) and of possession over all the countries, districts, towns, and places, situated beyond the frontier described, the principality of Monaco being replaced on the same footing on which it stood before the 1st of January, 1792.

The allied powers assure to France the possession of the principality of Avignon, of the Comptat Venaissien, of the Comté of Montbeilliard, together with the several insulated territories which formerly belonged to Germany, comprehended within the frontier above described, whether they have been incorporated with France before or after the 1st of January, 1792. The powers reserve to themselves, reciprocally, the complete right to fortify any point in their respective states which they may judge necessary for their security.

To prevent all injury to property, and protect, according to the most liberal principles, the property of individuals domiciliated on the frontiers, there shall be named, by each of the states bordering on France, commissioners, who shall proceed, conjointly with French commissioners, to the delineation of the respective boundaries.

IV.—To secure the communications of the town of Geneva with other parts of the Swiss territory situated on the lake, France consents that the road by Versoy shall be common to the two countries. The respective governments shall amicably arrange the means for preventing smuggling, regulating the posts, and maintaining the said road.

V.—The navigation of the Rhine, from the point where it becomes navigable unto the sea, and vice versa, shall be free, so that it can be interdicted to no one:—and that at the future congress, attention shall be paid to the establishment of the principles according to which the duties to be raised by the states bordering on the Rhine may be regulated, in the mode the most impartial, and the most favourable to the commerce of all nations.

The future congress, with a view to facilitate the communications between nations, and continually to render them less strangers to each other, shall likewise examine and determine in what manner the above provision can be extended to other rivers, which, in their navigable course, separate or traverse different states.

VI.—Holland, placed under the sovereignty of the house of Orange, shall receive an increase of territory. The title and exercise of that sovereignty shall not in any case belong to a prince, wearing, or destined to wear a foreign crown.

The states of Germany shall be independent, and united by a federative bond.

Switzerland, independent, shall continue to govern herself.

Italy, beyond the limits of the countries which are to revert to Austria, shall be composed of sovereign states.

VII.—The island of Malta and its dependencies shall belong in full right and sovereignty to his Britannic majesty.

VIII.—His Britannic majesty stipulating for himself and his allies, engages to restore to his most Christian majesty, within the term which shall be hereafter fixed, the colonies, fisheries, factories, and establishments of every kind, which were possessed by France on the 1st of January, 1792, in the seas and on the continents of America, Africa, and Asia, with the exception however of the islands of Tobago and St. Lucie, and of the Isle of France and its dependencies, especially Rodrigues and Les Sechelles, which several colonies and possessions his most Christian majesty cedes in full right and sovereignty to his Britannic majesty, and also the portion of St. Domingo ceded to France by the treaty of Basle, and which his most Christian majesty restores in full right and sovereignty to his Catholic majesty.

IX.—His majesty the King of Sweden and Norway, in virtue of the arrangements stipulated with the allies, and in execution of the preceding article, consents that the island of Guadaloupe be restored to his most Christian majesty, and gives up all the rights he may have acquired over that island.

X.—Her most faithful majesty, in virtue of the arrangements stipulated with her allies, and in execution of the 8th article, engages to restore French Guyana as it existed on the 1st of January, 1792, to his most Christian majesty, within the term hereafter fixed.

The renewal of the dispute which existed at that period on the subject of the frontier, being the effect of this stipulation, it is agreed that the dispute shall be terminated by a friendly arrangement between the two courts, under the mediation of his Britannic majesty.

XI.—The places and forts in those colonies and settlements, which, by virtue of the 8th, 9th, and 10th articles, are to be restored to his most Christian majesty, shall be given up in the state in which they may be at the moment of the signature of the present treaty.

XII.—His Britannic majesty guarantees to the subjects of his most Christian majesty the same facilities, privileges, and protection, with respect to commerce, and the security of their persons and property within the limits of the British sovereignty on the continent of India, as are now or shall be granted to the most favoured nations.

His most Christian majesty, on his part, having nothing more at heart than the perpetual duration of peace between the two crowns of England and of France, and wishing to do his utmost to avoid any thing which might affect their mutual good understanding, engages not to erect any fortifications in the establishments, which are to be restored to him within the limits of the British sovereignty upon the continent of India, and only to place in those establishments the number of troops necessary for the maintenance of the police.

XIII.—The French right of fishery upon the bank of Newfoundland, upon the coasts of the island of that name, and of the adjacent islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, shall be replaced upon the footing in which it stood in 1792.

XIV.—Those colonies, factories, and establishments, which are to be restored to his most Christian majesty by his Britannic majesty or his allies in the Northern seas, or in the seas on the continents of America and Africa, shall be given up within three months; and those which are beyond the Cape of Good Hope within the six months which follow the ratification of the present treaty.

XV.—The high contracting parties having, by the 4th article of the convention of the 23d of

April last, reserved to themselves the right of disposing, in the present definitive treaty of peace, of the arsenals and ships of war, armed and unarmed, which may be found in the maritime places restored by the second article of the said convention; it is agreed, that the said vessels and ships of war, armed and unarmed, together with the naval ordnance and naval stores, and all materials for building and equipment, shall be divided between France and the countries where the said places are situated, in the proportion of two-thirds for France, and one-third for the power to whom the said places shall belong. The ships and vessels on the stocks, which shall not be launched within six weeks after the signature of the present treaty, shall be considered as materials, and after being broken up, shall be, as such, divided in the same proportions.

Commissioners shall be named on both sides, to settle the division and draw up a statement of the same, and passports or safe conducts shall be granted by the allied powers for the purpose of securing the return into France of the workmen, seamen, and others in the employment of France.

The vessels and arsenals existing in the maritime places which were already in the power of the allies before the 23d of April, and the vessels and arsenals which belonged to Holland, and especially the fleet in the Texel, are not comprised in the above stipulations.

The French government engages to withdraw, or cause to be sold, every thing which shall belong to it by the above stipulations, within the space of three months after the division shall have been carried into effect.

Antwerp shall for the future be solely a commercial port.

XVI.—The high contracting parties, desirous to bury in entire oblivion the dissensions which have agitated Europe, declare and promise, that no individual, of whatever rank or condition he may be, in the countries restored and ceded by the present treaty, shall be prosecuted, disturbed, or molested, in his person or property, under any pretext whatsoever, either on account of his conduct or political opinions, his attachment either to any of the contracting parties, or to any government which has ceased to exist, or for any other reason, except for debts contracted towards individuals, or acts posterior to the date of the present treaty.

XVII.—The native inhabitants and aliens, of whatever nation or condition they may be, in those countries which are to change sovereigns, as well in virtue of the present treaty as of the subsequent arrangements to which it may give rise, shall be allowed a period of six years, reckoning from the exchange of the ratifications, for the purpose of disposing of their property, if they think fit, whether it be acquired before or during the present war; and retiring to whatever country they may choose.

XVIII.—The allied powers desiring to offer his most Christian majesty a new proof of their anxiety to arrest, as far as in them lies, the bad consequences of the disastrous epoch terminated by the present peace, renounce all the sums which their governments claim from France, whether on account of contracts, supplies, or any other advances whatsoever to the French governments, during the different wars that have taken place since 1792.

His most Christian majesty, on his part, renounces every claim which he might bring forward against the allied powers on the same grounds. In execution of this article, the high contracting parties engage reciprocally to deliver up

all titles, obligations, and documents, which relate to the debts they may have mutually cancelled.

XIX.—The French government engages to liquidate and pay all debts it may be found to owe in countries beyond its own territory, on account of contracts, or other formal engagements between individuals, or private establishments, and the French authorities, as well for supplies, as in satisfaction of legal engagements.

XX.—The high contracting parties, immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, shall name commissioners to direct and superintend the execution of the whole of the stipulations contained in the 18th and 19th articles. These commissioners shall undertake the examination of the claims referred to in the preceding article, the liquidation of the sums claimed, and the consideration of the manner in which the French government may propose to pay them. They shall also be charged with the delivery of the titles, bonds, and the documents relating to the debts which the high contracting parties mutually cancel, so that the approval of the result of their labours shall complete that reciprocal renunciation.

XXI.—The debts which in their origin were specially mortgaged upon the countries no longer belonging to France, or were contracted for the support of their internal administration, shall remain at the charge of the said countries. Such of those debts as have been converted into inscriptions in the great book of the public debt of France, shall accordingly be accounted for with the French government after the 22d of December, 1813.

The deeds of all those debts which have been prepared for inscription, and have not yet been entered, shall be delivered to the governments of the respective countries. The statement of all these debts shall be drawn up and settled by a joint commission.

XXII.—The French government shall remain charged with the reimbursement of all sums paid by the subjects of the said countries into the French coffers, whether under the denomination of surety, deposit, or consignment.

In like manner, all French subjects employed in the service of the said countries, who have paid sums under the denomination of surety, deposit, or consignment, into their respective coffers, shall be faithfully reimbursed.

XXIII.—The functionaries holding situations requiring securities, who are not charged with the expenditure of public money, shall be reimbursed at Paris, with the interest, by fifths and by the year, dated from the signature of the present treaty. With respect to those who are unaccountable, this reimbursement shall commence, at the latest, six months after the presentation of their accounts, except only in cases of malversation. A copy of the last account shall be transmitted to the government of their countries, to serve for their information and guidance.

XXIV.—The judicial deposits and consignments upon the "*caisse d'amortissement*," in the execution of the law of 28 Nivose, year 13, (18th of January, 1805,) and which belong to the inhabitants of the countries which France ceases to possess, shall, within the space of one year from the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, be placed in the hands of the authorities of the said countries, with the exception of those deposits and consignments interesting French subjects, which last will remain in the "*caisse d'amortissement*," and will be given up only on the production of the vouchers, resulting from the decisions of competent authorities.

XXV.—The funds deposited by the corporations and public establishments in the "*caisse de service*" and in the "*caisse d'amortissement*," or other "*caisse*" of the French government, shall be reimbursed by fifths, payable from year to year, to commence from the date of the present treaty; deducting the advances which have taken place, and subject to such regular charges as may have been brought forward against these funds by the creditors of the said corporations, and the public establishments.

XXVI.—From the 1st day of January, 1814, the French government shall cease to be charged with the payment of pensions, civil, military, and ecclesiastical, pensions for retirement, and allowances for reduction, to any individual who shall cease to be a French subject.

XXVII.—National domains acquired for valuable considerations by French subjects in the late departments of Belgium, and of the left bank of the Rhine, and the Alps, beyond the ancient limits of France, and which now cease to belong to her, shall be guaranteed to the purchasers.

XXVIII.—The abolition of the "*droits d'Aubaine*," "*de Detraction*," and other duties of the same nature, in the countries which have reciprocally made that stipulation with France, or which have been formerly incorporated, shall be expressly maintained.

XXIX.—The French government engages to restore all bonds, and other deeds, which may have been seized in the provinces occupied by the French armies or administrations; and in cases where such restitution cannot be effected, these bonds and deeds become and continue void.

XXX.—The sums which shall be due for all works of public utility not yet finished, or finished after the 31st of December, 1812, whether on the Rhine, or in the departments detached from France by the present treaty, shall be placed to the account of the future possessors of the territory, and shall be paid by the commission charged with the liquidation of the debts of that country.

XXXI.—All archives, maps, plans, and documents whatever, belonging to the ceded countries, or respecting their administration, shall be faithfully given up at the same time with the said countries: or if that should be impossible, within a period not exceeding six months after the cession of the countries themselves.

This stipulation applies to the archives, maps, and plates, which may have been carried away from the countries during their temporary occupation by the different armies.

XXXII.—All the powers engaged on either side in the present war shall, within the space of two months, send plenipotentiaries to Vienna, for the purpose of regulating, in general congress, the arrangements which are to complete the provisions of the present treaty.

XXXIII.—The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged within the period of fifteen days, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed and affixed to it the seals of their arms.

Done at Paris, the 30th of May, in the year of our Lord 1814.

(L. S.) LE PRINCE DE BENEVENT.

(L. S.) CASTLEREAGH.

(L. S.) ABERDEEN.

(L. S.) CATHCART.

(L. S.) CHARLES STEWART, Lieut.-general.

ADDITIONAL ARTICLES.

I.—His most Christian majesty, concurring without reserve in the sentiments of his Britannic

majesty, with respect to a description of traffic repugnant to the principles of natural justice and of the enlightened age in which we live, engages to unite all his efforts to those of his Britannic majesty, at the approaching congress, to induce all the powers of Christendom to decree the abolition of the slave-trade, so that the said trade shall cease universally, as it shall cease definitively, under any circumstances, on the part of the French government, in the course of five years; and that during the said period, no slave merchant shall import or sell slaves, except in the colonies of the state of which he is a subject.

II.—The British and French governments shall name, without delay, commissioners to liquidate the accounts of their respective expenses for the maintenance of prisoners of war, in order to determine the manner of paying the balance which shall appear in favour of the one or the other of the two powers.

III.—The respective prisoners of war, before their departure from the place of their detention, shall be obliged to discharge the private debts they may have contracted, or shall at least give sufficient security for the amount.

IV.—Immediately after the ratification of the present treaty of peace, the sequestrations which since the year 1792 (one thousand seven hundred and ninety-two) may have been laid on the funds, revenues, debts, or any other effects of the high contracting parties or their subjects, shall be taken off.

The commissioners mentioned in the 2d article shall undertake the examination of the claims of his Britannic majesty's subjects upon the French government, for the value of the property, moveable or immovable, illegally confiscated by the French authorities, as also for the total or partial loss of their debts or other property, illegally detained, under sequestration since the year 1792, (one thousand seven hundred and ninety-two.)

France engages to act towards British subjects in this respect, in the same spirit of justice which the French subjects have experienced in Great Britain: and his Britannic majesty, desiring to concur in the new pledge which the allied powers have given to his most Christian majesty, of their desire to obliterate every trace of that disastrous epoch, so happily terminated by the present peace, engages on his part, when complete justice shall be rendered to his subjects, to renounce the whole amount of the balance which shall appear in his favour for the support of prisoners of war, so that the ratification of the report of the above commissioners, and the discharge of the sums due to British subjects, as well as the restitution of the effects which shall be proved to belong to them, shall complete the renunciation.

V.—The two high contracting parties, desiring to establish the most friendly relations between their respective subjects, reserve to themselves, and promise to come to a mutual understanding and arrangement, as soon as possible, upon their commercial interests, with the view of encouraging and increasing the prosperity of their respective states.

The present articles shall have the same force and validity as if they were inserted word for word in the treaty patent of this day. They shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at the same time.

Dated and signed as above.

At the same time the same definitive treaty of peace was concluded between France and Austria, Russia, and Prussia, respectively; and signed, on the part of the former by the Prince of Benevento.

for Austria by Prince Metternich and Count Stadion, for Russia by Count Rasumoffsky and Count Neesselrode, and for Prussia by Baron Hardenburg and Baron Humboldt; with the following additional articles:—

TO THE TREATY WITH AUSTRIA.

The high contracting parties, wishing to efface all traces of the unfortunate events which have oppressed their people, have agreed to annul explicitly the effects of the treaties of 1805 and 1809, as far as they are not already annulled by the present treaty. In consequence of this determination, his most Christian majesty promises, that the decrees passed against French subjects, or reputed French subjects, being or having been in the service of his imperial, royal, and apostolic majesty, shall remain without effect; as also the judgments which may have been given in execution of these decrees.

TO THE TREATY WITH RUSSIA.

The duchy of Warsaw, being under the administration of a provisional council established in Russia, since that country has been occupied by her armies, the two high contracting parties have

agreed to appoint immediately a special commission, composed of an equal number of members on either side, who shall be charged with the examination, liquidation, and all the arrangement relative to the reciprocal claims.

TO THE TREATY WITH PRUSSIA.

Though the treaty of peace concluded at Basle, on the 8th of April, 1795; that of Tilint, on the 9th of July, 1807; the convention of Paris, of the 20th of September, 1808; as well as all the conventions and acts whatsoever, concluded since the peace of Basle between Prussia and France, are already virtually annulled by the present treaty, the high contracting powers have nevertheless thought fit to declare expressly that the treaties cease to be obligatory for all their articles, both patent and secret, and that they mutually renounce all right, and release themselves from all obligation which might result from them.

His most Christian majesty promises that the decrees issued against French subjects, or reputed Frenchmen, being, or having been in the service of his Prussian majesty, shall be of no effect, as well as the judgments which may have been passed in execution of those decrees.

CHAPTER XXVI.

BRITISH HISTORY: Meeting of Parliament—Inquiry regarding the Cession of Norway to Sweden—Address to the Prince-regent moved by Mr. Wilberforce—Honours conferred upon the Duke of Wellington—Takes his Seat in the House of Peers—His reception in the House of Commons—The Corn Bill—Fresh Indignities offered to the Princess of Wales—Discussions in Parliament on this subject—Proposed Marriage between the Princess Charlotte of Wales and the Prince of Orange—The proposed Alliance broken off—The Princess of Wales leaves the Kingdom—Imperial and Royal Visit to England—Case of Lord Cochrane—Finances—State of Ireland—Congratulatory Address to the Prince-regent on the Restoration of Peace—Prorogation of Parliament.

THE parliament of Great Britain, which assembled in the winter of 1813, principally for the purpose of voting those supplies by which the overthrow of the French empire under the Napoleon dynasty was essentially promoted, adjourned on the 20th of December, and was not re-assembled till the 21st of March in the following year, when the negotiations at Chatillon had failed, and when the allied armies were within a few days' march of their ultimate destination. Money was still wanted; and the first business of importance brought before the house of commons was a motion made by the chancellor of the exchequer, for a grant of two millions on account of the army extraordinaries, making, with three millions before voted, the sum of five millions. This grant, he stated, was much less than the sum that would be required for the current year; but, as the necessities of the state were urgent, it was deemed expedient to propose the present grant thus early, and to wait the development of events, in order to regulate the amount of the further supply.

While the momentous occurrences, which took place in the month of April, were

passing in rapid succession before an astonished world, the attention of the people of England was almost entirely absorbed by those public demonstrations of joy which prevailed in every city, town, and village of the empire; and the members of both houses of parliament partook so largely of the public exhilaration, that the business of parliament was for some time suspended.

The treaty between Sweden and Denmark, by which the kingdom of Norway was transferred to Sweden, under the guarantee of Great Britain, without the consent, and, as it now appeared, against the will of the Norwegians, detracted from the general satisfaction, and soon arrested the attention of parliament. On the 29th of April, Lord Liverpool stated, in answer to a question from Lord Holland, that in the cessation of hostilities between France and the allied powers, Norway was not included, but that, on the contrary orders had been given at the admiralty to take measures for the blockade of the ports of Norway. In effect, that the ports of Norway were to be blockaded by Great Britain, in order to compel the inhabitants of that country,

under the pressure of famine, to submit to unite themselves with a foreign power. Against a proceeding so abhorrent to the feelings of independence, a motion was made by Earl Gray in the house of lords, and by Mr. C. W. Wynne in the house of commons, for an address to the prince-regent, entreating that the blockade of Norway by a British force should be raised; but in both houses the motion was rejected, and the Norwegians, unable to withstand the combined efforts put forth to coerce them into submission, ultimately passed under the Swedish yoke.

At a time when the British cabinet and foreign governments were more closely drawn together, and more intimately connected than at any former period; when all the nations of Europe were about to revive their commercial relations with each other, and to study the elements of a lasting peace; Mr. Wilberforce, rising in his place in the house of commons,* said, it appeared to him that there was no better or more acceptable mode of expressing our gratitude to that Providence which had brought us in safety and triumph through all our dangers and trials, than to do what in us lay to diminish the mass of human suffering, by recommending the abolition of the slave-trade. When the present circumstances of Europe were taken into consideration, when it was considered what great provocations some of the allied powers had received from France, and what noble revenge they had taken, by returning benefits for injuries, and good for evil, he felt the most sanguine hopes, that when they were made thoroughly acquainted with the nature of this horrid traffic, they would consummate their noble conduct by joining heartily in this great act of justice and humanity. The slave-trade of France had been practically destroyed by the war, and therefore that country had nothing to give up in this respect. Spain was no longer in a situation to be afraid of adopting a measure that might give offence to the merchants of Cadiz; Portugal had signed an engagement with this country for the gradual abolition of the trade, but Portugal, he was sorry to say, still persisted in that shameful traffic; Sweden had already acquiesced in the proposition of our government; Denmark, much to its honour, had discontinued the trade for a long time; and America had declared against it. It would be a noble sequel to the glorious event which had just taken place in Europe, if a foundation were now laid for the future security, peace, and happiness of the inhabitants of Africa. He did not

think the present motion necessary for the purpose of reminding ministers of the subject, but his object was to strengthen their representations, by showing to all foreign powers, that in abolishing the slave-trade the British parliament had not acted from a mere transient fit of humanity and justice, but that they considered this as a subject of the most serious nature, and deserving of their unremitting attention. With these views, he should move that an humble address be presented to the prince-regent, beseeching him to interpose the good offices and interference of government with the allied powers on the continent, to induce them to aid and assist in this desirable and humane object, by discontinuing and forbidding the same in their respective domains. In these sentiments, both sides of the house expressed their cordial concurrence; but all that the unanimous declaration of the British parliament, seconded by numerous petitions from the people of England, could effect in the cause of humanity, was an engagement on the part of his most Christian majesty, "to unite all his efforts to those of his Britannic majesty, at the approaching congress, to induce all the powers of Christendom to decree the abolition of the slave-trade, so that the said trade shall cease universally, as it shall cease definitively, under any circumstances, on the part of the French government, in the course of five years."*

The distinguished services rendered by Field-marshal the Marquis of Wellington, were duly appreciated by his country; and on the 3d of May, the prince-regent, acting in the name and on the behalf of his majesty, conferred upon this illustrious chief the dignities of Duke and Marquis of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, by the style and title of Marquis Douro and Duke of Wellington in the county of Somerset. To support the dignity thus conferred upon duke, the sum of four hundred thousand pounds was voted to him by the unanimous consent of parliament, on the recommendation of the prince-regent, in a message presented to both houses on the 10th of the same month, which, added to the sum of one hundred thousand pounds voted on a further occasion, swelled the amount of the grants placed at the disposal of the duke to half a million sterling. Honours and emoluments were, at the same time, bestowed upon the duke's companions in arms: Sir John Hope was raised to the peerage under the title of Lord Niddry; Sir Sta-

* See Additional Articles to the Definitive Treaty of Peace between France and Great Britain, dated, May 30, 1814.—Vol. ii. book iv page 346.

* On the 3d of May.

pleton Cotton was created Lord Combermere; Sir Thomas Graham, Lord Lynedoch; Sir Rowland Hill, Lord Hill; and Sir William Beresford, Lord Beresford; and the dignities of Lords Lynedoch, Hill, and Beresford, were accompanied by a grant of two thousand per annum each.

In addition to the honours conferred upon the Duke of Wellington by his prince, and the pecuniary grants presented to his grace by the senate, both houses of parliament resolved to offer to the hero of their country the highest tribute of respect and applause that can be bestowed upon a subject. On the 28th of June, his grace took the oaths and his seat in the house of peers; on which occasion, the lord chancellor communicated to him the thanks of the house voted on the preceding day, observing, "that in the instance of his grace was to be seen the first and most honourable distinction of a member of that house being, at his first introduction, placed in the very highest and most distinguished rank among their lordships in the peerage."—These dignities, however, had not been bestowed lightly, but were the reward of unparalleled services, and merits, the nature and character of which would render the name of Wellington immortal. To these eulogiums, the duke modestly replied, that the successes which had attended his humble but zealous efforts in the service of his country, he had principally to attribute to the ample support which he had received from his prince, his government, and the country, and the zealous co-operation and assistance which he had received from his gallant and meritorious companions in arms.

That nothing might be wanted to fill up the measure of the Duke of Wellington's honours, the house of commons appointed a deputation of its members to congratulate him on his return to his country; and his grace in reply assured the members of the deputation, that it would afford him the highest pleasure to return his thanks in person to the commons of England for the honour they had conferred upon him.

Lord Castlereagh having reported from the committee the duke's answer, the 1st of July was appointed for the solemnity. At about a quarter before five o'clock on that day, the duke, dressed in his field-marshal's uniform, and decorated with his military orders, presented himself at the bar of the house, and bowing repeatedly and respectfully, all the members, uncovered, rose, and enthusiastically cheered his entrance. His grace then seated himself on a chair placed within the bar, and the members having resumed their seats,

he rose, and thus addressed the house through the usual medium:—

"MR. SPEAKER,—I was anxious to be permitted to attend this house, in order to return my thanks in person for the honour done me in deputation a committee of the house to congratulate me on my return to this country. After the house had animated my exertions by their applause, on every occasion that appeared to them to merit their approbation; and after they had recently been so liberal, in the bill by which they followed up the gracious favour of his royal highness the prince-regent, in conferring upon me the noblest gift a subject has ever received; I hope I shall not be thought presumptuous, if I take this opportunity of expressing my admiration of the great efforts made by this house, and by the country, at a moment of unexampled pressure and difficulty, in order to support, on a great scale, those operations, by which the contest in which we were engaged has been brought to so fortunate a conclusion. By the wise policy of parliament, government were enabled to give the necessary support to the operations carried on under my directions. The confidence reposed in me by his majesty's ministers, and by the commander-in-chief, the gracious favours conferred upon me by his royal highness the prince-regent, and the reliance I had on the support of my gallant friends the general officers, and the bravery of the officers and troops of the armies, encouraged me to carry on the operations in which I was engaged, in such a manner as to draw from this house those repeated marks of their approbation, for which I now return them my sincere thanks. Sir, it is impossible for me to express the gratitude I feel. I can only assure the house, that I shall always be ready to serve my king and country in any capacity in which my services may be considered useful or necessary, with the same zeal which has acquired me the approbation of this house."

Loud cheers accompanied the delivery of this speech; and at its close, the speaker rising, uncovered, thus addressed the Duke of Wellington:—

"MY LORD.—Since last I had the honour of addressing you from this place, a series of eventful years has elapsed; but none without some mark and note of your rising glory. The military triumphs which your valour has achieved, upon the banks of the Douro and the Tagus, on the Ebro and the Garonne, have called forth the spontaneous shouts of admiring nations. Those triumphs it is needless on this day to recount. Their names have been written by your conquering sword in the annals of Europe, and we shall hand them down with exultation to our children's children. It is not, however, the grandeur of military success which has alone fixed our admiration, or commanded our applause; it has been that generous and lofty spirit which inspired your troops with unbounded confidence, and taught them to know that the day of battle was always a day of victory; that moral courage and enduring fortitude, which in perilous times, when gloom and doubt had beset ordinary minds, stood nevertheless unshaken; and that ascendancy of character, which, uniting the energies of jealous and rival nations, enabled you to wield at will the fate and fortunes of mighty empires.

For the repeated thanks and grants bestowed upon you by this house, in gratitude for your

many and eminent services, you have thought fit this day to offer your acknowledgments; but this nation well knows that it is still largely your debtor. It owes to you the proud satisfaction, that amidst the constellation of illustrious warriors who have recently visited our country, we should present to them a leader of our own, to whom all, by common acclamation, conceded the pre-eminence; and when the will of Heaven, and the common destinies of our nature, shall have swept away the present generation, you will have left your great name an imperishable monument; exciting others to like deeds of glory—and serving at once to adorn, defend, and perpetuate the existence of this country among the ruling nations of the earth.

"It remains only that we congratulate your grace upon the high and important mission on which you are about to proceed,* and we doubt not, that the same splendid talents, so conspicuous in war, will maintain, with equal authority, firmness, and temper, our national honour and interests in peace."

The duke then took his leave, all the members rising and cheering him as he retired; and it was ordered in commemoration of the day when the house had had the happiness to witness within its walls the presence of a hero, never excelled at any period of the world, that the eloquent address of the speaker to the Duke of Wellington should be printed, and form a part of the annals of parliament.

Among the topics of parliamentary discussion during the present session, none excited so much general interest as the corn bill, the proceedings concerning which were the subject of much agitation in the country, and produced a vast number of petitions. In the year 1804, the corn laws were revised; and by an act passed in that year, the importation price of wheat was raised from fifty to sixty-three shillings per quarter; and the duty payable on importation, when wheat was at that price or higher, was two shillings and sixpence per quarter. By the same law, the exportation price of wheat was advanced from forty-four to forty-eight shillings per quarter, and the duty payable on wheat exported at that price was continued at five shillings per quarter. In the session of 1812-13 a committee was appointed to inquire into the state of the corn laws, which had remained unaltered since the year 1804; and this committee, which consisted principally of members connected with Ireland, drew up a report relating rather to the agricultural state of that country, than to the general interests of the kingdom. On the 5th of May, in the present year, Sir Henry Parnell, the chairman of the corn committee of 1813, moved that the first of a series of resolutions prepared by him should be referred to a committee of the

whole house; this resolution, which regarded only the exportation of corn, stated it to be "expedient that the exportation of corn, grain, meal, malt, and flour, from any part of the united kingdom, should be permitted at all times, without the payment of any duty, and without receiving any bounty whatever." This resolution being carried, a second was proposed, to the effect, "that the several duties now payable in respect to all corn, grain, meal, and flour, imported into the united kingdom, shall cease and determine, and the several duties in a schedule to be agreed upon shall be paid in lieu thereof." The schedule, after some emendations, fixed the duty for the importation of wheat at twenty-four shillings per quarter, when the average price in this country was at or under sixty-three shillings per quarter; but when the price in England was eighty-six shillings or upwards, the duty, which was gradually decreased up to that sum, was wholly to cease. Wheat imported from the British colonies in North America, was chargeable with only half the duty; and a similar scale was formed for other grain. The third resolution, which, like the first and second, passed the committee, provided, "that all foreign corn, grain, meal, and flour, should be imported and warehoused free of all duty, until taken out for home consumption; and should at all times be exported free from all duty."

In a subsequent state of this discussion, it was determined to consider the subject of the exportation of corn separate from the duties regarding the importation; and a separate bill for allowing the free exportation of grain without duty or bounty, founded on the first resolution moved by Sir Henry Parnell, was prepared and passed into a law without any material opposition.

The other resolutions were doomed in their progress to encounter a very animated opposition, both in and out of parliament; and on the 6th of June it was determined, on the motion of the chancellor of the exchequer, in consideration of the number of petitions which had been presented against the proposed alteration in the corn-laws, that the petitions should be referred to the consideration of a select committee. This motion, which involved a postponement of the further consideration of the subject to the next session of parliament, was carried by a large majority, and the further consideration of the report of the committee of the preceding year, was deferred to that day six months.

In the upper house of parliament, where the corn exportation bill had passed with as much facility as in the commons, a com-

* As ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to the court of France.

mittee was also formed for inquiry into the state of the corn-laws; this committee, of which the Earl of Hardwicke was the chairman, brought up their report on the eve of the prorogation of parliament, stating, that the time had not been sufficient to justify the committee in coming to any final decision on the subject, and recommending that another committee should be appointed early in the next session of parliament.

The interest in the public mind, which was so strongly roused in the year 1813 by the vindictive and unmerited persecution pursued towards the Princess of Wales, had begun to subside, when an interdiction issued by the prince against the appearance of his royal consort at the queen's drawing-room again called into exercise the national sympathies in favour of her royal highness. A short time before the arrival of the royal visitors, by whose presence this country was honoured in the summer of the year 1814, and when, of course, it was to be expected that the levees and the drawing-rooms would be particularly splendid, the Princess of Wales received a letter from the queen,* acquainting her royal highness, "that she had received a communication from her son the prince-regent, in which he states, that her majesty's intention of holding two drawing-rooms in the ensuing month having been notified to the public, he must declare that he considers that his own presence at her court cannot be dispensed with, and that he desires it may be distinctly understood, for reasons of which he alone can be the judge, to be his fixed and unalterable determination not to meet the Princess of Wales upon any occasion, either in public, or in private." The queen, in conclusion, states, that she is thus placed under the painful necessity of intimating to the Princess of Wales the impossibility of her majesty's receiving her royal highness at her drawing-rooms.

To this cruel intimation, the Princess of Wales replied in a letter to the queen,† "that though she could not so far forget her duty to her king and to herself as to surrender her right to appear at any public drawing-room to be held by her majesty, yet that she might not add to the difficulty and uneasiness of her majesty's situation, she should in the present instance yield to the will of his royal highness the prince-regent, and should not present herself at the drawing-rooms of the next month." But lest it should be by possibility supposed, that the resolution of the prince-regent never to meet the princess, his wife, upon any occasion,

either in public or in private, conveyed an insinuation from which she shrunk, the princess addressed a letter to the prince,* demanding to know what circumstances could justify the proceeding which he thus thought fit to adopt. "I owe it," said she, "to myself, to my daughter, and to the nation, to which I am indebted for the vindication of my honour, to remind your royal highness of what you know, that, after open persecution and mysterious inquiries, upon undefined charges, the malice of my enemies fell entirely upon themselves; and that I was restored by the king, with the advice of his ministers, to the full enjoyment of my rank in his court, upon my complete acquittal: since his majesty's lamented illness, I have demanded, in the face of parliament and the country, to be proved guilty or to be treated as innocent; I have been declared, what I am—innocent: and I will not submit to be treated as guilty. Sir, you may possibly refuse to read this letter, but the world must know that I have written it, and they will see my real motives for foregoing, in this instance, the rights of my rank: occasions however may arise (one I trust is far distant) when I must appear in public, and your royal highness must be present also. Can your royal highness have contemplated the full extent of your declaration? Has your royal highness forgotten the approaching marriage of our daughter, and the possibility of our coronation? The time you have selected for this proceeding is calculated to make it peculiarly galling; many illustrious strangers are already arrived in England, among others, as I am informed, the illustrious heir of the house of Orange, who has announced himself to me as my future son-in-law; from their society, I am unjustly excluded; others are expected, of rank equal to your own, to rejoice with your royal highness in the peace of Europe: my daughter will, for the first time, appear in the splendour and publicity becoming the approaching nuptials of the presumptive heiress of this empire; this season your royal highness has chosen for treating me with fresh and unprovoked indignity, and of all his majesty's subjects, I alone am prevented, by your royal highness, from appearing in my place to partake of the general joy, and am deprived of the indulgence in those feelings of pride and affection permitted to every mother but me."

The lamented indisposition of the king having deprived the Princess of Wales of her paternal protector, her royal highness was under the necessity of appealing to

* Dated May 23, 1814. † Dated May 24, 1814.

* Dated May 26, 1814.

parliament against the persecution with which she was assailed from a quarter to which she had a right to look for nothing but kindness and affection. This appeal was made through the medium of the speaker of the house of commons, to whom her royal highness addressed a letter, animadverting on the dangerous nature of the "fixed and unalterable determination of the Prince of Wales never to meet her on any occasion, either in public or private;" and enclosing, for the information of the house, the correspondence which had passed on this occasion.

After the letters had been read, Mr. Methuen moved, "That an humble address be presented to his royal highness the prince-regent, to pray his royal highness that he would be graciously pleased to acquaint the house, by whose advice he was induced to form the 'fixed and unalterable determination never to meet her royal highness the Princess of Wales upon any occasion, either in public or private.'"

To this motion, the ministers of the prince objected, that it was not within the province of the house of commons to interfere in this case, and that the frequent family dissensions in the reigns of George I. and II. had exhibited many instances of the exclusion of members of the royal family from the court of the sovereign. The debate, which was carried on with closed doors, terminated in Mr. Methuen's consenting to withdraw his motion, from a hope that the rigorous proceeding announced against the Princess of Wales would not be acted upon at the approaching drawing-rooms. In this expectation, the honourable gentleman was disappointed; but when the subject was again resumed on the 23d of June, Mr. Methuen, instead of insisting upon the indignity and injustice offered to the mother of our future sovereign, dwelt rather upon the necessity of increasing the establishment of her royal highness the Princess of Wales. Stating, however, distinctly, that he had had no communication with her royal highness; and that he would be the last man to propose an increase of income, were its consequences to be the surrender of any of her rights.

Lord Castlereagh, seizing with avidity this view of the subject, observed, that it was the first time parliament had been told that an increased provision for her royal highness was the object which her friends had in view. His lordship proceeded to state that he had no objection to submit to the house, on a future day, a proposal on this subject; and in conclusion adverted to a fact not before generally known, namely that there is in existence an instrument

dated in the year 1809, signed by the Prince and Princess of Wales, and approved by his majesty, and to which his signature, as well as that of a large proportion of the ministers of the time, is applied, which provides for a distinct establishment for the princess, and admits the fact of the separation.

On the 4th of July, the house being in a committee, Lord Castlereagh rose to propose that such an increase should be made to the income of the Princess of Wales, as would enable her to maintain an establishment more suited to her situation in this country; and he thought the more desirable measure would be to raise it to that point to which it would be advanced in the event of the death of the prince-regent; his proposal therefore was, that the net annual sum of fifty thousand pounds should be granted to the Princess of Wales, and that the five thousand and seventeen thousand per annum which she at present enjoyed should be withheld from the prince-regent's income. Mr. Whitbread thought the provision large, much larger than any of the friends of her royal highness could have contemplated, if any such motive as the increase of the princess's allowance could have entered their mind; but for himself he disclaimed all such idea.

In a subsequent stage of this business, Lord Castlereagh called the attention of the house to a letter received by the chairman of the committee from the Princess of Wales, in which she intimated that it would be more satisfactory to her if the vote of the committee for an allowance of fifty thousand per annum was reduced to thirty-five thousand. This suggestion, after some further discussion, was adopted, and a bill was accordingly introduced into parliament, and passed into a law, whereby the net annual allowance of the Princess of Wales was fixed at thirty-five thousand pounds.

The Princess Charlotte of Wales, it was generally understood, had espoused the cause of her mother in the unhappy dissensions which had so long existed in the royal family; and it was probably in some degree owing to this circumstance that she was kept much more retired and private than her rank and age seemed to require. Those who were appointed to superintend and direct her education, were very often changed: and it was rumoured, that from these and other causes, her situation was by no means agreeable. But although the young princess had thus been kept in a state of comparative seclusion, it was now determined that she should marry. The person fixed upon as her

husband was the young Prince of Orange, who was recommended by his long residence in this country; by his acquaintance with the genius of our government, and with the habits and manners of the people, and by the connection between this house and the reigning family of Great Britain. In addition to these recommendations, he was favourably known to the British public by the courage which he had displayed in the campaigns of the peninsula, under Lord Wellington. It does not, however, appear that he was ever very acceptable to his intended consort; but as mutual attachment is seldom deemed requisite in royal marriages, it was imagined that the alliance would proceed to its consummation. The real objections of the princess to her intended husband remain in obscurity, though she certainly expressed a strong unwillingness to leave the country, especially at a time when her mother required her countenance and consolation. This objection it was endeavoured to surmount, by a promise that her absence should be only for a short duration, and that on her return from Holland she should never be asked again to leave the country. In this arrangement, her royal highness appeared to acquiesce, and the marriage settlements were nearly ready to be executed; when suddenly she expressed doubts as to the security tendered to her, that she should not be obliged to reside longer in Holland than she wished, and demanded that a clause should be inserted in the marriage contract, prohibiting her from ever quitting the kingdom on any account, or for any time, however short. To this proposal, the Prince of Orange, who had pledged himself to the Dutch people to take the princess among them for a short time, could not consent, and the matrimonial negotiations were at an end.

One of the effects of this proceeding was to diminish the affectionate feeling between the Princess Charlotte and her royal father, and under such circumstances she naturally looked to her mother for protection and advice. This served still more to widen the breach; and all the principal persons about her royal highness were removed, either because they were suspected of forwarding her views, or because they wanted either the power or the inclination to exercise that influence over her, which was deemed necessary in order to render her more obedient to the will of her father. On the 11th of July, at the moment when the prince was engaged at Warwick-House, the residence of the Princess Charlotte, giving instructions to those who had superseded her discarded attendants, the

princess took an opportunity of leaving the house in a private manner, and throwing herself into a hackney coach, ordered the driver to convey her to her mother's residence at Connaught-House. The Princess of Wales, much embarrassed by this unexpected visit, immediately drove to the house of parliament to consult her friends as to the proper course to be pursued; and the result was, that at three o'clock the following morning the Princess Charlotte was prevailed upon to accompany her uncle, the Duke of York, to Carlton-House. After remaining at that place for some time, she was removed to Cranbourn-Lodge, in Windsor Forest, where she was placed under the superintendence of the household recently appointed.

Soon after the removal of the Princess Charlotte of Wales to Cranbourn-Lodge, her royal mother asked, and very readily obtained, permission from the prince-regent and his ministers to leave this country; but whether upon a visit to her continental connexions, or with the intention of passing the remainder of her life at a distance from a country where she had experienced nothing but mortification and misery, is not clearly ascertained. On the 9th of August, her royal highness embarked at Worthing, in the Jason frigate, and after having paid a visit to her brother at the court of Brunswick, she proceeded to Italy, every where receiving the honours due to her rank, and on the approach of winter fixed her residence at Naples.

Every friend to his country and to the cause of public morals, must agree in lamenting that each succeeding year, instead of healing, tended only to exasperate the differences existing among the members of the royal family; and those who are accustomed only to the domestic peace and union which generally exist in the middle ranks of life, conceive it strange, that in a circle so exalted, and where example, either good or bad, is so influential, there should be so little disposition to exhibit to the nation a better model of conjugal affection for their imitation. At the present time, in particular, there were reasons for keeping in the back-ground these lamentable and degrading differences; but even the visit of the continental potentates and their illustrious associates was not sufficient to subdue, even for the moment, that deep-rooted aversion and hostility which had unhappily taken possession of the mind of the prince-regent.

On Monday the 6th of June, the Emperor of Russia, and the King of Prussia, the two sovereigns to whom Europe is so

deeply indebted for their share in the overthrow of the military despotism which had enslaved France, and contemplated the subjugation of surrounding nations, landed on the British shores, from the Impregnable and the Jason, under the command of the Duke of Clarence as admiral of the fleet. Their majesties were accompanied by the two eldest sons of the King of Prussia, Prince Frederick of Prussia, Prince Augustus, Marshals Blücher and Barclay de Tolly, Prince Metternich, Baron Humboldt, Counts Platoff, Tolstoi, Hardenberg, and Nesselrode, Baron Anstet, Prince Gardriske, General Czernicheff, and other illustrious heroes and statesmen, whose bravery and talents had rendered them conspicuous in the recent extraordinary events. The royal visitors entered London privately in the afternoon of Tuesday, the emperor taking up his lodgings at the Pulteney Hotel, in Piccadilly, and the King of Prussia in apartments prepared for him in the stable yard, St. James's. In the evening of that day, the sovereigns waited upon the prince-regent at Carlton-house, and received from his royal highness a hearty welcome. At six o'clock, Marshal Blücher arrived in St. James's Park, by the horse guards, in the prince-regent's open carriage; and in the course of the evening the gallant veteran was publicly invested by the prince in person with a beautiful medallion likeness of his royal highness, richly set with diamonds. The pursuits of the Emperor Alexander, like those of his sister the Grand-duchess of Oldenburgh, who had previously arrived in this country, afforded evident proofs of praiseworthy curiosity and good taste. His majesty manifested a perfect indifference for show and ceremony, except upon occasions where they were absolutely necessary for the dignity of the throne. He had too lively a sense of his common nature, as one fellow-creature among many, and one that did not arrogate to himself any supereminence, to be fond of the usual gorgeous attentions that are shown to men of his rank. The first visit paid by the Emperor of Russia on his arrival in London, was to Westminster-Hall and the Abbey—the tombs of the illustrious dead. Day and night, during the residence of the royal party, their time was fully occupied by the vast variety of objects that solicited their inspection, and rewarded their gratifying toil. Levees, drawing-rooms, and royal audiences, were succeeded by the amusement of the opera, the theatre, and the parks. The national bank, the mint, the Tower, the docks, and the royal arsenals, were all in succession resorted to and explored—not with the vacant eye of an

indifferent spectator, but with that inquisitive exactness which indicated an intention to make the institutions of other nations subservient to the happiness and prosperity of their own.

On the 14th of June, the prince-regent and his royal guests honoured the city and university of Oxford with a visit. Previously to their arrival, a programme was drawn up, and issued by the chancellor and heads of houses, according to which all under-graduates and bachelors, all masters of arts, proctors, doctors, heads of houses, and noblemen, in short, all the university went out, each in his proper costume, and ranged themselves in lines on each side of the High street, from St. Mary's church to the west end of Magdalen-Bridge, to which the seniors were nearest. The yeomanry were stationed between the gownsmen and the footway, which was thus left open for the numerous spectators; and the windows of all the houses in High street were crowded with ladies. Soon after ten o'clock, an *avant-courier* announced the approach of the prince-regent, and after the lapse of about half an hour his royal highness was succeeded by the Emperor Alexander and his amiable and accomplished sister, who were soon succeeded by the King of Prussia and his two sons. The prince-regent, having assumed his academic robe, came forth from his rooms in Christ church, followed by the allied sovereigns, with the princes and nobles in their train. The morning was occupied in visiting and inspecting the colleges, halls, and churches; and in the evening a splendid banquet was prepared in Radcliffe's library. About two hundred sat down to dinner, fifty of whom were considered as the prince's party, and occupied that part of the table nearest to his royal highness. The tables were loaded with elegant plate; and the dresses of the company were superb, many gentlemen being in court dresses or regimentals, and wearing loosely over them the scarlet academic robe. The beauty of the interior of the building, the ample convenience for the spectators, the rank of the guests, and the unique and classical effect of the academic robes, gave to the *coup d'œil* an effect that was scarcely ever equalled. About eleven o'clock at night, the party separated, in order to see the brilliant illuminations which at that hour blazed universally through the streets of Oxford.

Before eight o'clock the following morning, the ladies' seats in the theatre, which accommodate six hundred, were completely filled. The upper gallery and the orchestra contained at least nine hundred under-graduates and bachelors; and the

area received the masters of art, bachelors of law, &c. and the strangers admitted by tickets. Soon after ten o'clock, the prince-regent, preceded by the chancellor and the other officers of the university, appeared, uncovered, upon the threshold, and in an instant peals of applause rang through the lofty domes. Next to his royal highness, came the emperor, and after him the King of Prussia, in their robes as doctors of law. Then followed the Duchess of Oldenburgh, accompanied by the Duke of York, the foreign princes and nobles, and the honorary members of the university: the heads of houses and doctors formed the rest of this beautiful and unique procession. As soon as silence could be obtained, the chancellor, Lord Grenville, opened the convocation in his usual dignified and impressive manner. The public orator ascended the rostrum, from whence he addressed the regent and his princely guests in a Latin oration. The regius professor of civil law then delivered the panegyric upon the two great monarchs, whose moderation had been displayed in the midst of victory, and on each of whom the degree of doctor in civil law, by diploma, had been conferred. The chancellor next proposed a diploma degree to the Duke of Wellington, and honorary degrees to Prince Metternich, the prime minister of the Emperor of Austria; Count Lieven, the Russian ambassador, and to Prince Blucher. The three latter were accordingly introduced, and presented by the regius professor of civil law. Eight original and congratulatory addresses, in verse, were then recited, and after the chancellor had dissolved the convocation, the procession withdrew from the theatre in the same manner in which it was entered. The royal party honoured the corporation of Oxford with a visit in the council chamber, and the prince-regent conferred on the town-clerk, William Elias Taunton, Esq. and Joseph Locke, Esq. the mayor, the honour of knighthood. At one o'clock, they visited the observatory, and at two partook of an elegant breakfast at All Soul's College. After breakfast, the Emperor of Russia, and the King of Prussia, and their party, left the university on a tour to Blenheim and Stowe, highly gratified with their visit to this venerable seat of learning.

On the return of the Emperor Alexander to London, he repaired to St. Paul's Cathedral, where he witnessed, with evident emotion, the annual assemblage of six thousand of the charity children, belonging to the different parishes of the metropolis.

On the 18th, an entertainment was given by the corporation of the city of London to

the prince-regent and the monarchs of Russia and Prussia, in a style of splendour and magnificence never exceeded in this country. To give effect to the scene, the royal procession went in state from Carlton-House to the Guildhall, with the full splendour of the British court. The streets east of Temple-Bar were lined with nearly eight thousand soldiers; the houses were filled and covered with tens of thousands of spectators; and to such a pitch was the public curiosity to witness this splendid pageant excited, that the windows in particular situations, where the procession could be viewed to advantage, were disposed of for the day at the enormous price of twenty or thirty guineas each. On the arrival of the procession at the Guildhall the royal guests were ushered into the council chamber, which had been splendidly fitted up, and a canopy and throne erected for the occasion. The regent being seated on the throne, the recorder delivered an address of the lord mayor and corporate body of London upon his royal highness's visit to the city, which was graciously received. Here, the royal and noble visitors promenaded for some time in familiar conversation, and the prince, to evince his respect for the city of London, and his personal esteem for the lord mayor,* created that magistrate a baronet. Dinner being announced, the royal party proceeded to the hall; the prince-regent, the Emperor of Russia, and the King of Prussia, taking their seats under a grand state canopy in the centre of the table, at which were seated one-and-twenty personages of the blood royal, including the Grand-duchess of Oldenburgh. The appearance of the hall was splendid beyond description, and the constellation of British beauty which occupied the spacious gallery appropriated to the use of the ladies exclusively, shed an exquisite fascination over this magnificent scene.

On the following day, the Emperor of Russia, accompanied by the Duchess of Oldenburgh, attended an assembly of a very different description, but of a nature quite as accordant with the simplicity of his manners, and the contemplative turn of his mind; after attending the service of the Greek church, he proceeded to the meeting of the society of Friends in St. Martin's Lane! In the course of the day, he received deputations from "The British and Foreign Bible Society," the "Society of Friends of Foreigners in Distress," and the "Humane Society;" of the latter of which his imperial majesty is a member, in consequence of having restored to life a

* William Donville, Esq.

Polish peasant, apparently dead by drowning.

On the 20th of June, the day on which the proclamation of peace was made in the metropolis, a military review of all the regiments in London and its environs, in honour of that happy event, took place in Hyde-Park. At half-past eleven o'clock, a royal salute of twenty-one cannons announced the approach of the royal party, and another discharge of twenty-one guns gave intimation of their arrival on the ground. The prince-regent, preceded by a small detachment of Cossacks, headed by the Hetman Platoff, was attended on one side by the Emperor of Russia, and on the other by the King of Prussia, followed by Marshal Blücher, and a most magnificent staff, superbly attired. The different lines were soon arranged, and the royal party passed down them, the bands playing "God save the King." The numerous regiments then passed in review, and this splendid military spectacle was closed by a *fuc-de-joue*. In the evening, the King of Prussia went to the house of lords, and witnessed the ceremony of passing bills by commission.

The military review was succeeded by a grand naval exhibition, such as, of all the nations of the world, England alone could display. On the 22d of June, the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia took their leave of London, and repaired to Portsmouth, at which place the prince-regent arrived in his travelling carriage on the evening of that day. Early in the morning of the 23d, the royal standard floated in the air over the public buildings of Portsmouth, and the troops were drawn out in front of the Government-House. About eleven o'clock, the illustrious company walked from the house of Commissioner Gray, in the Dock-Yard, to the place of embarkation, where the whole naval procession, headed by the Duke of Clarence, as admiral of the fleet, was ready to receive them. The admiralty barge, with its characteristic ensign, came first; and was followed by the royal barge, with the royal standard; and two other barges, one hoisting the Russian flag of yellow, with the black spread eagle; the other of white, with the sable eagle of Prussia. Into these vessels, the regent, the emperor, the Duchess of Oldenburgh, the King of Prussia, his sons and relatives, many German princes, and the suites of the royal personages, stepped in succession. The procession, headed by men-of-war's barges, commanded by captains, and accompanied by innumerable private vessels, passed along the line of men-of-war, amidst a general salute of forty-two guns from

each ship; the ships' yards were all fully manned, and the loud cheerings of the crews, and of the countless company in the surrounding boats, emulated the roar of the cannon. The Duke of Clarence had gone on board the *Impregnable*, where the procession stopped, and went on board. The royal visitors, after having explored the ship, partook with the ship's company of their grog and mess with great affability, and afterwards sat down to a sumptuous collation in the cabin. The prince-regent, elevated by the display of his country's greatness, witnessed by foreign monarchs, on Britain's own element, declared this to be the grandest sight he had ever beheld. The Duchess of Oldenburgh particularly expressed her delight, and bore the shock of firing with much fortitude. The amiable and meditative Frederic William was wrapped in the sublimity of a spectacle so new to him; and Alexander seemed to dwell upon it with ecstasy. Leaving the *Impregnable*, salutes were again fired, after which the whole party repaired to the Government-House, where a grand banquet was given by the regent to one hundred and fifty persons, and the dominion of night was overcome in Portsmouth by the general illuminations, which to the neighbouring heights exhibited a scene splendid beyond description.

The prince-regent, the Duke of York, and the King of Prussia, with the Prussian and other princes, repaired early on the following morning to the Emperor of Russia, at his lodgings in the Dock-Yard, and thence proceeded to view the various naval establishments. The numerous objects of curiosity and utility in the yards occupied the whole of the forenoon, and about two o'clock the royal barges, with the rest of the grand aquatic procession, left the King's Stairs, in the same order as on the preceding day, to pay another visit to the fleet in the roads. The fleet formed a line of seven or eight miles in extent, in front of the Isle of Wight, and the royal sovereign yacht received the prince-regent and the King of Prussia, while the Emperor Alexander, attended by the Lord High Admiral, went again on board the *Impregnable*. The royal visitors were received with a general salute, after which the ships slipped their cables, and were immediately under sail, with a brisk north-east gale. The Royal Sovereign yacht led the van, and they speedily cleared St. Helen's, and were quite out at sea. About five o'clock, the whole of the line-of-battle ships and frigates hove to by signal. On their return, the firing was renewed, so as to afford, in some respects, the idea of a naval engagement. In the

visit of the 23d, the ships lay at anchor with their sails down, but they now displayed before the assembled sovereigns the proudest boast of this sea-girt isle—a British fleet in a state of activity. In the course of the night and morning, many private vessels had come in from various parts of the coast, so that the number had considerably increased; and the oldest boatman in the harbour never witnessed before so great a number of vessels collected, or so fine a sight at Portsmouth. The salutes on the departure of the royal party from the fleet, were very imposing on shore and in the harbour; and the discharge of all the artillery around the works of Portsmouth and Portsea, and on the different batteries at Haslar, and along the coast, followed by ten *feux-de-joie* of the many thousand military drawn up, chiefly on the ramparts, was tremendous. Under these thundering demonstrations, the sovereigns retired to their several residences, while the multitude assembled filled the royal ears with cries of “Wellington.” In the absence of the royal party, the duke, drawn in triumph through the streets by the populace, had arrived at the Government-House, attended by Lord Stewart, (late Sir Charles Stewart,) and was in readiness to receive the prince-regent on his return. At night, the town was again illuminated, with additional splendour, and the effect was heightened by the brilliant illumination of the Prince, of ninety-eight guns, at her moorings, in the roads. On the 25th of June, the allied sovereigns left Portsmouth for Dover, where they embarked on the 27th for Calais, amidst the thundering of cannon, and the enthusiastic cheers of the people.

The impression made upon the English nation by this royal visit, was deep, and will be lasting. The Emperor Alexander in particular, by his personal qualities, as well as by his exalted rank, attracted universal regard. Fortunately the events of his reign have contributed to assist his natural disposition. The native benevolence of his heart must wonderfully quicken the reflection, that the success of his arms and his negotiations have had a signal share in restoring peace to long distracted Europe. The homage he received in England was directed as much to the man as to the sovereign, and his discriminating mind felt the tribute, while his heart perhaps acknowledged it as one of the most grateful rewards to which his services for the human race are entitled. The first days of this sovereign's reign, were signalized by judicious efforts to ameliorate the condition of his vast empire; and his visit to England will, unquestionably, tend

to promote this generous design, which it seems to be the business of his life to pursue. The King of Prussia is of a character less fascinating. His reign has been one of unprecedented difficulties; and he is constitutionally rather of a solid than a brilliant disposition. The long calamities of his kingdom, and an irreparable domestic loss, have confirmed that air of thoughtfulness and reserve which marked his countenance even at an early age. His domestic virtues have ever been conspicuous; but the compass and structure of his mind are not of that order which impart to a sovereign the requisite qualification for steering the vessel of state through the boisterous ocean of a revolutionary period.

After the departure of the royal visitors, and when the public mind had begun to resume its wonted sobriety, the parliamentary session, which had suffered a temporary interruption, was resumed; and on the 26th of June, the speaker of the house of commons informed that assembly, that he had received a letter from Lord Cochrane, protesting his innocence of certain charges exhibited against his lordship, and of which he had, on the 8th of the present month, been convicted in the court of King's Bench.*

When the matter came under consideration on the 5th of July, the house of commons adjudged by a majority of one hundred and forty to forty-four voices, that Lord Cochrane should be expelled from that assembly; but the electors of Westminster,

* The charges preferred against Lord Cochrane were, that he, along with Captain Random de Berenger; the Honourable Andrew Cochrane Johnstone, his lordship's uncle; Richard Gathorne Butt, a stock broker; Ralph Sandom, a spirit-merchant, at North-Fleet; Alexander McRae; John Peter Holloway; and Henry Lyte; had conspired to defraud the members of the stock exchange, by circulating, on the 11th of February last, false news of Bonaparte's defeat and death, to raise the funds to a higher price than they otherwise would have borne, to the injury of the public, and for the benefit of the conspirators. Of this offence, Lord Cochrane, and the other defendants, were found guilty; his lordship, however, with a firmness and constancy that guilt can rarely assume, continued, after his conviction, to declare his entire ignorance of the plot and conspiracy imputed to him, and earnestly implored a new trial. This indulgence the rules of the court did not allow; and on the 21st of June, his lordship, along with Mr. Butt, was sentenced to pay a fine of 500*l.* to the king, to be imprisoned twelve months, in the custody of the Marshal of the Marshalsea, and during that time to stand one hour in, and upon the pillory, in front of the Royal Exchange. The same sentence was pronounced on Captain de Berenger, with the exception of the fine; and Sandom and Lyte were ordered to be imprisoned twelve months. Mr. Cochrane Johnstone, and Mr. Alexander McRae, failed to appear.

under the persuasion of the perfect innocence of their representative, re-elected his lordship, not only without opposition, but in triumph.

The sentence pronounced upon the accused, which, besides fine and imprisonment, comprised the most infamous punishment inflicted by the laws of England—public exposure on the pillory—was generally considered severe in the extreme; and when applied to Lord Cochrane, a man who, besides hereditary rank, had acquired honours and distinctions in the service of his country, seemed to shock the feelings even of those who were most convinced of his participation in the crime. Against so rigorous an infliction, parliament was preparing to raise its voice, when Lord Castlereagh announced to the house of commons that the crown had taken steps to interpose its mercy, and that the punishment of the pillory would not be inflicted either upon Lord Cochrane or the other parties.

The national income and expenditure,*

* FINANCES.

PUBLIC INCOME OF Great Britain for the Year ending the 5th of January, 1814.

Branches of Revenue.	Gross Receipts.			Paid into the Excheq.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Customs, . . .	10,325,550	19	10½	8,016,968	19	11½
Excise, . . .	20,606,662	14	1½	18,036,713	19	2½
Stamps, . . .	6,638,156	17	10½	6,344,486	13	11
Land and Assess- ed Taxes, . . .	7,894,341	3	11½	7,433,496	18	4½
Post-office, . .	1,968,517	10	6	1,403,000	0	0
Miscella. Perma- nent Tax, . . .	76,719	6	11	68,039	10	7½
Herod. Revenue, Extr. Resources,	115,469	10	5½	40,311	1	5
Customs, . .	3,818,272	14	9½	3,278,368	6	4½
Excise, . . .	6,227,340	13	4	6,073,638	4	6½
Prop. Tax, .	14,320,436	17	9½	13,967,402	2	6½
Miscel. Income, Loans, inclu- ding 6,000,000 <i>l.</i> for the service of Ireland.	8,297,033	14	1½	8,264,900	0	7½
	36,060,574	17	9	36,060,574	17	9

Grand Total, £114,498,686 1 6½ £105,976,790 14 3½
*Whitehall Treasury Cham-
bers, March, 1814,* } (Signed)
 } R. S. LUSHINGTON.

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE OF Great Britain for the Year ending the 5th of January, 1814.

Heads of Expenditure.	Sums.		
	£	s.	d.
Interest, . . .	24,056,656	16	0½
Charge of Management, . .	238,827	17	7
Reduction of National Debt, .	15,821,362	13	4
Interest on Exchequer Bills, .	2,081,629	10	6
Civil List, . . .	1,696,360	6	11½
Civil Government of Scotland, Payments in anticipation, &c.	113,176	4	8½
Navy, . . .	391,066	1	11½
Ordnance, . . .	21,996,624	9	4½
Army, . . .	3,404,627	11	11
Extraord. Services and subsidies, Ireland, . . .	18,500,986	11	0
Miscellaneous Services, . . .	22,262,951	0	0
	4,700,416	13	4
	4,010,349	18	4½
Deductions for Sums forming no part of the Expenditure of Great Britain.	118,572,813	15	1½
	4,904,202	18	3

Grand Total, £113,968,610 16 10½
*Whitehall Treasury Cham-
bers, March, 1814,* } (Signed)
 } R. S. LUSHINGTON.

subjects at all times so interesting to the public, and the progress of which will be traced in the annual financial summary, given in that portion of this work devoted to the domestic history of Great Britain, were, on the 13th of June, brought under the consideration of the house of commons. On the present occasion, the chancellor of the exchequer contented himself with stating the several sums necessary to be raised for the service of the year, the ways and means to defray those charges, and the terms on which the loan had been contracted for. The whole amount of the joint and separate charges for England, he stated at 67,517,478*l.*; and for Ireland, at 8,107,094*l.* making the total expense of the year 75,624,572*l.* This estimate was certainly very high for the expense of what might be regarded as a peace establishment! But it was to be recollected, that the first part of the year had been passed in a state of war, and of exertion beyond any former period; and that we had still a powerful enemy to contend against. To meet the charges upon the public revenue, the taxes and the loans of the year for England would produce 67,708,545*l.* The exports of the past year had very considerably exceeded those of the most flourishing year at any former period. The total amount of the loan for 1814, was twenty-four millions, being 18,500,000*l.* for England, and 5,500,000*l.* for Ireland; and from the terms upon which the loan had been negotiated, it might be calculated that the public would remain charged with the yearly interest upon it of 4*l.* 12*s.* 1*d.* per cent. At the close of this statement, the usual resolutions were read and agreed to, after a remark from Mr. Ponsonby, that the public interest demanded that the property tax should not be collected after the 5th of April ensuing.

In a subsequent discussion, ministers were asked whether they did not acquiesce in the public opinion, that in consequence of the termination of the war with France, the property and income tax should cease? To this view of the subject, there seemed at first some inclination to demur, and it was apprehended, that as we were still at war with America, it would be urged that the tax did not legally expire. But a mere perusal of the terms of the act, was sufficient to prove, that the war in which the country was engaged at the time when the tax was imposed, and not any future war, was meant; and ministers, after some delay, declared, that the tax must expire on the 5th of April ensuing. Apprehensions however were still entertained that the tax might be renewed; and the inconclusive

replies given by government to the inquiries made on that subject, excited a very deep and general alarm throughout the country. The first place that took measures to petition parliament against the renewal of the tax was the city of London; and the example of the metropolis was so generally followed, that the voice of the people, which, when distinctly and perseveringly raised, must always be heard, finally prevailed.

The state of the sister kingdom had for some time been such as to call for the adoption of additional measures for securing the public tranquillity, and on the 8th of July, Mr. Peel, chief secretary for Ireland, rose to propose the renewal of a measure, which had received the sanction of parliament in 1807. The clause of the insurrection act, which it was now intended to revive, provided, that in case any part of the country should be disturbed, or be in danger of becoming so, two justices of the peace should be empowered to summon an extraordinary sessions of the county, which should consist of seven magistrates; that the lord-lieutenant, in council, on receiving a report from the magistrates so assembled, stating that the district was in a state of disturbance, and that the ordinary law was inadequate to the preservation of the public peace, should be empowered to issue a proclamation, commanding all resident within the same district to keep within their houses from sunset to sunrise; that no person should be suffered to remain drinking in a public house after nine o'clock at night; and further, if any persons should be detected out of their houses at the prohibited times, without being able to show good cause, they should be liable to be transported for the term of seven years. It was also required that the lord-lieutenant should order a special session of the peace to be held, at which the persons offending against this law should be tried, and, if necessary, the trial by jury should in these cases be dispensed with. Other provisions sanctioned the employment of the military; enabled the magistrates to pay domiciliary visits; and to break open doors, if denied admission. The right honourable gentleman admitted that these measures would infringe upon the liberties of the subject, but in his opinion—an opinion formed upon extensive information—the present state of Ireland required them, and the house had to decide upon a choice of evils. It was by no means the intention of government to have recourse to this act on ordinary occasions, but only when all other means of quieting disturbances failed. He then referred to the information that had been received of

the outrages that were perpetrated in different parts of Ireland. In Queen's county, the *Caravats* were nightly levying contributions from the little farmers, and seizing arms and ammunition wherever they could be found. A set of savages, called *Carders*, were active in the county of Westmeath, and kept the frightened inhabitants in constant dread of assassination, and of having their cabins burnt over their heads. These men derived their name from the operation of applying wool cards, with which they tore the flesh from the bones of the objects of their inhumanity, for no other offence, perhaps, than for giving a higher rent to the landlords than others, or for refusing to join the lawless banditti. These atrocities were not practised by one religious sect against another, but Catholics and Protestants were alike exposed to their horrors.

The bill introduced by Mr. Peel was warmly discussed in its several stages; but it ultimately passed both branches of the legislature, and at the close of the session obtained the royal assent.

Never perhaps in modern history was any war concluded by a treaty which was so generally approved, as that which, in the present year, restored peace to Europe. The long continued and excessive burthens of the war, had rendered every one capable of feeling for the general interests of his country, impatient to see its close; and if this impatience was most lively in the breasts of those who had, in all its stages, used their efforts to put a period to the effusion of blood; those, on the other hand, who were attached to the administration by which it was actually concluded, could not fail to regard the peace as a subject of applause. Hence, when the topic was introduced in both houses of parliament, it gave rise rather to conversations and explanations than to debates.

Two days previous to the prorogation of parliament, Lord Lonsdale moved an address to the prince-regent, thanking his royal highness for the communication of the treaty with France, and assuring him of the approbation with which that treaty was regarded by their lordships, as safe and honourable to all. On the following day, a similar motion was made in the house of commons by Lord Lascelles, and in both houses the proposed address passed unanimously. If there was any difficulty in cordially concurring in the address, it arose from the article concerning the slave-trade; and on the motion of Mr. Wilberforce, a clause was inserted in the address expressive of an assurance, "that no effort would be wanting on the part of the prince-regent to give the fullest and speedi-

est effect which the circumstances of the negotiation at the approaching congress might allow, to the wishes so repeatedly declared by this house for the total abolition of the slave-trade."

On the 30th of July, the prince-regent repaired in state to the house of lords, and being seated on the throne, congratulated parliament on the full accomplishment of all the objects for which the war had been undertaken, or continued, and the final deliverance of Europe, by the combined exertions of this nation and its allies, from the most oppressive tyranny under which it had ever laboured. The restoration of so many of the ancient governments of the continent, afforded, he said, the best prospect of the permanence of that peace which had so happily been restored; and his efforts at the approaching congress might be relied on for completing the settlement of Europe on principles of justice and impartiality. Lamenting, as he did, the continuance of hostilities with the United States of America, he was sincerely desirous of restor-

ing peace on conditions honourable to both; but till this object could be obtained, parliament would see the necessity of employing the means placed at their disposal for prosecuting the war with increased vigour. His royal highness, in conclusion, thanked the house of commons for the liberal provision they had made for the service of the year, and assured both houses, that full justice was rendered throughout Europe to that manly perseverance, which, amidst the convulsions of the continent, had augmented the resources, and extended the dominion, of the British empire, and had proved in its result as beneficial to other nations as to our own. These distinguished advantages, his royal highness said, were to be ascribed, under Providence, to that constitution which it had now for a century been the object of his family to maintain unimpaired, and under which the people of this realm had enjoyed more of real liberty at home, and of true glory abroad, than had ever fallen to the lot of any other nation.

CHAPTER XXVII.

CONGRESS AT VIENNA: Members of the Congress—Its Objects—Projected Incorporation of the Kingdom of Saxony with Prussia—Declaration of Frederick Augustus protesting against the injustice of this Measure—The Subject left open to further Discussion—Poland—Hanover assumes the Rank of a Kingdom, under the House of Guelph—Confederation of the Swedish Cantons—Victor Emanuel, King of Sardinia, re-established on his Throne—Return of Pope Pius VII. to his Capital—Conduct of Ferdinand VII. on re-ascending the Throne of Spain—Incorporation of the Belgic Provinces with Holland under the Sovereign Prince of the Netherlands—Restoration of a general Peace.

THE storm of the French revolution now seemed to have spent itself; and the long agitated states of Europe approached to a state of repose. Five-and-twenty years had effected great changes; an immense mass of discordant interests were to be reconciled, and the congress of Vienna, which had for its object the arrangement of a political future,* might be considered as the harbinger of a new era in Europe. The business of this august assembly was not individual, but national; Germany, France, Poland, and Italy, all presented their claims for adjustment, and in the capital of the Huns was to be planted either the seeds of a lasting peace, or the germ of future wars. On the 25th of September, the Emperor of Russia, and the King of Prussia, made their solemn entry into Vienna; but so multifarious were the previous arrangements which it was judged proper to submit to a commission, called the *Preparative*, that it was

not till the 1st of November that the formal installation of the congress took place. The royal personages congregated on this occasion, consisted of the Emperors of Russia and Austria, and the Kings of Prussia, Denmark, Wirtemberg, and Bavaria, with ambassadors from England, Russia, Austria, Prussia, France, Spain, Portugal, Switzerland, Italy, and the minor states of Germany.†

† *List of the diplomatic Personages constituting the Congress at Vienna.*

For England.—Lord Castlereagh, Messrs. Cooke, Planta, Ward, Merry, Montague, and Morier.

For Russia.—Count Nesselrode, Minister for Foreign Affairs; the Russian Counsellors Von Anstett, Schroeder, and Bulgakoff.

For Austria.—Prince Metternich.

For Prussia.—The Chancellor Prince Hardenberg; the Prussian Counsellors, Von Humboldt, Von Stein, Zerboni di Sasseti, Von Stageman, Von Jordan, and Lieutenant-general Von Kneesebeck.

For France.—Prince Talleyrand.

For Spain.—The Chevalier Gomez Labrador, with his two secretaries, Messrs. Machado and Bustillo; Don Perez de Castro.

* See Treaty of Paris, article XXXII. vol. ii. page 346.

Three days after the opening of the congress, Prince Reppin, the Russian Governor of Dresden, notified, in a proclamation to the Saxon authorities, that in virtue of a convention, concluded on the 28th of September, at Vienna, his majesty the Emperor of Russia, in concert with Austria and England, had directed, that the administration of the kingdom of Saxony should be placed in the hands of his majesty the King of Prussia. As a preliminary step, the government of the country was to be consigned to persons provided with proper powers by his Prussian majesty, in order thus to effectuate the union of Saxony with Prussia, which would soon take place in a manner more formal and solemn. It was further announced, on the same authority, that it was not the intention of Frederick William to incorporate Saxony with his estates as a province, but to unite it to Prussia under the title of the kingdom of Saxony; to change nothing in its constitution; but to preserve it for ever in its integrity under the Prussian monarchy.

The appearance of this document produced in the mind of his majesty, Frederick Augustus, King of Saxony, feelings of grief and astonishment; and on the 4th of November he issued a declaration from Frederickfeld, in which he appealed to the magnanimity and justice of the allied sovereigns, and announced his firm resolution never to separate his fate from that of his people. "The conservation and consolidation of legitimate dynasties," says the Saxon declaration, "was the grand object of the war which has been so happily ter-

minated: the coalesced powers accordingly repeatedly proclaimed, in the most solemn manner, that, far removed from every plan of conquest and aggrandizement, they had only in view the restoration of the rights and liberties of Europe. Saxony, in particular, received the most positive assurances that her integrity would be maintained. The integrity essentially includes the conservation of the dynasty for which the nation has publicly manifested its constant attachment, and the unanimous wish to be re-united to its sovereign. "It is therefore before the congress of Vienna, and in the face of all Europe," says the declaration, in conclusion, "that we protest against the intention manifested by the court of Prussia, of provisionally occupying our Saxon states, and at the same time publicly reiterate the declaration, communicated some time ago to the allied courts, that we will never consent to the cession of the states inherited from our ancestors, and that we will never accept of any indemnity or equivalent that may be offered to us."

Staggered by this energetic remonstrance, and aware that the crime of adhering to Bonaparte, for which the King of Saxony was to be deprived of his hereditary dominions, had, in turn, been committed by all the sovereigns assembled at Vienna, the congress began to pause; and the courts of Austria and Great Britain, though they had agreed to the provisional occupation of Saxony by Prussian troops, considered its final possession as still open to discussion and future arrangement.

The grand object professed by the congress of Vienna, was to restore Europe as nearly as possible to the condition in which it stood previous to the French revolution; not only to protect the smaller states against the ambition and power of France, but to prevent the recurrence of future wars, and to bestow upon the inhabitants of the great political community of the most enlightened quarter of the globe, a greater portion of national and individual security, independence, and happiness, than it had ever hitherto enjoyed. Having traced all the calamities of Europe to that spirit of ambition by which Napoleon had been actuated, and which had led him to seize upon and to partition neighbouring states at his pleasure; it was to be hoped that Russia, Prussia, and Austria, would now repudiate that first example of spoliation which has served as an excuse for many of his acts of injustice, and that they would restore Poland to her national independence. From the partition of that country in the year 1793 and 1795, consequences had resulted, not only to those who had

Sicily, Sardinia, and Naples.—Count S. Marzani, from Sardinia; the Prince of Rocco Romana, and the Duke of Campo Chiaro, from Naples; Cardinal Gonsalvi, from the Pope; the Commander Ruffo, and the Duke of Sero Capriola, for Sicily.

States of Lombardy.—The Marquis Malaspina di Sanazaro, Deputy from Pavia; the Marquis Luigi Cavriani, from Mantua; Count Giuseppe Pietro Porro, from Como; Marquis Luigi Dati; and Count Morticelli Strada, from Cremona; Count Silvio Marturgo, and Mr. Giacinto Mompicci, from Brescia.

Minor German States.—Mr. Von Gagorn, for Orange Nassau; Mr. Von Gartner, as Envoy from thirty-six German Princes; the Duke of Saxe Weimar; the Prince of Salm Kyrburg; Major Von Zohel, for Saxe Coburg; the Electoral Prince of Mecklenburg Strulitz; Mr. Von Marshal, for the duchy of Nassau; Mr. Gunther Von Berg, for the principality of Schaumburg; Mr. Von Kirchbauer, for Hohenzollern Seigmaringen; the Baron Von Oerzen, for Mecklenburg Strulitz; Count Munster, for Hanover; and the Senator Hach, for Lubec.

For Saxony.—Count Von Elding, Mr. Von Gersdorf, and Counsellor Von Gortz.

For Bavaria.—Field-Marshal Prince Wrede.

For Wirtemberg.—Count Von Gorlitz, Counsellor Von Degen, Secretary Pleiffor, and Count Von Sontheim.

For Switzerland.—Messrs. Laharpe and Renger.

participated in the spoil, but to all the kingdoms and states by which they were surrounded, which were little anticipated at the time when that event took place, and which seemed to establish the opinion, that there is a political, as well as a moral retribution. It became therefore the incumbent duty of the sovereigns to whose dominions the territory of Poland was annexed, to erase every vestige of an act of injustice which had infused its deadly poison so deeply and so widely; to seize with avidity the opportunity presented by the congress of Vienna, to prove that they warred not against the person, but against the principles of Napoleon; and to show that they were resolved to make all the atonement in their power for this great political error, by a practical confession of their misdeeds in the restoration of Poland. Such an act of magnanimity all Europe would have applauded, and its fame would have extended to future ages. On these grounds, as well as on many others, it was desirable to invest Poland with a real independence; but this object, if it ever engaged the attention of the congress of Vienna, failed to terminate in any practical result.

One of the first acts of the congress was to recognise a new regal title annexed to the British crown, and to confirm to Hanover the rank of a kingdom. On the 12th of October, Count Munster, the Hanoverian minister of state, presented a note to the Austrian and other ministers, assembled at Vienna, for the purpose of conveying the declaration of the prince-regent of Great Britain and Hanover, regarding the title which he had thought it necessary to substitute for that of elector of the holy Roman empire. The title of elector, it was observed, had been rendered unsuitable to present circumstances, by the sixth article of the treaty of Paris, by which it was agreed—"that the states of Germany should remain independent, and joined in a federal union." On this ground, several of the powers concurring in the treaty had invited the prince-regent to renounce the ancient title, and in its stead to assume the title of king, by which the arrangements required for the future welfare of Germany would be facilitated. The declaration proceeded to observe, that all the ancient electors, and the house of Wirtemberg, having erected their states into kingdoms, the prince-regent could not derogate from the rank which Hanover had held under the house of Brunswick Lunenburgh, one of the most ancient and illustrious in Europe before the subversion of the German empire; and that he had therefore resolved to erect his provinces, formerly the country of Hanover, into a kingdom, and to as-

sume for its sovereign the title of King of Hanover. As an act of grace, the prince regent, acting in the name and on the behalf of the new king, invested the provinces with the power of forming themselves into a general diet by means of representatives, and appointed the 15th of December as the day on which the high council of the nation should, for the first time, assemble. Thus, in Hanover, as in several other parts of Europe, the events which produced, as well as those which contributed to destroy, the French revolutionary spirit, have conferred lasting advantages on the people, and have convinced rulers that both their interest and their duty consists in benefiting and enlightening their people, and in confiding to them a due participation in the management of public affairs.

While the greater part of the subordinate states of the European continent were waiting in suspense, and under provisional occupation, the decision of the congressional assembly convened at Vienna, the Swiss confederacy was employed in settling, at a national diet, the terms on which they were hereafter to exist as an independent community. On the 8th of September, the federal compact was signed at Zurich by the deputies of all the nineteen cantons; and by this constitution the principle was acknowledged, that there should no longer be any subject in Switzerland, or in other terms, that no particular class of citizens of a canton should enjoy exclusive rights or privileges.

In Italy, the territories formerly possessed by the sovereign house of Sardinia, were restored to Victor Emanuel; and by a protocol, signed in the congress of Vienna, on the 14th of December, the territory forming, before the French revolutionary wars, the venerable republic of Genoa, was definitively united to the states of his Sardinian majesty. The annexation of all the other districts in the north of Italy to the Austrian dominion, followed almost as a matter of course; and the republic of Venice, so long the mistress of the Adriatic, seemed doomed to become a maritime dependency of the house of Austria.

Of all the sovereigns whom the subversion of the French empire under the Napoleon dynasty restored to their dominions, no one appears to have resumed his authority with a firmer resolution to exercise his prerogatives to their former extent, than Pope Pius VII. In his proclamation, issued at Cezena, on the 6th of May, previously to his return to Rome, his holiness applied to himself the ancient title of "God's vicar on earth," and spoke of his temporal sovereignty as essentially con-

nected with his spiritual supremacy. On resuming his functions, one of his first acts was the public restoration of the order of Jesuits; and a few days afterwards followed the promulgation of an edict for the reinstatement of the monastic communities. Thus, after an interregnum of five years, the papal power again resumed its wonted activity; but neither the character of the sovereign pontiff, nor the spirit of the times, warrants the expectation, that the see of Rome will again be restored to its former influence in the affairs of Europe.

Although the return of Ferdinand VII. to his kingdom was hailed by the general voice of the Spanish nation, yet it soon became obvious that this unanimity was only external, and that two discordant parties existed, one consisting of those who supported the political reforms that had taken place, and the other of those who either decidedly opposed, or who only give them a feigned and hollow countenance. Scarcely had Ferdinand entered Spain, before it was discovered to which party he meant to attach himself. The re-establishment of civil and religious tyranny, if possible, more complete and firm than it had existed before the invasion of the French, was his favourite object; all the labours of the cortes for the liberty of their country were overthrown; and those men who had been most instrumental in achieving the liberation of Spain, and to whom consequently both the sovereign and the people owed the greatest obligations, were treated with cruelty and injustice. By a strange perversion of every feeling of gratitude and honour, the restored monarch seemed decidedly of opinion, that Spain had been polluted by those statesmen and warriors who stood forth in his cause; while he took into his confidence many of those who had betrayed him into the hands of Napoleon, and nominated to the head of his ministry the Duc de San Carlos, the person who signed the treaty of Valency. To crown this abhorrent tyranny, a decree was published at Madrid, dated the 21st of July, re-establishing the supreme council of the inquisition, and all its other tribunals, in all their power, ecclesiastical and civil, according to the ordonnances in force in 1808! What was the conduct of the Spanish nation under these circumstances? Did they manfully assert their liberties? Did that genuine and enlightened love of independence, for which they had obtained credit while resisting the tyranny of Bonaparte, rouse them to resist the tyranny of Ferdinand, or loudly to express their disapprobation of his proceedings? Far from it: they in general applauded all his mea-

sures, and hailed the suppression of the cortes, and the re-establishment of the inquisition, with as much fervour as they had displayed on the restoration of their king. To complete the ingratitude of Ferdinand, he imputed the schisms of his subjects to the "sojournment of foreign troops of different sects among them," and interposed all the obstacles in his power against the introduction of British produce and manufactures into his kingdom. Such conduct, though revolting to every generous and enlightened mind, may not be without its advantages; the Spanish colonies in South America are advancing in their way to independence,* and it is scarcely probable that they should surrender their infant liberties into the hands of such a government as that established in the mother country by King Ferdinand.

Hitherto, the Prince of the Brazils has not returned to Portugal: but in the mean time, that country under the regency government seems disposed to derive benefit from her past sufferings; and the Brazils are advancing, though with a slow and hesitating step, in political and commercial importance.

In the grand settlement of Europe, which became the object of the allied powers, after they had expelled from his throne the person whose ambitious plans had so long been employed in overthrowing all former barriers, there were few points more important than the adjustment of the future condition of the ten Belgic provinces, usually distinguished by the name of the Catholic Netherlands. Modern history is filled with the wars and negotiations of which the disputed possession of these rich and fertile countries formed the source; they were among the first conquests of the French from the house of Austria in the revolutionary wars; and they had been declared integral parts of the French empire. When France was to be reduced to her former limits, and Holland restored to its pristine independence, the disposal of the Catholic Netherlands became a matter of immediate urgency. On the principle of restitution, there could be no doubt that they reverted to the Austrian dominion; and provisional possession of them was confided to an Austrian general, as military governor. But the Emperor Francis, like his imperial predecessor, wished to divest himself of a detached territory which had long been rather a burthen than an advantage, and the future defence of which could be se-

* All the Spanish colonies in America, except the West India Islands, have long since established their independence.—W. G.

cured only by a strong and expensive line of fortresses. It is therefore probable that a change in the occupation of these provinces, had come early under deliberation in the councils of the allied powers; and on the 1st of August a proclamation was put forth by Baron de Vincent, the Austrian governor, by which the people were informed that Belgium was to be given up into the hands of the Sovereign Prince of the Netherlands. "This union," says the general, "cemented as it is by a common origin, and a reciprocity of interests, and secured by the firmest guarantees that human power can impart, will be rendered indissoluble." The same sentiments were reiterated in a proclamation issued by the Prince of Orange, who assured his new subjects that the destination of these provinces was only a part of a system by which the allied sovereigns intended to ensure to the nations of Europe a long period of prosperity and repose. The country as far as the Maese was now evacuated by the Russian and Prussian troops. English corps, and Germans in British pay, poured into Brussels and the principal towns of the Netherlands; and it became

manifest that Great Britain meant to take upon herself the chief share in securing the Belgian frontier till the final adjustment of the affairs of Europe. In the course of the same month, a treaty was formed by the plenipotentiaries of the Prince-regent of England and the Sovereign Prince of the Netherlands, by which it was stipulated that Great Britain should retain the Cape of Good Hope, Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice; and that Batavia, and all the rest of the conquests made from the Dutch, during the late war, namely, Surinam, Curacao, and St. Eustatia, should be restored to them. Ceylon, as being ceded to England before the war, was to remain in her possession.

To consummate the important history of the year 1814—one of the most momentous epochs in the annals of the world, peace was concluded on the 24th of December between Great Britain and the United States, and for the first time during a period of a quarter of a century, with the exception of the feverish truce of Amiens, a general peace prevailed in both hemispheres, and the temple of Janus was for the present closed.

BOOK V.

1812.

CHAPTER I.

AMERICAN ANNALS: Causes of the War—State of Parties—Outrage at Baltimore—Naval and Military Force of the United States—Invasion of Canada—Surrender of General Hull—Public Spirit of the Western States—Siege of Fort Wayne—Expeditions of Generals Tupper and Hopkins—Northern Army—Affair of Queenstown—Operations of General Smyth—Naval Events—Cruise of Commodore Rodgers—Capture of the Alert—Escape of the Constitution—Capture of the Guerriere—of the Frolic—of the Macedonian—of the Java.

WHILE every nation of Europe, from the Baltic to the Tagus, had by turns experienced the miseries of war, the United States of America, separated by an immense ocean from the intrigues and ambition of monarchs, cultivated the arts and enjoyed the blessings of peace. The political constitution of the union, one of the happiest that human wisdom ever devised, had, by vesting the solid power of government in the people, secured them from the operation of many of the fruitful causes of foreign war. The family compacts of kings, the ambition of military monarchs, the desire of upholding or overturning particular dynasties, motives which have so often deluged Europe in blood, are fortunately unknown and unfelt in a republic. The expensiveness of war, the cost of which in the end falls always upon the people, is sufficient, in the absence of other reasons, to deter them, except in cases of urgent necessity, from playing at that brilliant and seductive game. In the French revolution, therefore, the citizens of the American republic saw nothing to induce a departure from their pacific attitude. They had no interests to sustain in requiring the continuance of monarchy in France, nor any passions to gratify at the expense of that unfortunate country; and although, from a knowledge of the blessings of freedom, they wished others to partake of it, yet they did not consider it incumbent upon them, with an untried constitution, and deficient means, to enter the lists with the monarchs of Europe, as the champions of French emancipation. The determination of remaining at peace was maintained through a series of aggression and insult from England and France, which would have driven any other nation, less prudent and calculating, to hostilities. It began to be evident, however, that America had reached the

utmost limits of endurance. The system of restriction upon her own commerce, of embargoes, and non-intercourse, and non- importation, had been tried in vain, and nothing was left but an appeal to the last resort of nations. The French decrees had insulted her dignity as an independent nation, and furnished a justifiable and sufficient ground of war; but they were generally inoperative, from the maritime situation of that country; and had war been declared against her, it would from the same cause have been merely nominal. The injuries received from England were both more numerous and more flagrant. The causes of complaint against that country resolved themselves into four: the vexatious arrests and search of American vessels—the impressment of American seamen—the extension of the system of blockade—and the rigorous execution of the orders in council. The rise and progress of these aggressions have been noticed in a preceding part of this work; and it only remains to be added, that after enduring for years every species of outrage upon its commerce and dignity, America terminated the dispute by a formal declaration of war, on the 18th of June, 1812, the act declaring which, passed the senate by a vote of nineteen to thirteen, and the house of representatives by seventy-nine to thirty-nine.

Party spirit, the inseparable concomitant of a free government, raged at this period with great violence in the republic. The division of opinion had been of long standing, but turned now upon the propriety of the measures adopted by the government in relation to foreign powers. By the party who styled themselves federalists, every measure of opposition or defence against the encroachments of England had been systematically condemned; and while at one period they ridiculed the

pacific and self-denying expedients of embargoes and non-importations, and called loudly for more energetic measures; at a subsequent time, when hostilities were approaching, they contended with equal warmth that sufficient causes of war did not exist. This inconsistency, and their uniform and undeviating system of opposition to the measures of the government, with their apparent insensibility to the insults received from England, cannot fail to excite the censure of posterity. In their zeal to obtain the places of their opponents, they appear too often to have forgotten the cause of their country, and to have been disposed to sacrifice its best interests at the shrine of ambition or revenge. The republican, or democratic party, on the other hand, was in possession of the reins of government, which they had held since the accession of Mr. Jefferson to the presidency in the year 1801. They were accused by their political opponents of a subserviency to the views of the French emperor, in compliance with whose wishes they now, it was said, endeavoured to involve the republic in hostilities with England. No proofs, however, were adduced of any preconcert between the American government and that of France; and it is the duty of an impartial historian to add, that the tenor of all the official papers published exhibits the utmost fairness and openness of conduct towards both belligerents.

The exasperation of party feelings led immediately after the declaration of war, to an event of the most unfortunate and disgraceful nature. A political journal called the *Federal Republican*, published in the city of Baltimore, had distinguished itself by its uniform and violent opposition to the measures of the government, and thus rendered itself obnoxious to a great majority of the inhabitants of that city, who were warm supporters of the administration. On the evening of the 20th of June, on which day some severe strictures on the recent declaration of war had appeared in its columns, the printing office of the newspaper was attacked by a number of persons, and the types, books, and furniture destroyed. The outrage became immediately the subject of legal investigation, and the publication of the paper was suspended for a short period, when it was resumed at Georgetown, in the district of Columbia. The proprietor of the journal, however, apparently determined to persevere in the exercise of his legal rights, returned to Baltimore, and with a number of his friends, who were provided with weapons and means of defence, took a house in that city from which a paper

containing violent and inflammatory remarks was issued on the 28th of July. In the course of the evening, a number of boys collected in front of the house, and by 9 o'clock a considerable mob had assembled. Stones were thrown at the windows, and attempts made to force the door. A volley was then fired from within, by which one man was killed, and several wounded. This event greatly irritated the populace, who brought up a cannonade with the intention of battering the house; but some of the police and other respectable citizens having interposed, the garrison agreed to surrender, on a promise of protection, and were escorted to the jail about seven o'clock in the morning of the 29th. To preserve the peace of the city, a detachment of militia was called out, for the purpose of protecting the jail; but such was the disposition of the people, that a very small number assembled, and there being no appearance of tumult, they were soon afterwards dismissed. Soon after dark, however, a crowd assembled in the vicinity of the prison, with an apparent determination of inflicting exemplary punishment on the offenders. Notwithstanding the strenuous opposition of the mayor of the city, they succeeded in forcing admittance, and rushed upon the objects of their fury. Several of the prisoners succeeded in escaping, but the greater part were severely beaten or wounded, and General Lingo, a gray-headed veteran of the revolution, expired beneath the blows of the sanguinary assailants. For the credit of the republic, it were to be wished that the event could be blotted for ever from her annals. The liberty of the press is the corner-stone of freedom, in modern times, and however violent or unpatriotic the language of the editors of the *Federal Republican* might have been, no excuse can be offered for the outrage upon law and humanity that ensued. The conduct of the city police appears to have been timid and undecided, and no doubt can exist, that if proper legal measures had been resorted to, this disgraceful scene might have been effectually prevented.

Before we enter into a narrative of the events which succeeded the declaration of war, it is proper to take a brief view of the means possessed by the government of prosecuting it. From the election of Mr. Jefferson to the presidency in 1801, to the year 1808, the whole regular army of the United States consisted of no more than three thousand men. In the latter year, an augmentation of 6000 men was directed; but no further addition was made to this force, until a short time previous to hostilities. On the 11th of January, 1812,

an act was passed, authorizing the president to raise ten regiments of infantry, two of artillery, and one of the light dragoons; making a total of twenty-five thousand men, to be enlisted for five years. On the 6th of the following month, an act authorizing the president to accept the services of any number of volunteers not exceeding fifty thousand, was passed into a law; and on the 10th of April, authority was given him to call upon the governors of the respective states, for their quotas of militia, one hundred thousand of whom, were directed to be held in readiness for service. A large nominal force was thus created, but the greater part of it existed only in name. Of the regular troops, scarcely one-fourth could have been enlisted when hostilities commenced; and these were necessarily raw and undisciplined. Few, even of the officers, were well acquainted with the art of war. Most of those who had served in the revolution were no more, and in the long period of peace which had elapsed, little opportunity was offered of an acquisition of military science. Of the volunteers, a very small proportion of the expected number came forward, and the embodying and organization of the militia, was attended with great difficulty and inconvenience. Most of the systems by which the militia of the different states were regulated, were injudicious and defective. Both officers and men were undisciplined, and so short was their term of service, that they had barely time to make themselves acquainted with the rudiments of military knowledge, when their places were supplied by others, who had the same course of instruction to go through. More serious difficulties, however, occurred with respect to the militia of some of the eastern states. The constitution of the United States gives to congress power "to provide for calling forth the militia, to execute the laws of the union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions,"* and declares that the president shall be "Commander-in-chief of the militia of the several states when called into the service of the United States."† From the construction given to these articles by the national, and most of the state governments, it was supposed that the power of determining when the exigencies existed in which the militia were to be called forth, was vested in congress, and that the right of commanding the whole militia being given to the president, the right of commanding a portion of it equally belonged to him, which power he might lawfully delegate to any other officer, provided he were not inferior in

rank to the commander of the drafted militia. A different view, however, of the case was taken by the governors of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island, in which they were supported by the decision of the judges of the supreme court of Massachusetts. They maintained that the state governments had a right to exercise a discretion on the subject of calling forth the militia, and to determine when the necessity existed; and while it was admitted that the president had the power of commanding, if present, it was denied that he could constitutionally devolve the command upon another. The arguments by which these opinions were supported, were more specious than solid: the danger of a consolidation of the militia in the hands of an ambitious leader was dwelt upon, while the more immediate and urgent danger of invasion and devastation was overlooked. The militia of these states were therefore withheld from the public service at this important crisis, by men who, at a subsequent period, did not hesitate to threaten the whole national fabric with dissolution.

At the moment when America declared war against the most powerful maritime state in the world, her own naval force did not include a single ship of the line;* and the utter annihilation of her frigates and smaller vessels was confidently predicted in England. Even in America, little hope was entertained of an acquisition of glory from a contest with the vessels of a nation which had obtained for some time the undisputed sovereignty of the ocean, both by its numerical force and the skill and valour of its seamen; and however great the

* PUBLIC ARMED VESSELS OF THE UNITED STATES,
At the commencement of hostilities, in 1812.
In Actual Service.

<i>Names.</i>	<i>Rats.</i>	<i>Guns actually mounted.</i>	<i>Commanders.</i>
Constitution,	44	52	Capt. Hull.
United States,	44	52	Decatur.
President,	44	52	Rodgers.
Congress,	36	49	Smith.
Essex,	32	40	Porter.
John Adams,	20	26	Ludlow
Wasp,	16	18	Jones.
Argus,	16	18	Sinclair.
Syren,	16	18	Lieut. Carroll.
Hornet,	16	18	Capt. Lawrence.
Vixen,	14	16	Lieut. Gadsden.
Enterprise,	14	16	Blakeley.
Nautilus,	14	16	Crane.
Viper,	10	12	Bainbridge
<i>On Lake Ontario.</i>			
Oneida,	16	18	Com'dt. Woolsey.
<i>In Ordinary.</i>			
Chesapeake,	36	49	
New York,	36	49	
Adams,	32	40	
Boston,	32	40	

Bombs Vengeance, Spitfire, Ætna, Vesuvius.

* Article 1. sect. viii.

† Article 2. sect. ii.

bravery of the American sailors, they were supposed to be wanting in that discipline which their adversaries had acquired by their frequent wars.

To the operations therefore of the land forces, the public attention was at first more particularly directed. The territory of Canada, the only part of the British empire which could at this period be conveniently assailed by the armies of the republic, had been for some time threatened with invasion. The capture of that province had been a favourite theme with many American orators, and the design of invading it was openly avowed in Congress long previous to the declaration of war. The British government had therefore ample opportunity to put it in a state of complete defence, and to supply it with regular troops from England, independent of the local militia and volunteers, of which no inconsiderable force might be assembled. The American troops, destined for the invasion of Canada from the northwestern frontier, amounted to about twenty-five hundred men; one half of whom were drafted militia from the state of Ohio, and were placed under the command of Brigadier-general Hull of the regular army. After a long and toilsome march, this officer arrived with his army at Detroit on the 5th of July; and on the 12th, crossed the river which divides the territory of Michigan from Upper Canada, without opposition, and fixed his head-quarters at Sandwich. From this place, he issued a proclamation to the inhabitants of Canada, inviting them to remain at their homes, promising them freedom and protection; but threatening a war of extermination, in case of the employment of the Indian tribes by the British government. The tomahawk, however, had been already raised by the savages, who, in this war as well as in that of the revolution, were subsidised by the enemy, who appears to have used no effort to restrain their vindictive cruelty. In consequence of a fatal and censurable neglect in the general government or its officers, they had already been successful in an important enterprise. Fort Michilimackinac, situated on Lake Huron, the most northern military post of the United States, which had been found of great service in overawing the Indian tribes in the vicinity, was surprised on the 17th of July by a large body of British and savages, and its commander, who was ignorant of the commencement of hostilities, compelled to surrender. This unfortunate event had a material influence on the operations of General Hull, by deciding most of the Indian tribes in that quarter to hostilities with the United States.

In the mean time, the main body of the American army had lain inactive at Sandwich. On the 16th, Colonel Cass, with about 300 men, advanced to the river Aux Canards, within five miles of Malden, where he found a strong body of the enemy posted for the defence of the bridge. He immediately attacked them, and after a short conflict, drove them across the river with some loss. He then returned to camp, and on the succeeding day it was discovered that the enemy had returned, destroyed the bridge, and thrown up an intrenchment on the south bank of the river. From this period, no movement was made in advance by the American general. Instead of planting his standard on the walls of Malden, he began to find his own situation a critical one. His advance to Sandwich without leaving in his rear detachments sufficiently strong to keep open a communication with the country from which his supplies were to be drawn, was a radical error. The only practicable road which led from the settlements in Ohio to the American head-quarters, passed through Brownstown, almost within cannon shot of Malden, and was, therefore, completely under the command of the enemy. Early in August, information was received at Sandwich, that an escort of provisions had arrived at the River Raisin on its way to camp, and that a detachment of British and savages had crossed to Brownstown for the purpose of intercepting it. Major Vanhorn, of the Ohio volunteers, was then despatched with about two hundred men, to open the communication. In the vicinity of Brownstown he fell into an ambuscade, the consequence of his disregard to military rules, and was totally routed, with the loss of many valuable officers and men. The main body of the American army had now recrossed to Detroit, and evacuated the Canadian territory; but its difficulties on the score of provisions still existed. Another attempt was therefore made on the 8th, to obtain supplies, by a detachment of about 600 men, chiefly regulars, under Lieutenant-colonel Miller. The enemy's corps, which was found posted behind an intrenchment near Brownstown, was charged with great gallantry, defeated, and pursued to some distance. Colonel Miller then advanced to Brownstown, but being short of provisions, he was compelled to halt there until a supply could be obtained from the camp. On the 14th, Colonel M'Arthur was sent with 300 men, to endeavour by a circuitous route to open a communication with Raisin, but, after marching twenty-four hours, this detachment was entangled in a marsh, and it was judged expedient to return.

But in the mean time affairs at Detroit had been brought to a crisis.

On the retreat of General Hull, the British army, which now amounted to about 1300 men, under the command of General Brock, advanced to Sandwich, and erected batteries opposite to the American post, having sent in a summons to General Hull, to which an immediate refusal was returned. Early on the 16th, their whole force crossed the Detroit, and advanced against the Americans. The latter, who were advantageously posted, appear to have been anxious to encounter the enemy, but to their utter astonishment, an order was received from the commander, directing the whole corps to return within the fort, where their arms were stacked, and the artillerymen forbidden to fire. In this situation, crowded in a narrow compass, almost every ball from the enemy took effect, and shortly afterwards, the general ordered a white flag to be hung out in token of surrender. A capitulation was soon agreed upon, by which the whole army, including the detachments under Colonel M'Arthur, were made prisoners of war, and an immense quantity of ammunition, with thirty-three pieces of cannon, became the spoils of the victors.

Thus terminated the first endeavour of the American forces to obtain a footing in Canada. The plan of the campaign appears to have been injudicious at the outset, and it is doubtful whether, under any officer, much ground could have been gained. The public mind in America was nevertheless strongly agitated by the conduct of General Hull. A deficiency of courage, as well as of judgment, was imputed to him, and even the charge of treason made part of the accusation, on which he was subsequently tried by a court-martial. After an impartial hearing, he was condemned to death by the court; but in consideration of his age and revolutionary services, the punishment was remitted by the president, who directed his name to be stricken off the rolls of the army.

However mortifying to the American people the surrender of General Hull, it produced no symptoms of despondency, nor abated their zeal in support of the war. In the states of Ohio and Kentucky, especially, from which the late army had been chiefly drawn, a desire to retrieve the character of their country, manifested itself in all classes. Previous to the surrender of Detroit, preparations had been made in Ohio for the formation of an additional army. Twelve hundred men, the remainder of the detached militia, were ordered to be immediately embodied and marched to Urbanna, under Brigadier-general Tupper. The

whole quota of Kentucky consisted of volunteers, who were organized into ten regiments, three of which, with the 17th United States regiment, amounting together to about 2000 men, were assembled at Georgetown, under Brigadier-general Payne, and on the news of the surrender of Detroit the remaining seven regiments were called into actual service. The whole quota of Kentucky was thus embodied, and the chief command conferred on William Henry Harrison, the governor of the Indiana territory, who was subsequently appointed by the general government a major-general in the regular army. To this force, was added a draft from the Virginia militia of fifteen hundred men, and one from Pennsylvania of two thousand. A considerable part of these forces being assembled at Cincinnati, on the 28th of August, a detachment of five hundred men was sent by General Harrison to the relief of Fort Wayne, an important post on the Little Miami, then invested by a body of Indians; and on the 6th of September, the remainder of the troops were put in motion for the same place. The whole force, amounting now to about two thousand two hundred men, arrived at Fort Wayne on the 12th, the besiegers having precipitately retired on their approach. The troops under the command of General Harrison were now formed into three divisions; the right, composed of Pennsylvania and Virginia militia, were to advance by Upper Sandusky; the centre, of twelve hundred Ohio militia, by Fort M'Arthur, the route of General Hull; and the left, under General Winchester, had proceeded as far as Fort Defiance, where it experienced great difficulties from a want of provisions. On the 4th of October, an expedition under General Tupper was despatched from the fort, for the purpose of dispersing the enemy. It returned, however, without effecting its object, in consequence of want of energy in their commander, and of subordination in the men. The same officer was shortly afterwards directed to take command of the centre division, with which he proceeded to Fort M'Arthur, and there projected another expedition to the rapids of Miami, from which, although great bravery and patience was displayed by the troops, little of importance resulted.

While these events occurred in the neighbourhood of Lake Erie, an attempt was made by a large body of Indians on Fort Harrison, a post on the Wabash, in the Indiana territory, garrisoned by about sixty men, under Captain Taylor. The attack and defence were conducted with unusual obstinacy, and terminated in

the retreat of the assailants. The intelligence of the investment of this fort, called out a host of volunteers from among the brave and adventurous people of Kentucky. A force of about two thousand men arrived at Fort Harrison soon after the retreat of the enemy; and on the 14th of October, Major-general Hopkins, their commander, set out with an expedition for the purpose of destroying the Kickapoo and other Indian towns. Such however was the insubordination of this assemblage, that after a few days' march, they returned, contrary to the orders of the commander, without having seen an enemy. Disappointed in this object, General Hopkins determined upon another enterprise, which terminated more successfully. On the 11th of November, he left Fort Harrison with about twelve hundred men, and completely destroyed two Indian towns, after a skirmish, in which he lost about eighteen men. The troops then returned to Fort Harrison, having conducted themselves with great propriety.

The northern frontier was, during this period, the scene of hostilities, which, though more honourable to the American arms, were yet hardly less disastrous. The chief command of the troops in that quarter had been given to Major-general Dearborn of the regular army, under whom were Brigadier-generals Bloomfield and Smyth, the former of whom was stationed at Plattsburgh, and the latter at Buffalo. The militia of the state of New York then in the service of the United States, were commanded by Major-general Van Rensselaer, and amounted to about twenty-four hundred men most of whom were stationed at Lewistown, in the vicinity of the Niagara. The season was far advanced, before the Americans could collect and organize a sufficient force to commence military operations. At length, General Van Rensselaer, yielding to the earnest desires of the militia, who threatened to return to their homes if hostilities were not attempted, determined to make an attack upon the British post at Queenstown. The morning of the 11th of October was fixed upon for this purpose, but owing to the inclemency of the weather the attack was postponed until the 13th. At dawn of that day, the advanced party, consisting of three hundred regulars, under Lieutenant-colonel Christie, and of a like number of militia, led by Colonel Van Rensselaer was embarked; but in consequence of the eddies in the river, the boats were in many instances carried below the point of landing, and exposed to a heavy fire from the enemy, who it appeared had received intelligence of the meditated attack, and was fully prepared to meet it.

Colonel Van Rensselaer, nevertheless, with about one hundred men, succeeded in gaining the shore, where he received several severe wounds while encouraging his small party to advance. Shortly afterwards, Colonel Christie landed with an additional force, which increased this small body to about six hundred men. The enemy was also powerfully reinforced by the arrival of General Brock with six hundred regulars. Notwithstanding this disparity of force, the American commander led on his detachment with the bayonet, and after a short contest, in which General Brock was mortally wounded, the British troops were forced to retire. Being reinforced by a large party of Indians, they again advanced to the attack, and were again routed by the cool intrepidity of the Americans, whose number was now augmented to about one thousand men. Considering the victory now as gained, General Van Rensselaer, who had crossed to the Canadian side for the purpose of fortifying his position, again recrossed, to accelerate the movements of the militia. To his surprise and mortification, he found that a great majority of this force, who had before appeared so eager to meet the enemy, now refused to pass the boundary, on the plea of constitutional privilege. This disgraceful pretext destroyed all hope of being able to retain the position at Queenstown, and such had been the dispersion of the boats, that few could be found to bring back the troops already landed. In the mean time, this small but valiant party was engaged in a desperate contest with the enemy, who, reinforced by a strong body of regulars and Indians from Fort George, had renewed the attack. At length, being driven to the water's edge, and finding no means of embarkation, they were compelled to surrender, to the number of three hundred and eighty-six regulars and three hundred and seventy-eight militia. The whole American loss, including prisoners, has been estimated at about one thousand men; that of the enemy was said by themselves not to have exceeded one hundred. This number is however manifestly underrated. The issue of the affair of Queenstown, reflected the deepest disgrace upon the main body of the militia, who at the moment when their brethren were falling under the superior numbers of the enemy, availed themselves of their constitutional privilege to remain idle on the American shore. The honour of their country was however sustained by the troops actually engaged, both regulars and militia, who did their duty against the enemy, and surrendered only when opposition became hopeless. The loss of Gen-

ral Brock was a severe blow to the British army, by whom his bravery and skill were highly estimated. The American prisoners were well treated by their Christian conquerors, but the conduct of the Indians towards them is said to have been barbarous in the extreme.

Shortly after this disastrous event, the command of the forces in this quarter devolved upon General Smyth, in consequence of the resignation of General Van Rensselaer, and this officer immediately made preparations for another expedition to the Canadian shore. In a boastful and inflated proclamation which he issued on the 12th of November, he called upon "the men of New York," by every motive which can actuate freemen, to lend their aid to the enterprise. Numbers flocked in consequence to his head-quarters, which were established at Buffalo on the east end of Lake Erie, and by this and other means a force of about 4500 men was assembled, consisting of regular troops and volunteers from New York, Pennsylvania, and Baltimore. After several attempts, the first day of December was fixed upon for the attack, which it was now determined should be made upon Queenstown and fort George. When the embarkation however was completed, it was found that the number of men by whom the descent was to be made, did not exceed 1500. A council of officers was then called, who decided unanimously that it was not expedient to proceed. The troops were therefore again debarked, and informed that the invasion of Canada was abandoned for the season. The caprice of their commander naturally excited great discontent in the minds of the militia and volunteers, and led to some violent and irregular proceedings. He contended, however, in his vindication, that the British force far exceeded his own, that the term of service of the volunteers had nearly expired, and that many of the militia had deserted, or manifested a spirit of insubordination and mutiny.

If the operations of the American land forces during this campaign, terminated in a manner little creditable to the republic, the issue of the naval conflicts shed a blaze of glory round her arms, equally brilliant and unexpected. The ocean had been for centuries the theatre of British triumph; there, in the language of one of her poets, was "her home," and on that element she was supposed to be invincible. From the days of Blake, the republican admiral of Cromwell, to those of Nelson, her reputation and skill had increased in a rapid progression, to which history had previously offered no parallel. Navy after navy had fallen before the disciplined valour of her

seamen, and at the period of the American war her vessels rode without a competitor, and with all the pride and insolence of triumph, over what was once considered the great highway of nations. Against an enemy whose great superiority of force was thus fortified by the moral influence of former victories, the American seamen, untried and unknown to each other, were now to contend, and there were few, even among the most sanguine, who did not look to the issue with apprehension. The first opportunity for an encounter between the hostile vessels, occurred immediately after the declaration of war. A squadron, composed of the frigates *President*, *Commodore Rodgers*; *United States*, *Captain Decatur*; *Congress*, *Captain Smith*; and sloops of war *Hornet* and *Argus*, sailed from New York on the 21st of June, in quest of a convoy of merchantmen from Jamaica. On the 24th, a sail was discovered, which proved to be the British frigate *Belvidera*, of 49 guns; chase was immediately given by the *President*, which, however, proved ineffectual. The superior sailing of the enemy enabled him to escape, though not without some loss, while the unfortunate bursting of a gun on board the *President*, killed or wounded sixteen persons. After a fruitless cruise, which was continued as far as the British channel, the squadron returned to the *United States* on 31st of August. An event occurred about the same period which displayed in a strong light the confident presumption of British officers in their own prowess. The frigate *Essex*, commanded by *Captain David Porter*, sailed from *Sandy Hook* on the 3d of July. Nothing of importance occurred until the 13th of August, when the *Alert*, a British sloop of war of 20 guns, ran down on the *Essex's* quarter, and commenced an action, which terminated in eight minutes, by her surrender, with seven feet water in her hold. The skill and enterprise of the American seamen was shown by another event, which must have convinced the British officers that they had different antagonists to encounter, from those they had formerly conquered. The frigate *Constitution*, *Captain Hull*, being on a cruise on the American coast, was discovered on the 17th of July, and chased by an enemy's squadron, consisting of a line-of-battle ship, four frigates, a brig, and a schooner. The wind was very light, and every expedient that naval experience could suggest, was resorted to by the enemy, to get up to the *Constitution*, but the superior and admirable skill of her officers baffled the pursuers, and after a chase of three days, she arrived in safety at Boston.

From this port, she again sailed on the 2d of August, on a cruise, the result of which has rendered imperishable the fame of this gallant ship, and broke, probably for ever, the spell of invincibility which seemed to hang over the British navy. On the 19th of August, at three in the afternoon, a vessel was observed standing under easy sail, and was soon discovered to be the British frigate *Guerriere*, of 49 guns, a ship which above all others it had been the desire of the American officers to meet, as she had long ridden in arrogant triumph on the American coast; but especially as her commander had recently sent in a challenge to any of the American frigates, requesting in laconic language the favour of "an interview" with them. Both parties were therefore desirous of and prepared for the contest; the first which had occurred since the revolution, between American and British vessels of equal force. As soon as his ship was cleared for action, Captain Hull bore down upon the enemy, his crew giving three cheers, and requesting to be laid alongside of her. After some manœuvring on the part of the *Guerriere*, the American frigate succeeded in obtaining an advantageous position on her beam, and at six o'clock commenced a heavy and well-directed fire, which terminated in thirty minutes by her surrender, with the loss of all her masts, and of fifteen killed, and sixty-three wounded. The *Constitution* received little essential injury, and had only seven killed, and a like number wounded. Her antagonist, however, had been so disabled, that it was found necessary to destroy her, and on the succeeding day she was blown up.

Such was the issue of this memorable conflict. The joy and triumph it excited in the bosoms of the American people, unused to conquest and uncertain of their own powers, were displayed in the reception of the victors, who returned to the United States shortly after the engagement. The thanks of Congress, and many of the states, were voted them, and all parties united in giving proofs of their gratitude to men who had so signally benefited their country. In England, on the other hand, the intelligence was received with surprise and mortification. The trifling disparity of force was not sufficient to account for the rapidity with which the victory was gained, and the imagination was tasked to discover reasons for so unlooked for an event. The size and strength of the *Constitution* were exaggerated, while it was pretended that a great part of her crew were Englishmen, and that the *Guerriere*, from the defective condition of her masts, was not in a fit state for a contest.

It was forgotten, however, or concealed, that the captain of the English frigate had invited the combat; and upon the whole, this engagement was considered, even in England, as laying the foundation in America of a great naval power.

If indeed any doubt could have been entertained of the ability of the republican navy to contend successfully with that of England, it was removed by the result of another engagement, which took place no long time afterwards, between two vessels of similar force to the *Constitution* and *Guerriere*. The frigate *United States*, Captain Decatur, sailed from Boston on the 8th of October, in company with the *President*, *Congress*, and *Argus*, and separated from them on the 13th. On the 25th, being off the Western Islands, she fell in with the British frigate *Macedonian*, of forty-nine guns and three hundred men, a vessel newly built and in a perfect state of equipment. Being to windward, the latter had the advantage of choosing her distance, and as the *United States* was in a great part armed with carronades, she was thus prevented from making use of a considerable portion of her force. In consequence of this circumstance, the action lasted an hour and a half, but when the American frigate was enabled to bring her opponent to close quarters, the engagement was soon terminated. The mizenmast and most of the spars of the *Macedonian* being shot away, she surrendered, with the loss of thirty-six killed and sixty-eight wounded. That of the *United States* was only four killed and seven wounded; among the former of whom was Lieut. John Musser Funk. The damage sustained by the *United States* was not so great as to render it necessary for her to return to port, but it was deemed proper to accompany her prize into the *United States*, where both vessels arrived on the 4th of December. The reception of Captain Decatur and his brave officers was not less flattering than that of their predecessor in victory; and the remembrance of his former exploits in the Mediterranean added to the public gratitude on this occasion.

Nearly at the same period of time, another brilliant victory was gained by an American vessel, after an engagement, in which the superiority in force and in the number of men lay on the side of the British. The *United States* sloop of war *Wasp*, Captain Jacob Jones, sailed from the Delaware on the 13th of October, on a cruise, during which nothing of importance occurred until the 18th, when a convoy of six merchantmen, protected by a sloop of war, was discovered. The *Wasp* instantly bore down, and at half-past eleven com-

menced a warm fire upon her antagonist, which was maintained at so short a distance, that in one instance the rammers of the *Wasp's* cannon were struck against the side of her enemy. The fire of the British vessel soon slackened, and after a sanguinary action of forty-three minutes, it was determined to board her. The boarders were led by Lieut. Biddle, and when they reached the enemy's deck, they found no person alive on it except three officers and the seaman at the wheel. The colours were hauled down by Lieut. Biddle, and possession was taken of the British national brig *Frolic*, of twenty-two guns, commanded by Captain Whinyates. Few actions on naval record have been more bloody than this. The decks of the British vessel were crowded with the dead and disabled, many of whom were crushed by the falling of her spars. Thirty of her crew are said to have been killed, and about fifty wounded; both of her masts were shot away, and at the close of the engagement she was reduced to the state of an unmanageable wreck. The *Wasp* also suffered severely in her spars and rigging, but her loss of men was comparatively trivial, only eight having been killed or wounded. The victors were unfortunately not destined to carry their well-earned prize into port. The engagement had hardly ceased, when a large vessel of war was discovered. In the crippled state of the *Wasp* and her prize, escape or resistance were equally hopeless; they were therefore obliged to surrender to the British ship *Poictiers*, of seventy-four guns, by which they were carried into Bermuda. Being some time afterwards exchanged, Captain Jones received, in addition to other rewards, the command of the frigate *Macedonian*, which had been purchased and added to the navy of the United States.

The close of this year was distinguished by another victory, not less brilliant than the preceding. After the return of the frigate *Constitution* to Boston, Capt. Hull resigned the command for the purpose of attending to his private concerns, and was succeeded by Captain William Bainbridge. Accompanied by the sloop of war *Hornet*, the *Constitution* sailed towards the end of October on a cruise to the coast of South America. On the 29th of December, after parting with the *Hornet*, which was left to blockade a sloop of war of equal force, and while near the Brazils, two sails were discovered, one of which bore away, and the other stood for the American frigate. The enemy was soon discovered to be the British ship of war *Java*, of forty-nine guns, and preparations were made on both sides for action. At two P. M. the action

commenced with great vigour, the enemy keeping at long shot; but the fire of the *Constitution* was directed with so much precision, that the *Java* was soon disabled in her spars and rigging, and Captain Bainbridge having taken a position nearer to his opponent, her fire was completely silenced about four o'clock. Concluding that she had struck, he passed ahead to repair the rigging, but finding shortly afterwards that the British flag was still flying, he took a raking position on her bows, and was about to commence a destructive fire, when the enemy called out that he had surrendered. It was soon perceived that the *Java* had been fought with so much obstinacy that she was not in a condition to be preserved as a trophy of American victory, and Commodore Bainbridge, having removed her crew and stores, destroyed her on the succeeding day. The loss of this vessel was a severe blow to the British. She was commanded by Captain Lambert, an officer of merit and experience, who was unfortunately killed during the action, and had on board one hundred supernumerary seamen for the East India service, besides a lieutenant-general, and other officers, and contained also stores of immense value. The loss of men was exceedingly great: sixty were killed, and upwards of one hundred wounded; while on board the *Constitution* nine only were killed, and twenty-five wounded. The damage, however, received by the latter, and her decayed state, made it necessary for her to return to the United States. After landing her prisoners at St. Salvador, on parole, she arrived in Boston on the 8th of the succeeding month. In this, as well as all the preceding actions, the difference between the loss of men on board the vessels engaged was strikingly conspicuous. In none of the engagements between the English and their European antagonists, had the disproportion been so manifest. The British writers, astonished at the result, accounted for it by supposing that riflemen were stationed in the tops of the American vessels, whereas in reality it is to be attributed to the great skill and experience in the act of firing possessed by the Americans of all classes, and the pains that had been taken to discipline them in the use of the great guns. If the bravery of the American seamen was conspicuous in these encounters, their generosity and humanity to their captives were not less strikingly evinced. The official letters of the British officers bore strong testimony to this fact; but while they acknowledged the delicacy and liberality of their enemy, they were not restrained in any one instance by similar feelings from exagge-

rating the force of the Americans and diminishing their own.

Six months had now elapsed since the commencement of hostilities, during which almost every national vessel of the United States had been on the ocean without any serious loss. Three small vessels only had been captured by the enemy; the *Wasp*, as we have seen, by a seventy-four gun ship; the schooner *Nautilus*, of twelve guns, by a squadron of frigates; and the *Vixen* gun-brig, by the frigate *Southampton*. With neither of them, therefore, was

any honour lost to the republic, while the brilliant victories which we have related, animated the nation with confidence, rendered the war more popular with all parties, and laid the foundation for a great naval force. On the other hand, the number of merchant vessels taken from the enemy previous to the month of November, is said to have exceeded two hundred and fifty, and more than three thousand prisoners fell into the hands of the American cruisers.

CHAPTER II.

AMERICAN ANNALS (continued): Armistice rejected—Meeting of Congress—President's Message—Increase of the Army and Navy—Presidential Election—Dissolution of Congress—Operations on the northwestern Frontier—Capture of Frenchtown—Massacre of Raisin—Siege of Fort Meigs—Ontario Frontier—Capture of Ogdensburg—of York—of Fort George—Affair at Stony Creek—at the Beaver dams—Attack on Sackett's Harbour—War in the Chesapeake Bay—Capture of the *Pescock*—of the *Chesapeake*—of the *Argus*—of the *Boxer*—Privateers—Squadrons under Commodore Rodgers and Decatur.

THE revocation of the orders in council, a measure produced by a knowledge of the misery it occasioned in England, rather than by a feeling of respect for neutral rights, took place, as has been previously observed, a few days after the American declaration of war, but before intelligence of that event could have reached Great Britain. The existence of those orders was one of the principal causes of war, and had their abrogation taken place a few months earlier, it is probable the American government would not have deemed it expedient to resort to hostilities. But coming, as it did, after the sword had been unsheathed, and with other and weighty causes of war unredressed, it was not considered in America a sufficient reason for a cessation of arms. Immediately after the declaration of war, Mr. Russell, the agent of the United States at London, was instructed to communicate to the British court the readiness of his government to conclude an armistice, on condition that the orders in council should be repealed, and that the practice of impressment should be discontinued. As an inducement to the British government to consent to the latter proposition, Mr. Russell was authorized to declare that a law would be passed to prevent the employment of British seamen in vessels of the United States, by which measure it was conceived the necessity of impressment would in fact be removed. To this, and a subsequent overture, made after the news of the repeal of the orders in council had reached America, a cold and

repulsive answer was given by Lord Castlereagh, and the negotiation terminated by the return of Mr. Russell to the United States.

Soon after this period, a proposal for an armistice from the governor-general of Canada, founded on the repeal of the orders in council, was received at Washington, but rejected on the ground of its being too indefinite, and as not providing for the other causes of complaint. A subsequent proposition, made by Admiral Warren, who had recently arrived on the American coast with a powerful fleet, produced no more favourable result. The great question of impressment, it was conceived by the government of the United States, should be satisfactorily adjusted before a suspension of hostilities was agreed to; and as the powers of the British admiral did not appear to extend to that subject, the negotiation ceased, and preparations were made on both sides for a continuance of the contest.

While the affairs of the country were in this condition, the Congress of the United States assembled at Washington, on the 2d of November, 1812, after a recess of only four months. In his customary communication to both houses, at the opening of the session, the president took a general view of the civil and military operations of the past year. The expedition under General Hull was represented as a measure of forecast and precaution, with a general view to the security of the Michigan territory, and in the event of a war, to

such operations in Canada as would intercept the hostile influence of Great Britain over the savages: obtain the command of the lake on which that part of Canada borders; and maintain co-operating relations with such forces as might be most conveniently employed against other parts. This expedition, though favoured with the prospect of an easy and victorious progress, terminated unfortunately, and the cause of these painful reverses was under the investigation of a military tribunal. A distinguishing feature of the operations which preceded and followed the surrender of General Hull and his army, was the use made by the British of the merciless savages under their influence, in violation of the laws of honourable warfare, contrary to the benevolent policy of the United States, and against the most sacred feelings of our nature. The misfortune at Detroit, however, it was said, was not without its consoling effects; it was followed by signal proofs that the natural spirit rises with the pressure on it. The message then adverted to the unfortunate issue of the affair at Queenstown, in which the American troops, although raw and unexperienced, were for a time victorious over veterans; but not receiving the expected support, they were compelled to yield to numbers. On the lakes, preparations were making to secure a naval ascendancy, so essential to a permanent peace with, and control over the savages. Among the incidents of the measures of the war, the president then felt himself constrained to notice the refusal of the governors of Massachusetts and Connecticut to furnish the requisite detachments of militia, the consequences of persisting in which, were strongly commented upon. On the coasts and on the ocean, the war had been as successful as circumstances, inseparable from its early stages, could promise. The enemy had become sensible of the difference between a reciprocity of captures, and the long confinement of them to their side. The American commerce had been protected by the squadron under Commodore Rodgers; and the capture of the *Guerriere*, had obtained an auspicious triumph for the skill and bravery of the American seamen. The negotiations, subsequent to the declaration of war, were then presented to the view of Congress, and, after a brief notice of the relations of the republic with foreign nations, the attention of that body was directed to the insufficiency of the existing provisions for filling up the military establishment. Additional pay and inducements to enlist were recommended, as well as an increase of the general officers, and a better organization of the staff depart-

ment; and an enlargement of the navy was also suggested. The receipts into the treasury during the year, ending on the 30th of September, were said to have exceeded sixteen millions of dollars, including a sum of nearly six millions received on account of loans authorized by Congress, which were sufficient to defray all the demands on the treasury to that day, including a reimbursement of nearly three millions of the public debt. The whole sum contracted for, on loan, amounted to eleven millions—the residue of which, with the current revenue, would, it was supposed, be sufficient to defray the expenses of the year. The message then concluded with expressions of confidence in the final success and prosperity of the republic, founded on what was considered the flattering state of its pecuniary resources, and on the strength and spirit of the nation.

One of the first objects to which the attention of Congress was turned, was the army; both the amount and organization of which had been found defective. After considerable discussion, it was determined, that the president should be authorized to raise by enlistment such number of regiments of infantry, not exceeding twenty, as, in his opinion, should be necessary—the recruits to serve for one year, unless sooner discharged, and to receive a bounty of sixteen dollars each, with the same pay as those of the former military establishment, which, by another act, was increased two dollars per month. The laws previously passed in relation to volunteer corps were repealed, it having been found that little substantial benefit was derived from them; and at a later period of the session, authority was given to the executive to raise ten additional companies of rangers. The regular force of the United States was now increased to about fifty-five thousand men, and a correspondent augmentation of the general officers being necessary, the president was authorized to appoint six additional major-generals and six brigadiers, and to the departments of adjutant, inspector, and quartermaster-general, were added a considerable number, and a greater variety of officers. The navy became next the subject of legislative provision. The recent exploits of its gallant officers had done much to remove the prejudices which had been for some time entertained against that species of force, and created a desire in the public mind to see its capacity more commensurate with its enterprise. A bill was therefore introduced and adopted by both houses, though not without a strenuous opposition, which directed the construction of four ships of seventy-four guns, and six frigates of forty-four guns

each. Another act authorized the building of six additional sloops of war, and such number of vessels on the lakes as the public service might require. In testimony of their sense of the gallant conduct of Captains Hull, Decatur, Jones, and the other officers, Congress directed medals to be presented to them, and, besides purchasing the vessels captured from the enemy, directed a suitable remuneration to be made for those which had been destroyed. In the negotiations which took place between the American and British governments, soon after the declaration of war, we have seen that a proposition was made by the former to exclude British seamen altogether from its service. During this session, a law to that effect was passed, which it was conceived would remove an important obstacle in the way of peace. Having increased the army and navy, it became necessary to procure means for defraying the augmented expense. The receipts for the ensuing year were estimated at about twelve millions, while the necessary disbursements, it was supposed, would exceed thirty-one millions. To provide for the deficiency, the president was authorized to borrow a sum not exceeding sixteen millions, and to issue treasury notes to the amount of five millions. The loan was subsequently effected on terms very unfavourable to the government, in consequence of the want of sufficient provision for the payment of the interest. The returns of the general election for the office of President and Vice-president of the United States, having been counted during this session, it appeared that James Madison and Elbridge Gerry had the highest number of votes, and were therefore duly elected to fill those offices. Its term of service having expired, Congress adjourned on the 3d of March, 1813.

Until the close of the year 1812, few events of material importance occurred on the northwestern frontier. The task which had been devolved on General Harrison, of carrying on the operations of the war through an intricate and difficult country, with his divided and undisciplined force, was one of a very arduous nature. He had been directed by the administration to attempt the recovery of Detroit, and the capture of Malden, without delay; but at this season of the year an expedition for that purpose was attended by almost insurmountable obstacles. Not the least of them was the difficulty of obtaining provisions. The Michigan territory afforded no species of supplies, which must necessarily have been brought through a swampy wilderness of nearly two hundred miles, at an enormous expense. The sufferings ex-

perienced by the troops, at this inclement season, were of the most painful nature. Many of the militia were without covering to their feet, and a fine body of regulars were nearly destroyed for want of clothing. In his despatches to the government, General Harrison strongly insisted upon the necessity of obtaining the command of the lake, before any effectual operations could be carried on, on its borders, and the administration now began at last to turn its attention to that object. The whole force destined for the opening of the campaign, was estimated at ten thousand men; but from the extreme rigour of the season, it did not much exceed six thousand, all of whom were infantry. The plan now laid down by General Harrison was, to occupy the rapids of the Miami, with between four and five thousand men, to collect provisions there, and from thence to move with a select detachment, and making a feint upon Detroit, to pass the strait upon the ice and invest Malden. The force which it was proposed to assemble at the rapids, was to advance from Fort Defiance, Fort M'Arthur, and Upper Sandusky. To the latter place, General Harrison proceeded about the 8th of January.

General Winchester, whom in the last chapter we left at Fort Defiance, moved forward from that place, in conformity with his orders, on the 30th December. During his march, he received from the commanding general information of the presence of a large Indian force on the Wabash, and was recommended to fall back to Fort Jennings; but this advice not being imperative on him, he continued his movement, and arrived at the Rapids on the 10th of January, where he immediately formed a fortified camp on an eminence surrounded with prairies. While at this place, intelligence was received that a body of Indians was in the vicinity of Frenchtown, on the river Raisin, and had threatened to destroy the village and massacre the inhabitants. It was therefore determined by a council of war, that a strong detachment should be sent on to that place. Accordingly, on the 17th, Colonel Lewis was despatched with about six hundred and fifty men. On his march, he received information that the Indian force at Frenchtown amounted to about five hundred men, and he resolved to dislodge them before the arrival of an expected reinforcement from Malden under Colonel Elliot. The enemy were found in a state of preparation, and a warm contest ensued, which ended in their being driven out of the town, from which they were pursued about two miles. They consisted of one hundred whites and four hundred Indians, the whole being under the com-

mand of Major Reynolds of the British regulars. The news of this success being communicated to General Winchester, he immediately advanced with a reinforcement of two hundred and fifty men to Frenchtown, where he arrived on the night of the 20th, and encamped in an open lot on the right of Colonel Lewis's detachment, which was protected in its encampment by some close garden pickets. Late on the succeeding evening, information was given to General Winchester, by a person who had recently left Malden, that a large force of British and Indians was about to march from that place. To this intelligence, little attention appears to have been paid; the whole army seems to have thought itself perfectly secure, and such was the negligence of the American commander, that no picket guard was placed on the road by which the enemy was to be expected. The latter was thus enabled to approach the camp without discovery, and to station their cannon behind a small ravine, at a distance of only three hundred yards. At daylight on the 22d, they opened a heavy fire from these pieces, and made at the same time a general charge on the American line. The reinforcement, which had arrived on the preceding evening, being totally unprotected, were soon routed, and retreated in disorder across the river. In their flight, they passed down a long and narrow lane, on both sides of which the savages were stationed, by whom they were shot down in great numbers, officers as well as men. Colonel Allen and Captains Simpson and Mead were killed, and General Winchester and Colonel Lewis made prisoners. That part of the force, however, which had been stationed behind the pickets maintained its post with great bravery. The British and their allies had been more than once repulsed by this small party, when about eleven o'clock a flag of truce was received, conveying an order from General Winchester, then in the power of the enemy, to surrender. This order had been issued by the American general on an assurance from the British commander, that nothing but an immediate capitulation could save the remaining Americans from massacre. Finding that there was no prospect of relief or retreat, the party within the picket consented to lay down their arms on condition of being protected from the Indians, and that the sick and wounded should be sent to Amherstburg the next day. Colonel Proctor, the British commander, having acceded to these conditions, marched at twelve o'clock with his prisoners, leaving Major Reynolds, with some others, in charge of the wounded.

The Indians who had participated in the engagement, left Frenchtown with their allies, but proceeded only a few miles on the road to Malden, and at sunrise on the succeeding day returned to the village. Then began a scene of cruelty and outrage, unparalleled in the history of modern times. The houses in which the unfortunate wounded were confined, were entered, and most of them massacred in cold blood by the unfeeling savages, or destroyed by the flames in which the dwellings were soon afterwards involved. Neither officers nor men were spared. Majors Graves and Woolfolk, Captain Hart, inspector-general, and Captain Hickman are enumerated among the victims of this dreadful day. The number massacred has never been actually ascertained. Of the whole American force previous to the engagement, only thirty-three escaped to the Rapids. Five hundred and forty-seven were taken prisoners by the British, and forty-five by the Indians. Two hundred and ninety were killed during the battle, or put to death subsequently, or were never afterwards heard of. It is difficult to allude to the part which the British officers bore in this transaction, without overstepping the tempered language of history. Posterity will hardly credit the fact, that these cruelties were perpetrated without the slightest interference on their part, and in violation of their most solemn promises. They were perpetrated too, not upon savages, who had themselves violated the laws of humanity, but upon civilized and honourable men, whose warfare had been marked by the most scrupulous regard to those laws, upon men who bore the same complexion, spoke the same language, professed the same religion, and descended from a common origin with themselves. Had they no other claims on the humanity of the British officers, their wounded and helpless state ought to have been of itself sufficient to protect them from outrage. In the softened code of modern war, those who are disabled, as well as those who by their sex or age, are incapacitated from bearing arms, are exempted from the sword of the conqueror. It was reserved for a British army to set the first example of a violation of this honourable rule, a precedent which they may hereafter have full occasion to lament.*

General Harrison in the mean time did

* It will hardly be credited that the assembly of Lower Canada, in passing a vote of thanks to Colonel Proctor for his conduct on this occasion complimented him for his "exemplary humanity!" and yet such is the fact. Even the British historian who records it, confesses his astonishment at this resolve.—See *Christie's History of the late War*.

not receive intelligence of the intended advance of General Winchester from the Rapids until the 16th of January, when he immediately gave orders for the movement of the artillery, accompanied by a guard of three hundred men, to the latter place. He himself proceeded to Lower Sandusky, where he directed a brigade under General Perkins, to move to the Rapids, and on the 20th arrived in person at that place. Here he found that General Winchester had already advanced to Frenchtown, leaving behind him about three hundred men; and having despatched an order to him to hold his position, he set out on the 22d with a reinforcement to his support. The news of the melancholy and irretrievable defeat of the preceding day, met them on the road, and nothing was left but a return to the Rapids, which was accomplished without loss. The force now assembled at this place did not exceed nine hundred men, with only one piece of artillery, and it was determined by a council of war that it would be expedient to fall back. On the succeeding day, the army retired as far as Portage river, eighteen miles in the rear, where it remained until the 2d of February, when a reinforcement being received, which increased its numbers to about one thousand seven hundred men, it again advanced to the Rapids, and encamped on the southeast side of the river. This position, General Harrison now determined to fortify, and under the direction of Captain Wood intrenchments were thrown up, and the whole camp, about two thousand five hundred yards in circumference, protected by pickets. The post thus fortified was denominated Fort Meigs.

The enemy, it had been evident for some time, was preparing for an attack on this position, and as the term of service of the militia was now nearly expired, General Harrison was earnestly employed in increasing his force, which was reduced, on the beginning of April, to about seven hundred men. An additional draft of three thousand men was made from the militia of Kentucky, in pursuance of an act of the legislature, which was organized into four regiments, and placed under the command of Brigadier-general Green Clay. A reinforcement of about four hundred men arrived at the fort on the 12th of April, and was followed a short time subsequently by a battalion of the new Kentucky draft. The remainder of that force had proceeded as far as Fort Defiance on the 3d of May, when intelligence was received that the enemy had invested Fort Meigs. On the 28th of April, a large body of British and Indians were discovered

within a few miles of the fort, and as soon as their ordnance was landed, it was completely invested. The cannonading commenced on the 1st of May, and was continued for several days without producing any important effect, except the death of Major Stoddard, of the regular army, an officer of great merit; but the fire of the Americans was more economized, on account of the scarcity of ammunition. In the mean time, a reinforcement of one thousand two hundred Kentuckians, under General Clay, was descending the river, with the hope of being able to penetrate into the fort. Hearing of their approach, General Harrison sent directions to General Clay, to land about eight hundred men from his brigade, on the left bank, about a mile from the fort, to storm the batteries, spike the cannon, and cross to the encampment. The remainder of the approaching party were ordered to land on the right side, and fight their way through the Indians into the fort. During this operation, General Harrison intended to send a party from the fort to destroy the batteries on the south side.

The landing of General Clay's command was effected in conformity with this plan. The party on the left bank surprised the British batteries, but in consequence of the fatal want of proper authority or direction in the officer commanding, they were suffered to loiter away their time, without spiking the cannon or destroying the carriages. In spite of the orders and entreaties of General Harrison, they remained until a reinforcement arrived from the British camp, by whom they were speedily routed, and of this fine body of men about five hundred were killed or fell into the hands of the enemy. The party on the right bank succeeded in gaining the fort, though not without considerable loss, the consequence of their own imprudence. The sortie made from the fort was, however, attended with much more success. The assailing body, consisting of about three hundred and fifty men, under Colonel Miller of the regulars, stormed the British batteries, drove back their opponents, who were supposed to be double their numbers, and having spiked the cannon, returned with forty prisoners. From this period until the 9th, no event of importance occurred. The British commander had not succeeded in making an impression on the fort, and at length, finding that his Indian allies became weary of the length of the siege, he embarked his whole force, and retreated with little molestation from the garrison.

The operations of the war on the northern frontier, during the early part of the

spring of 1813, were not remarkable for important events. A species of partisan hostility had been carried on about the close of the winter, between small bodies of troops stationed on both sides of the St. Lawrence. In the month of February, an incursion was made into Canada by Major Forsyth, an enterprising officer, who, with a party of riflemen and volunteers, surprised an enemy's post, captured fifty-two prisoners, besides a large quantity of military stores, and returned without the loss of a man. In retaliation for this exploit, a large British force attacked the town of Ogdensburg, in two columns of six hundred each, on the 21st of February, and after a sharp contest, drove the American troops out of it, and having sacked the place, retired on the same day.

About the middle of April, a large portion of the regular army was concentrated at Sackett's Harbour, under the immediate command of Major-general Dearborn, and it became evident that some attempt on the opposite shore was in contemplation. The squadron under Commodore Chauncey was also assembled at this place for the conveyance of troops as soon as the ice would admit of naval operations. The navigation of the lake being open, the army, to the number of about seventeen hundred, was embarked on board the squadron, and sailed from Sackett's Harbour on the 25th of April. On the 27th they arrived off the town of York, the capital of Upper Canada. In consequence of the freshness of the wind, they were unable to land at the point originally intended; and when they at length reached the shore, they found themselves opposed by the whole force of the enemy, which consisted of seven hundred regulars and militia, and about one hundred Indians. The landing was, however, effected by the riflemen under Major Forsyth, who for half an hour made a stand against the greatly superior numbers of the enemy. The main body, under General Pike, then debarked, and, after a sharp contest, drove their opponents before them to the British batteries, which they carried by assault. Led by its gallant commander, the American column was then moving on to the main works, when a sudden and violent explosion took place from the magazine, which made a dreadful havoc in the ranks, and for a moment checked their progress. Numbers were killed by the falling of the stones and timber; among whom was their brave leader, General Pike. The command then devolved upon Colonel Pearce; General Dearborn having remained on board the squadron. The enemy's regular troops in the mean time had effected their retreat,

leaving the town of York to be defended by the militia, who soon afterwards entered into a capitulation with the American commander, surrendering the town with all public property. The enemy had time, however, previous to their retreat, to destroy a large quantity of stores, and a frigate nearly completed. The prisoners taken amounted to forty officers and two hundred and fifty-one non-commissioned officers and privates, the greater part of whom were of the militia. The loss of the enemy was estimated by General Dearborn at one hundred killed, and three hundred wounded, exclusive of the prisoners. The British accounts acknowledged to have lost only one hundred and thirty in killed and wounded.

The capture of York was dearly purchased by the Americans. Besides the loss of three hundred and twenty men, thirty-eight of whom were killed, and two hundred and twenty-two wounded by the explosion of the magazine, the death of General Pike was a serious calamity. This gallant officer, possessing at once the enterprise and ardour of youth, and the skill and coolness of a veteran, promised to become one of the brightest ornaments of the American army. His reputation was already high; although a strict disciplinarian, he had made himself the idol of the soldiery, who followed him with an enthusiasm and a confidence in his abilities that could not fail to ensure them success. He perished, the victim of a perfidious and unmanly stratagem;* but retained to his last moments that love of honour and that devotion to the interests of his country, which had marked every action of his preceding life.

Having in a great measure accomplished the object of its expedition, the troops were re-embarked on board the squadron, which

* It has been pretended by some British writers, that this explosion was the result of accident, and Mr. Baines, in the London edition of this work, declares the imputation of its having been intentional, to be "calumnious and unfounded." On the other hand, General Dearborn, in his official despatches, calls it a preconcerted measure; and a late British author, who is in general sufficiently favourable to his own countrymen, confirms this idea by the following expressions. "The land forces under General Pike advanced through a little wood to the main works; when at the distance of sixty rods from them, a tremendous explosion took place from a magazine *previously prepared*, which, discharging an immense quantity of rubbish, spread havoc among their troops, and killed a number of their officers and men."—Account of the War, &c. by Robert Christie, p. 104. As a suitable accompaniment to this tragedy, it may be added, that a *human scalp*, was found suspended over the chair of the speaker, in the house appropriated to the sittings of the legislature of Upper Canada.

sailed for Sackett's Harbour on the 10th, and having landed the wounded and received a supply of provisions, it again left that port on the 24th, with a reinforcement of about three hundred and fifty artillery and some ordnance. The reduction of Fort George was next to be attempted. The squadron, being anchored within musket shot of the shore, commenced a heavy fire, by which the enemy's batteries were soon silenced. The troops then proceeded to the beach in three divisions, and landed under a heavy fire from the enemy. The latter speedily gave way on the advance of the Americans, and retreated with precipitation to the fort; but finding it untenable from the heavy fire of the ships, they again retired and dispersed in various directions, having previously endeavoured to fire the magazine without success. They were pursued to a considerable distance by the American light troops. The British loss on this occasion was estimated at one hundred and eight killed, one hundred and sixty wounded, and six hundred and fifteen prisoners; that of the Americans was thirty-nine killed and a hundred and ten wounded. The conduct and discipline of the American troops on this occasion, were such as to entitle them to the highest praise, and led the public to draw flattering anticipations of subsequent triumphs. In these hopes, however, they were destined to be disappointed, from the ignorance or mismanagement of some of their commanders.

After their defeat at Fort George, the British troops under General Vincent, retired to the heights of Burlington, near the head of Lake Ontario, where they were joined by reinforcements from Fort Erie and Chippewa. For the purpose of dislodging them from this post, the brigades of Generals Chandler and Winder were detached on the 1st of June. On the 5th, they advanced to Stony Creek, and encamped on its bank for the night, having taken the usual precautions against a surprise. In this position, the enemy, whose situation had become dangerous, determined upon a nocturnal attack. At two o'clock in the morning of the 6th, a column of about seven hundred regulars having bayoneted the sentinels and passed by the advanced guard without notice, made a furious assault upon the centre of the American encampment. The line of the latter was soon formed, and a heavy fire opened upon the enemy, who profiting by the darkness of the night, moved to the left, where the artillery was stationed, and driving the men from their pieces, succeeded in capturing four cannon, which they turned upon the Americans. Ignorant of the

cause of this firing, Generals Chandler and Winder advanced to the spot, and were both taken prisoners. The day was now dawning, and the American troops being able to discover the position of their assailants, were commencing a fire upon them, when they retreated with their booty, though not without considerable loss. On the same morning, the former, instead of pursuing an enemy so far inferior in numbers, fell back to a position ten miles in the rear. The issue of this affair, while it reflected great discredit on the commanding officers, lost the troops generally no reputation. They received the enemy with great bravery, and a degree of coolness which would have done honour to men who had seen more service. The loss of the British was considerable. One hundred prisoners were taken by the Americans. One hundred and fifty-four of the latter were killed, wounded, or captured. On the 8th, the whole force, which began now to be pressed by the enemy, was concentrated in Fort George, under the orders of General Dearborn. That officer, having learned that a body of the enemy was stationed at the Beaver Dams, about seventeen miles from Fort George, detached Colonel Boerstler on the 24th, with about six hundred men, for the purpose of dispersing them. At a short distance from Queenstown, the detachment was assailed by a party of Indians, who were speedily assisted by a small force of British regulars. The Americans were formed into a close column, and returned the fire of the enemy until their ammunition was expended. In this situation, they were called upon to surrender by the British commander, who informed Colonel Boerstler that his force was greatly superior in numbers. Yielding perhaps too ready an ear to this statement, the latter consented to capitulate. His troops were surrendered prisoners of war, and laid down their arms at the head of the British column. It afterwards appeared that the whole force of the enemy, including regulars, militia, and Indians, did not exceed three hundred and fifty men. When the superior numbers of the American detachment are considered, this affair must necessarily be regarded as highly disgraceful to the arms of the republic; and following so soon after the unfortunate event at Stony Creek, it produced great mortification in the minds of the American people, and led to a change in the chief command of the forces on the Ontario frontier. Shortly after the surrender of Colonel Boerstler, General Dearborn was directed to withdraw, and was succeeded in the command at Fort George by Brigadier-general Boyd.

While the spirit and reputation of a brave body of troops were thus frittered away in a succession of ill-directed and disastrous engagements, the enemy had met with a signal repulse, in a conflict in which he had every reason to look for success. Sackett's Harbour, the most important post on the American shore of Lake Ontario, as being the deposit of immense quantities of military and naval stores, and the place at which the vessels of war were constructed, was left by General Dearborn, at his departure for York, under the command of Brigadier-general Brown, of the New York militia. Availing himself of the absence of the greater portion of the American troops, the enemy determined to make an attack on this post. On the 27th of May, the British squadron was discovered off the port, and every exertion was made to put it in a state of defence. Only about a thousand men could be collected, one-half of whom were raw militia hastily assembled, the remainder was composed of regulars, seamen, and volunteers. This motley force was stationed by General Brown in as convenient an order for defence as the shortness of the time would admit. The militia and volunteers, under Colonel Mills, were posted behind a breast-work, hastily thrown up near the supposed landing place. The regulars, under Colonel Backus, formed a second line, and the seamen, under Lieutenant Chauncey, were stationed at the navy point, with directions to destroy the buildings and stores in case of a defeat of the troops. On the morning of the 29th, the enemy's force, consisting of one thousand picked men, under the immediate command of Sir George Prevost, was landed after a heavy fire from the militia in the battery. This fire, however, was all that the latter attempted in the way of defence; on the enemy's approach they were seized with a sudden panic, and fled in the utmost confusion, while their brave commander Colonel Mills was killed in the attempt to rally them. The first obstacle being thus easily removed, the British column advanced towards the village, where they fell in with the line of regulars, assisted by a few of the militia whom General Brown had with some difficulty collected. Here, too, the American troops gave way, being overpowered by superior numbers, but they retreated in good order to the village, and took possession of the houses, from which they opened so destructive a fire upon the British column, that it began to give ground. Perceiving this hesitation, General Brown had recourse to a stratagem, which soon decided the flight of the enemy. Collecting toge-

ther a number of the fugitive militia, he marched them silently in the direction of the enemy's rear, but so as to be observed by him. Conceiving that his retreat was about to be cut off, Sir George re-embarked with so much rapidity as to leave behind most of his wounded and some prisoners. The Americans, satisfied with having obtained this advantage, did not molest him in his retreat. The loss of men was much greater on the part of the enemy, than was supposed by the American commander in his official report. It was admitted in the British official accounts to consist of forty-seven killed, one hundred and ninety-seven wounded, and sixteen prisoners; and, as upwards of thirty prisoners were actually taken by the Americans, we shall probably be not far from the truth in estimating their whole loss at nearly three hundred men, almost one-third of their whole force. The American loss amounted to one hundred and fifty-six in killed, wounded, and missing. The able dispositions and skilful manoeuvres of General Brown, gained him great and deserved credit, and laid the foundation of the high character in military affairs which he afterwards acquired. Had the enemy succeeded in obtaining possession of this post, the most disastrous consequences must necessarily have ensued. His naval superiority on the lake would then have been firmly established, and any further attempt on Canada for a long time impeded. No event of the war was therefore of more importance to the republic, than the defence of Sackett's Harbour. The joy of this triumph was however somewhat clouded by the unfortunate destruction of part of the barracks and stores, in consequence of a false report of the defeat of the Americans having been communicated to Lieutenant Chauncey.

While on the Canada frontier, the American arms were thus experiencing an alternation of misfortune and victory, the inhabitants of many parts of the Atlantic coast were suffering under a heavy share of the calamities of war. The great naval superiority of the enemy, the exposed and defenceless situation of the numerous maritime towns, and the facilities of annoyance afforded by the broad and deep rivers of the United States, presented advantages of which the British government was not slow in availing itself. Its first step was to declare the bays of the Chesapeake and Delaware in a state of blockade, which by a subsequent order issued on the 20th of March, 1813, was extended as far north as the ports of Rhode Island. This discrimination between the eastern

and middle sections of the union, was the consequence of the warm and decided opposition to the war, displayed by the legislatures of the former states, which the British government hoped would, under their protecting auspices, terminate in a division of the union. The notice of the blockade of the Chesapeake and Delaware, was speedily followed by the arrival of a naval force in each of those bays. The squadron which entered the Delaware, consisted of the *Poictiers* of seventy-four guns, the frigate *Belvidera*, and some smaller vessels. Nothing of importance was undertaken until the 16th of March, when the British commodore caused a demand of provisions to be made on the inhabitants of Lewistown, a small village on the bay, offering at the same time to make payment for what was received, and threatening on the other hand the destruction of the town, if the request was not complied with. The inhabitants having returned a decided refusal, a bombardment of the place was commenced on the 10th of April, from a number of launches and sloops, supported by the *Belvidera*, but fortunately without effect, no injury being done to the town, and not a man lost on the part of the Americans. Several attempts were afterwards made to land, with equal ill success. On the 29th of July, an engagement took place between part of the squadron and a small flotilla of gunboats, which ended in the capture of one of the latter; but during the remainder of the year, nothing of interest occurred in this bay. The squadron in the Chesapeake, however, displayed much more activity in the marauding species of warfare which it pursued, its success in which is supposed to be mainly owing to the peculiar talents and disposition of its commander, Admiral Cockburn. During the long period in which the waters of the Chesapeake were visited by a British fleet, scarcely a day passed in which the genius and enterprise of that officer were not eminently displayed. With an uncommon degree of sagacity, and a nice taste in discovering the most valuable plunder, he possessed an equal share of dexterity in removing and appropriating it, and a happy insensibility to the compunctious visitings with which minor adventurers are sometimes afflicted. To his comprehensive capacity nothing was too valuable and nothing too insignificant, and whatever could not be conveniently removed was committed to the flames. Whether these proceedings arose from an innate propensity to plunder, or from a determined animosity to the Americans, it is not perhaps material to inquire. We are inclined to believe

that they are to be attributed to the first cause; and it is a striking proof of the inconsistency of human principles, that the same actions, which when perpetrated on a small scale, consign their author to infamy and punishment, should, when performed at the head of a few hundred men, be followed by preferment and reward. Had not Admiral Cockburn entered the British navy, there can be little doubt to which species of vocation his genius would have inclined him; and although it is probable that success would have attended his exploits, yet as his "operations" would have been comparatively more circumscribed, it would have been better upon the whole for the interests of humanity. It was on the 4th of February, that this celebrated officer entered the Chesapeake, with a squadron, consisting of two ships of seventy-four guns, three frigates, a brig, and a schooner. Immediately upon his arrival, was commenced that series of depredations upon farm-houses, and country seats, churches, and cabins, which have made memorable his name and character. It is needless to encumber our pages with a minute detail of these transactions. It is sufficient to say, that wherever a landing could be effected on that unprotected shore, without danger, the opportunity was taken to plunder the nearest cottages, to maltreat the inoffensive inhabitants, and to arm the slaves against their masters. On the banks of the beautiful and romantic streams, which flow into the Chesapeake, were several peaceful villages, the tranquil and inoffensive pursuits of whose inhabitants, and their simple poverty, promised to secure them from the ravages of war. They knew little however of the character or disposition of the British commander, who argued that these circumstances would protect them from his resentment or cupidity. The first object which excited his attention, was the village of Frenchtown, at the head of the Elk river. On the 29th of April, he landed in person, with about five hundred men, and driving before him the few militia, assembled for its protection, proceeded to the destruction of this unfortunate place. The store-houses, in which a quantity of merchandise was deposited, were committed to the flames. Many private houses and small vessels shared the same fate; and having witnessed the ruin of a principal part of the town, the British admiral hastily retired, on the approach of a body of militia. On the 3d of May, the town of Havre de Grace, on the Susquehanna, experienced a similar visit. Some slight preparations had been made for defence; but the attack being made before

dawn, the inhabitants were surprised in their beds, and the invaders entered the town with little molestation. The scene of unmanly spoliation that then ensued, would have disgraced the legions of Attila or Tamerlane. Rapine and outrage entered the most private dwellings, and the most sacred receptacles. Furniture, clothing, and at last the houses in which they were contained, were committed to the flames, and when nothing was left to destroy in the town, the surrounding country was scoured, and even a church of the Christian religion was profaned by their sacrilegious plunder. Having satiated itself with this work of destruction, the detachment re-embarked, and a few days afterwards inflicted a similar fate upon the villages of Frederickstown, and Georgetown, situated on opposite banks of the river Sassafra. Both were pillaged, and both subsequently committed to the flames.

Soon after these events, a powerful reinforcement arrived in the Chesapeake, conveying a large body of troops, under the command of Sir Sidney Beckwith. The naval armament now consisted of seven ships of the line, twelve frigates, and a proportionate number of smaller vessels; and was commanded by Admiral Warren. The land forces were supposed to amount to about four thousand men; and were composed chiefly of deserters from the French and foreign armies, who had been embodied by their new employers, and of the worst species of British troops. Such was the kind of force which the British government thought proper to let loose on the shores of a kindred nation: their conduct, as we shall presently see, was conformable to what might have been expected of them. The arrival of so considerable a force naturally led to the conclusion that an attack was meditated upon some important place. Baltimore, Annapolis, and Norfolk, were alternately supposed to be the object; but it was soon discovered that the latter was to be first assailed. Preparations were therefore made with great energy to receive the invaders. Nearly ten thousand militia were assembled in the vicinity of the town, and the defences on the continent and islands materially improved.

The first obstruction to the enemy's advance, was Craney island, situated at the mouth of Elizabeth river. In expectation of the attack, a body of about one hundred seamen had been stationed at a battery on the northwest side, and the gun-boats were placed so as to impede the approach on the opposite quarter. On the morning of the 22d of June, the British barges were

seen advancing to the island from round the point of Nansemond river. As they approached within reach of the batteries, so heavy a fire was opened upon them, that many of the boats were cut to pieces and sunk, and the remainder were compelled to seek safety in flight. A similar fate was reserved for another party, which had landed on the continent, and attempted to cross to the island over a narrow inlet to the west. A body of about five hundred Americans was stationed here, with two twenty-four pounders, and two sixes; and their fire was opened with such effect, that after an ineffectual attempt to advance, the enemy was compelled to retreat with great loss, and soon afterwards rejoined the squadron, leaving behind them upwards of two hundred men, many of whom were killed or wounded. Thus terminated the attempt upon Norfolk, the result of which was highly honourable to the small party of Americans, and displayed in a striking manner their skill and precision in the art of firing. Foiled in this attempt, the British commander now resolved upon another enterprise. Hampton is a small town, distant about eighteen miles from Norfolk, and was at this time garrisoned by four hundred men, with four twelve-pounders, and three sixes, under the command of Major Crutchfield. On the 25th, a combined attack from the land and naval forces was commenced by a bombardment from the barges and tenders, led by Admiral Cockburn, while Sir Sidney Beckwith, at the head of about two thousand men, landed a few miles below. The fire of the barges was returned with so much effect from the battery of twelve-pounders, that the enemy soon retired, and sheltered himself behind a point of land. The troops under Sir Sidney, however, advanced, though severely annoyed by riflemen in their march through a wood, and Major Crutchfield, who feared that his retreat would be cut off if the seamen effected a landing, determined to make an attack on the enemy's column with his small force; but so superior were their numbers, that he effected his retreat with great difficulty. Captain Pryor, who had been left in command of a battery, being almost surrounded, cut his way through the British force with great bravery, and shortly afterwards the enemy entered the town.

The proceedings of the British troops in the predatory incursions we have heretofore had occasion to notice, although sufficiently at variance with the rules of civilized hostility, and the principles of humanity, were not marked by any flagrant injury to the persons of the inhabitants.

Plunder appeared to be their object, and if that could not be obtained, they generally satisfied themselves with the destruction of property. But in Hampton, new passions were to be gratified, and a deeper and darker tragedy acted. We spare our readers the revolting detail of the crimes and misery that followed the entrance of the enemy into that unfortunate town. It is sufficient to observe, that neither age nor sex escaped their indiscriminate brutality, and that all the excesses that have sometimes followed the storming of a fortified place, were inflicted on the unoffending inhabitants of Hampton. The evidence of these enormities rests upon testimony too strong to be doubted. They were in a great measure admitted by the British commander, who alleged in extenuation, that they were committed by the foreign troops, whom it was found impossible to control. This pretext, like that made use of with respect to the allies of the British at Raisin, is too fallacious to require refutation. The British commander was responsible for the conduct of all under his orders, and those who cannot be restrained, ought not to be employed. He gave assurances, however, that they should not be again landed, and the promise appears to have been adhered to. Admiral Cockburn, indeed, proceeded soon after this event to the shores of North Carolina, and renewed at the town of Portsmouth the scenes of Frenchtown, and Havre de Grace. Having loaded his vessels with the spoils of this village, and brought off a great number of slaves, he left the coast.

While these operations were taking place, the ocean had been the theatre of many sanguinary engagements between the vessels of the two nations. Mortified by the result of the first naval campaign, the British government had turned its attention to discover the causes of their unexpected humiliation. The confidence with which their previous victories over the European marine had inspired them, had led, it was supposed, to a considerable degree of relaxation in discipline, and carelessness in firing, which they now laboured strenuously to remove. The utmost exertion was made in the selection of crews, and in the practice of manœuvres to render them more fit to cope with the American vessels. The size and force too, of the latter, having been greatly exaggerated, it was determined by the British admiralty that a new species of vessel should be sent out to meet them. Seventy-four gun ships were therefore deprived of a small part of their armament, and cut down to the appearance of heavy frigates. From this last circumstance, they derived the name

of razees. They were, however, far superior in size, strength, and force, to the largest American frigates.

After blockading an English sloop of war of equal force, the United States ship *Hornet* was compelled, by the appearance of a seventy-four gun ship, to take refuge in the harbour of St. Salvador, from which she escaped in the night, and continued her cruise. Off Demerara, on the 22d of February, her commander, Captain Lawrence, observed a large man-of-war brig standing towards him. The *Hornet* was immediately cleared for action, and at twenty-five minutes past five the engagement commenced within half pistol shot, and was terminated in fifteen minutes by the surrender of the enemy, with six feet water in her hold. The prize proved to be the British sloop of war *Peacock*, of twenty guns and two swivels, with one hundred and thirty men. Her commander, Captain Peake, was killed at the close of the action. So severe had been the fire of the *Hornet*, that it was found impossible to keep her afloat until all the prisoners were removed, although the most strenuous exertions were made for that purpose. Nine of her crew, and three from the *Hornet*, who were generously endeavouring to save them, went down in her. The loss of the British in this action was very severe; of the Americans, only one was killed and two wounded. The humanity displayed by the crew of the *Hornet*, towards their prisoners, was as honourable to them as their bravery in battle. From the sudden removal of the latter, they were left destitute of suitable clothing, and the fact was no sooner made known to the American seamen, than they immediately divided with them their own equipment, while the public acknowledgments of the captured officers showed that they had received an equal share of generosity and liberality.

On his return to the United States, Captain Lawrence was promoted to the command of the frigate *Chesapeake*, then lying in the harbour of Boston. The British frigate *Shannon*, of equal force, was at that time cruising off the port, and being in a high state of equipment, with a crew selected for the purpose, her commander, Captain Broke, sent to Captain Lawrence a letter, in which he requested a meeting of the two vessels—stated fully the force of his own, and pledged his honour that no other ship should interfere. Unfortunately the challenge never reached the latter. He had already determined to encounter the *Shannon*, and had sailed previous to its receipt. Had he received it, he might have made preparations more conformable

to those of his enemy. Many of his crew were newly enlisted, and all were unacquainted with their officers, while considerable discontent prevailed with respect to their prize money. Added to this, the first lieutenant was unable to join the ship from indisposition, and several others had been recently promoted from the grade of midshipmen.

Under these discouraging circumstances, the *Chesapeake* sailed from Boston early on the 1st of June, and found her antagonist lying to, to receive her. At half-past five in the afternoon, the action commenced by a broadside, which proved remarkably fatal to the officers of the American ship. In a very few minutes, the sailing master was killed, and three of her lieutenants dangerously wounded. Shortly afterwards, Captain Lawrence received a severe wound, without quitting the deck. The fire of the *Chesapeake* was directed against the hull of the *Shannon*, while that of the latter was aimed at the rigging of her antagonist, with such effect, that in a short time she fell on board the *Shannon*, which then poured a raking fire into her. Seeing that her decks were nearly swept of her crew, Captain Broke now boarded at the head of his marines, and at this moment Captain Lawrence received a mortal wound, and was carried below. The loss of these officers caused great confusion among the Americans. No one appeared to head them: the few who were able to make resistance were soon driven below, and in twenty minutes after the commencement of the action, the British flag was hoisted on the *Chesapeake*. Attempts were still however made at defence, in some parts of the vessel, during which Captain Broke and one of his lieutenants were severely wounded. His victory was dearly purchased, with the loss of twenty-three men killed and fifty-six wounded. The slaughter on board the *Chesapeake* was unusually great. Three lieutenants, the master, three midshipmen, and about seventy men were killed, and two lieutenants, the chaplain, four midshipmen, and ninety men were wounded. The regret occasioned by the loss of the *Chesapeake*, was greatly aggravated by the death of her brave and honourable commander. His gallantry and enterprise had raised him high in the estimation of his fellow-citizens, while his humanity and generosity were the theme of praise even from the enemy. He remained on deck, though suffering from a severe wound, until he received his last and mortal one, and while they were carrying him below, he gave the memorable order, "don't give up the ship," which has since become so justly celebrated. He

survived the capture of his vessel only four days, and was buried at Halifax with every mark of respect and honour.

The intelligence of the capture of the *Chesapeake* was received in England with great rejoicing. The victory of Captain Broke was considered as establishing the maritime superiority of that nation, which preceding events had somewhat shaken, and the honours showered upon that officer evinced the light in which it was viewed. The result of another engagement which took place not long afterwards, tended to confirm this impression. The United States sloop of war *Argus*, of twenty-guns, commanded by Captain William Henry Allen, being on a cruise in the British channel, fell in with the British sloop of war *Pelican*, of somewhat superior force, which had been fitted out expressly for the purpose of engaging her. The action, which took place on the 14th of August, was maintained for an hour and a half with great ardour on both sides, when the captain and first lieutenant of the *Argus* being severely wounded, and many of her seamen disabled, her rigging shot away, and the enemy about to board, her flag was struck by the remaining officers. She was carried into England, where her commander shortly afterwards died. He had been first lieutenant of the United States, at the capture of the *Macedonian*, and bore a high character in the naval service.

The tide of success appeared now to set in favour of the British; but shortly after the capture of the *Argus*, an engagement took place which added fresh honour to the American flag. The United States brig *Enterprise* of sixteen guns, commanded by Lieutenant Burrows, sailed from Portsmouth on the 1st of September. On the 4th, a vessel of war was discovered, which stood for her, having four ensigns hoisted. After a warm action of forty minutes, the enemy ceased firing, and surrendered. She proved to be the British armed brig *Boxer* of sixteen guns, commanded by Captain Blythe, who was killed early in the action. She was admirably prepared for the contest, and her colours were nailed to the mast previous to the engagement. The gallant commander of the *Enterprise* received a mortal wound about the same time that his antagonist fell, but refused to quit the deck until the sword of the British commander was brought to him, when clasping it in his hands, he exclaimed "I die contented," and soon afterwards expired. The bodies of the two commanders were interred at Portland at the same time, with every mark of respect that can be shown to the remains of brave and honourable men.

The private armed vessels of the United States continued during this year to harass the commerce of the enemy, and carried into every quarter of the globe, proofs of American skill and enterprise. Perhaps no instance in the annals of national warfare, can be pointed out of a more desperate action than that fought by the privateer *Decatur*, of seven guns and one hundred and three men, with the British government schooner *Dominica*, of fifteen guns and eighty-eight men. After a well sustained action of two hours, the latter was carried by boarding. The combat was maintained on her deck for a considerable time, when her captain and most of her officers and crew being disabled, her colours were struck by the crew of the *Decatur*. It is proper to add that the crew of the *Dominica* fought with uncommon

bravery and firmness. Sixty men and every officer, with the exception of the surgeon and one midshipman, were killed or wounded.

The enterprise of Commodore Rodgers was displayed in a cruise of five months in the frigate *President*, which terminated on the 26th of September, without any material success. The United States and *Macedonian* had lain in the harbour of New York until the beginning of May, without being able to get to sea. About that period they made an ineffectual attempt to pass the blockading squadron, in company with the sloop of war *Hornet*. The vigilance of the enemy (whose superior force rendered any contest hopeless) obliged them to put into the port of New London, where they were compelled to continue during the remainder of the war.

CHAPTER III.

AMERICAN ANNALS, (continued :) Northwestern Frontier—Fort Meigs again besieged—Defence of Sandusky—Capture of the British Fleet on Lake Erie—Battle of the Thames—Expedition to Mackinaw—Operations on the St. Lawrence—Affair at Williamsburg—Failure of the Expedition—Operations of General Hampton—Affair at La Cole—Burning of Newark and Devastation of the Frontier—Engagements on Lake Ontario—Operations on that Frontier—Capture of Fort Erie—Battles of Chippewa and Bridgewater—Siege of Fort Erie—War with the Southern Indians—Expedition of Generals Jackson, Cocke, and Coffee—Civil History—Meeting of the 13th Congress—Internal Taxes—Hostages—Repeal of the Restriction System—Increase of the Army—Financial Affairs—Mission to Gottenburgh—Adjournment of Congress.

WITH the retreat of the British troops from Fort Meigs, began a new era on the northwestern frontier. Defeat and disaster had too long accompanied the operations of the American arms in that quarter. The patriotism and valour of the western people had been squandered in a series of ill-judged and mismanaged enterprises, of which it is difficult to say whether they were most detrimental to the public purse, or the public reputation. A brighter scene was now opening: the territory of the republic was to be freed from the presence of an enemy; and the peaceful pursuits of agriculture, from the murderous incursions of the savage.

The repulse of the allies from Fort Meigs, did not, however, deter them from a renewal of the attempt. Small bodies of Indians were seen at times in the vicinity of that place; and on the 20th of July a considerable force under the orders of the celebrated Tecumseh, including a number of British regulars, encamped below the fort. Its commander, General Clay, despatched information of the meditated attack to General Harrison, who was at that time at the Seneca towns, engaged in

organizing and preparing his forces. Before any reinforcements however could be sent, the enemy had raised the siege. On the 28th, they embarked on board their vessels, and sailed round to Sandusky bay, with the view of attacking the fort at that place.

Fort Stephenson, on the river Sandusky, was at this period garrisoned by about one hundred and sixty men, under the command of Major Croghan. His means of defence were very feeble, being little more than a picketing, surrounded by a ditch nine feet in width and six in depth: and so untenable was the place considered, that on the intelligence of the second retreat from Fort Meigs, General Harrison despatched an order to him to set it on fire, and repair with his command to headquarters. The express did not reach the fort until noon of the 30th, and the Indians having by that time surrounded it, Major Croghan did not consider it advisable to comply with the order. On the 1st of August, the enemy's regular troops, with a howitzer, were landed from the gun-boats. The whole besieging force now consisted of about five hundred regulars, with eight hundred Indians, and was commanded by

Brigadier-general Proctor. After summoning the garrison to surrender, and receiving a decided refusal, a fire was opened upon the fort from the six-pounders in the gunboats, as well as from the howitzer, which was continued during the night with little injury. The only piece of artillery in the fort was a six-pounder; and as the fire of the enemy was directed principally against the northwestern angle, it was placed in such a position as to enfilade that angle, in case, as it was supposed, an attempt was made to storm that point. The garrison was not deceived in this supposition. After cannonading all the next day, and until late in the evening, the enemy advanced in two columns to the assault. A feint was made on the southern angle, but the main body, consisting of three hundred and fifty men, proceeded to the attack of that at the northwest. In consequence of the smoke and darkness, they arrived within twenty paces of the fort without being discovered; but as soon as their approach was perceived, a heavy fire of musketry was opened upon them. The column nevertheless continued to advance, and its leader, Colonel Short, leaped into the ditch, followed by a number of his men; when at that moment the embrasure was opened, and so destructive a fire poured into them from the six-pounder, that their commander and many men were killed outright; and those who were not wounded made a hasty and confused flight. The other column, led by Colonel Warburton, was received with an equally severe fire, and at length broke and took refuge in a wood. The loss of one hundred and fifty men, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, was the result of this unavailing attempt, while of the garrison, only one was killed and seven wounded. The wounded of the enemy were conveyed into the fort by the garrison, at the risk of their own safety, and received every attention that the most liberal generosity could dictate. About three in the morning, after this repulse, General Proctor hastily re-embarked, leaving behind many valuable trophies to adorn the triumph of his youthful antagonist. The defence of Fort Stephenson must be considered as one of the most brilliant events of the war, when we take into view the force of the contending parties. Major Croghan was shortly afterwards promoted to the rank of lieutenant-colonel, and received the thanks of Congress.

General Harrison was now assiduously employed in the formation of an army competent to retake the territory in possession of the enemy, and if success should attend the squadron on lake Erie, to pursue ulterior operations in Canada. The num-

ber of regulars under his command on the northwestern frontier, did not exceed two thousand. The invasion of the state of Ohio had induced Governor Meigs to call out the militia en masse; and crowds of volunteers consequently flocked to the camp of General Harrison, the greater part of whom he was compelled to dismiss, retaining only about one thousand men. Having received the necessary authority from the war department, he called upon the governor of Kentucky for a draft of militia, not to exceed two thousand men. Isaac Shelby, a distinguished officer of the revolution, held at this period the executive office of that state, having been invited from his retirement, when after the surrender of General Hull, the conduct of affairs required experience and patriotism. On receiving the requisition from General Harrison, he immediately issued a proclamation, calling for a body of mounted volunteers, and promising to lead them himself against the enemy. Such was the influence of his name, and the unabated ardour of the people, that many more than the required number soon assembled. A regiment of mounted men under Colonel Johnson, which had been recently disbanded, was now re-organized and disciplined with great care. The remainder of the Kentucky volunteers, to the number of about three thousand five hundred men, arrived at Upper Sandusky on the 12th of September, under their venerable commander, who soon afterwards received directions from General Harrison to proceed to Lower Sandusky. The latter was at the Seneca camp, waiting the issue of an encounter which it was supposed had by this time taken place on lake Erie.

The necessity of possessing a strong force on lake Erie, had been strenuously urged to the government by General Hull, even before the declaration of war; and it was evident to the meanest apprehension, that it would be difficult to retain the position at Detroit, and much more to attempt the invasion of Canada with any prospect of success, while the enemy had command of its waters. There appears, nevertheless, to have been a very censurable neglect on the part of the administration, in not taking measures sufficiently early to effect this purpose. The earnest representations of General Harrison, however, at length awakened them to a proper sense of its necessity. In the month of March, the building of two brigs and several schooners was commenced at the port of Erie, under the direction of Captain Perry of the navy, and continued with great activity, until the 20th of July, when the enemy's squadron appeared off the town,

with an apparent intention of attacking it; but finding preparations made for defence, soon afterwards retired. The equipment of the vessels being completed, they were launched on the 2d of August, and buoyed over the bar in presence of, and without molestation from the enemy, who then returned to Malden, to await the completion of a large ship then building. Having received his complement of sailors, and being joined by a company of infantry and some volunteers who acted as marines, Commodore Perry sailed in quest of the British squadron, which he found lying in the harbour of Malden, augmented by the launching of their new vessel.

On the morning of the 10th of September, the enemy's vessels were discovered standing out of Malden, with the wind in their favour. They consisted of—

	Guns.	Howitzers.	
Ship Detroit,	19	2	Com. Barclay.
Queen Charlotte,	17	1	Capt. Finnis.
Schr. Lady Prevost,	13	1	Lieut. Buchan.
Brig Hunter,	10		
Sloop Little Belt,	3		
Chippewa,	1	2 swivels.	
In all 63 guns, 4 howitzers, and 2 swivels.			

The American squadron was composed of—

	Guns.		Com. Perry.
Brig Lawrence,	20		Capt. Elliott.
Niagara,	20		Lieut. Turner.
Caledonia,	3		
Schr. Ariel,	4		
Scorpion,	2		
Somers,	2	2 swivels.	
Sloop Trippe,	1		
Tigress,	1		
Porcupine,	1		
In all 54 guns, 2 swivels.			

At ten o'clock, the wind changed, so as to give the latter the weather-gage. Commodore Perry then formed his line of battle, and bore down upon the enemy. At a few minutes before 12, the action commenced by a heavy and well-directed fire upon the Lawrence, from the Detroit and Queen Charlotte, which she was unable to return, in consequence of possessing only carronades. The lightness of the wind preventing the remainder of the American squadron from getting up, she was compelled to sustain the fire of the enemy's vessels for upwards of two hours, when having lost a great number of men, and most of her guns and rigging being disabled, it was evident she must soon surrender. The fate of the day appeared already decided, when Commodore Perry, with singular gallantry and enterprise, resolved upon a measure which retrieved his doubtful fortunes. Leaving his ship the Lawrence, he passed in an open boat to the Niagara, which a lucky increase of wind had enabled Captain Elliott to bring up. The latter officer now volunteered to carry

the smaller vessels into action, while Commodore Perry, with the Niagara, bore up, and passed through the enemy's line, pouring into the ships on each side a most destructive fire. The American schooners and gun-boats, having soon afterwards got within a suitable distance, opened a heavy and well-directed cannonade upon their opponents, and after a short contest the whole British squadron surrendered.

The enemy not having been able to take possession of the Lawrence, whose colours had been struck soon after Commodore Perry left her, she again hoisted them before the conclusion of the conflict.

Never was a victory more complete, and more glorious to the victors, than this. The American vessels were inferior in force to their opponents; the number of men on board the latter was greater; the American officers had never witnessed the manœuvring of a squadron, while the British commander had acquired experience under the eye of Lord Nelson, and yet not one vessel of the enemy was left to bear the tidings of defeat. The surrender of the flag-ship of a squadron has in former engagements generally decided the fate of the battle; here, although it made the force of the enemy superior by thirty-three guns, it only served to animate the Americans to new and more desperate exertions. The result of the engagement was attributed by the British commander to a deficiency of competent seamen, to the unprecedented loss of officers on board the Queen Charlotte and Detroit, and to the superior weight of metal on board the American vessels. The loss of men, however, on each side, was pretty nearly equal. Of the British, three officers and thirty-eight men were killed, and nine officers and eighty-five men wounded. Of the Americans, three officers and twenty-four men were killed, and four officers and ninety-two men wounded. Among the wounded of the enemy, was Commodore Barclay, who was compelled to quit the deck of his vessel.

If the victory on lake Erie was honourable to the American arms, its consequences were no less important to the western country. The allied army had derived its supplies of provisions through the agency of the British squadron, and would now be compelled to abandon the American territory, and run the risk of an engagement with the superior forces of General Harrison. The intelligence of the victory being communicated to the latter, his whole force, with the exception of Colonel Johnson's mounted regiment, which was to proceed by the way of Detroit, was marched to Lower Sandusky, for the purpose of

embarkation on board the squadron. On the 16th, the army, including Governor Shelby's command, reached that place, where the squadron was found with the British prisoners, which to the number of about three hundred were marched into the interior. On the 27th, the troops were all embarked, and at three in the afternoon landed on the Canadian shore. The line of march was immediately taken up for Malden, from which the British had previously retired, having first destroyed the fort and military stores. The victory of Commodore Perry had determined General Proctor upon a retreat as soon as the advance of General Harrison should be ascertained. On the day preceding the arrival of the latter, the whole British force, amounting to about twelve hundred regulars and one thousand Indians, independent of militia, abandoned Malden, and retired along the bank of the river Thames. It was now resolved by General Harrison and Governor Shelby, to pursue the enemy without delay. On the 28th, the army moved forward to Sandwich, where it was joined by Colonel Johnson's regiment; and, leaving a strong detachment under General M'Arthur to keep the Indians in check, the main body continued its march on the 2d of October. The strength of the advanced force has been estimated at about three thousand five hundred men, of whom about one hundred and forty were regulars. On the 3d of October, they arrived at the Thames, where a party of the enemy was captured while destroying a bridge. On the succeeding day, a large quantity of arms and public stores was captured, and on the 5th at noon, information was received that the enemy was lying at a short distance awaiting their approach.

The position taken by the allied army was a very favourable one. It was drawn up across a narrow isthmus formed by the Thames on the left, and by a swamp running parallel to the river on the right. The regulars were posted with their left on the river supported by the artillery, while the Indians, under Tecumseh, were placed in a thick wood, having their right on the swamp. It was at first intended by General Harrison to attack the British troops with the American infantry, while the mounted volunteers should turn the right flank of the Indians. The nature of the ground, however, he soon perceived, would prevent the execution of the latter part of the design, and induced him to adopt another plan equally novel and successful. Finding that the enemy's regulars were drawn up in open order, he conceived the bold idea of breaking them, by a charge of the

mounted infantry. The latter were accordingly formed in four columns, of two files each, and in this order advanced upon the British line, receiving a heavy fire, from which their horses at first recoiled, but quickly recovering themselves, they dashed through with so much impetuosity, that the enemy's ranks were immediately broken. They then wheeled round on his rear, and delivered a heavy and well directed fire from their rifles. Surprised and disconcerted by this manœuvre, the whole British force, to the number of about six hundred men, threw down their arms and surrendered. Their commander, General Proctor, and about three hundred men, escaped with difficulty. This signal advantage was gained by the first battalion of the mounted volunteers alone, the infantry not having arrived in time to participate in the honour. The second battalion in the mean time had been engaged in a more arduous and protracted conflict with the Indians. The ground being unfavourable to their operations as cavalry, they were obliged to dismount, and engage the enemy on foot. A severe contest now ensued, but at length the militia under Governor Shelby advancing to their aid, the Indians broke and fled in all directions.

A complete and decisive victory was thus gained over the allied army, and with very little comparative loss on either side. Twenty-nine of the Americans, and thirty-four of the British were killed or wounded. Of the Indians, thirty were killed, and among that number was their celebrated leader, Tecumseh, whose valour and activity were conspicuous to the last. He was seen in the thickest press of the conflict, and at the conclusion of the battle, his body was found on the spot where he had resisted the charge of the mounted regiment. With him, perished the confederacy of savages from which so much injury had accrued to the American cause. Many of the tribes sent deputations to General Harrison, to sue for peace, immediately after the battle, which was granted to them on condition of their raising the tomahawk against their late allies. Twenty-five officers, and about six hundred men, chiefly of the 41st regiment, together with six pieces of cannon, which had been surrendered by General Hull, were, besides this, the fruits of the victory.

The British force in this quarter having been thus completely subdued, the American troops commenced their march for Detroit on the 7th. On the 10th, they arrived at Sandwich, and soon afterwards the Kentucky militia returned home, and

were discharged. General Harrison, in the mean time, being without orders from the war department, resolved to proceed to the Ontario frontier in the fleet. Accordingly, on the 22d of October he sailed from Erie with M'Arthur's brigade and a battalion of riflemen, and arrived at Buffalo on the 24th. From this place, he marched to Newark, where he received orders from the war department to send the brigade to Sackett's Harbour, and was informed that he had permission to return to his family. This intimation, the meaning of which it was not difficult to understand, was complied with, and he soon afterwards resigned his commission.

Before we leave this quarter, it is proper to advert to an event which took place at a somewhat later period. The fort of Mackinaw was now the only one remaining of the British conquests in the west. In the spring of 1814, an effort was made by Lieutenant-colonel Croghan, jointly with Commodore Sinclair, who commanded the flotilla on lake Erie, to obtain possession of it. A landing was effected on the island, but the strength of the place was found to be so great, that the troops were re-embarked, with the loss of Major Holmes, several other officers, and about sixty men. Two of the American schooners were subsequently captured by boarding, with great slaughter.

While on the northwestern frontier, the disgrace of former campaigns had been repaid by an ample harvest of victory, the American people were doomed to experience fresh disappointment and mortification in another quarter, from the want of judgment in the administration, or of energy in the commanding officers. The retirement of Generals Dearborn and Lewis, had left the command of the army at Fort George in the hands of General Boyd, who was restricted by the government from engaging in offensive operations, as it was intended to intrust the command to other officers. Generals Wilkinson and Hampton were called from the southern section of the United States for this purpose. To the former, was given the command of the forces on the shores of the Ontario, while the latter was assigned to the northern army, then encamped at Plattsburg. The public voice called for some more decided and energetic measures than had as yet been taken. The strength and spirits of the army had been wasted in a succession of petty attacks upon unimportant places, while the two great posts of Kingston and Montreal remained secure and unthreatened.

It was now determined by the administration, that one or both of these should be assailed by the respectable force which

towards the month of August had been assembled; and for the purpose of maturing the plan and superintending its execution, the secretary of war, General Armstrong, proceeded to Sackett's Harbour. After considerable deliberation, the arrangements of the campaign were finally agreed upon. It was determined that the army should fall down the St. Lawrence in boats; that it should be joined by the force under General Hampton at the most convenient point of junction, and should thence proceed to attack Montreal, which at this period was supposed to be defended by a very small force. General Wilkinson, who arrived at Sackett's Harbour on the 20th of August, had been for some time after that period diligently employed in collecting and organizing the scattered detachments of the army, which were gradually concentrated on Grenadier Island, near the head of the St. Lawrence. Although the advanced state of the season rendered it necessary that the greatest expedition should be used, yet the difficulties attending this measure were so numerous, that it was not until the 23d of October that a sufficient force could be assembled. The army thus collected, consisted of about seven thousand men. The strength of the enemy at Kingston, was estimated at about four thousand. To favour the idea of an attack being intended on this place, a post on the St. Lawrence, contiguous to it, was fixed on for the rendezvous of the army, to which the advance under General Brown was despatched. On the 3d of November, the rear, with the commanding general, arrived at this spot, and every thing being in readiness, the whole flotilla got under way, and proceeded down the river on the 5th.

It was soon discovered that a passage down the St. Lawrence was not to be effected without difficulty. At every narrow pass, artillery and musketeers were stationed; and the enemy, relieved of apprehension on the score of Kingston, had despatched a force of fifteen hundred men, and a squadron of armed vessels, to hang upon the rear. It became necessary, therefore, that a party should be landed, to remove the obstructions in front; for which purpose, Colonel Macomb was detached with about twelve hundred men, and was subsequently reinforced by General Brown's brigade, while the brigade under General Boyd acted as a rear-guard. After surmounting various obstacles, the flotilla arrived on the 10th, in the vicinity of a large and dangerous rapid. Here, an attack was made on the rear of the flotilla by the enemy's gun-boats, who were driven back until a battery of eight

pounders was erected. On the 11th, information was received from General Brown, that he had repulsed the force opposed to him, and had taken a position at the foot of the rapid. It was determined, therefore, to attempt the passage, when information was received from General Boyd, that the British were advancing in column to assail him. He was immediately directed to anticipate the attack by moving against the enemy with his whole force. The latter was advantageously posted behind the deep ravines which intersected the plain. The attack was commenced by driving back a strong party of the British, posted in the wood. General Covington then advanced on the right of the enemy, with his brigade, while Colonel Ripley assailed his left flank, with the 21st regiment, after having routed with the bayonet a superior number opposed to him. The attack on the enemy's right, was not attended with success. The fall of General Covington, who was killed while bravely leading his brigade to the charge, and the want of ammunition, caused that part of the Americans to retire. In its retreat, a piece of artillery was captured by the enemy, in consequence of the difficulty of the ground. At length, after a contest of two hours, the Americans retired and re-occupied the ground from which they had originally driven the enemy, while the latter fell back to their camp. The infantry were soon afterwards embarked on board the flotilla, and the dragoons and light artillery proceeded by land to the foot of the rapid.

The numbers engaged in this action, have been variously represented. From the British official accounts, it would appear, that their own force did not exceed eight hundred, while that of their adversaries is stated at four thousand. This palpable exaggeration is of a nature to throw discredit upon their whole report. It is known that the force of General Boyd did not exceed seventeen hundred men, and it is probable the numbers of the enemy were not inferior. Both parties claimed a victory. The American commander contended that the object of his attack had been gained in the repulse of the enemy, and the occupation of the ground previously possessed by him. The British, on the other hand, maintained, that the capture of a piece of artillery, and the retreat of the Americans to their boats, left all the advantage on their side. It must be acknowledged that the advantages, if any, gained by the Americans, were not sufficient to compensate for the loss of men which they sustained. One hundred

and two were killed, including General Covington, and two hundred and thirty-seven wounded. The enemy, according to their official report, lost twenty-two killed, one hundred and forty-seven wounded, and twelve missing; they claimed also to have captured upwards of one hundred prisoners.

On the succeeding day, the flotilla got under way, and having passed the rapid, without loss, arrived near St. Regis, where the advance, under General Brown, was found. Here it was that General Wilkinson expected to meet the army of General Hampton, in conformity with orders despatched on the 6th from Prescott. Instead of these troops, a messenger was found from the latter officer, conveying information that in consequence of the state of the roads and the scantiness of provisions, he was unable to undertake the contemplated movement. A council of war was then called by General Wilkinson, composed of the chief officers of the army, who gave it as their unanimous opinion that it would be unadvisable to make an attempt on Montreal, at that advanced period of the season. The Canadian territory was accordingly evacuated, and the troops went into winter-quarters at French Mills, near to St. Regis. Thus terminated, this ill contrived and disastrous expedition. Great expectations had been formed by the American people, but it was perhaps fortunate that it terminated at St. Regis. The enemy had taken every precautionary measure of defence, the river was of difficult navigation, the season was very far advanced, the indisposition of General Wilkinson prevented his directing the operations in person, and the stock of provisions was found to be insufficient for any considerable period. Under these circumstances, had the army been reinforced by the junction of that of General Hampton, and had it even obtained possession of Montreal, it is highly probable that a fate similar to that of the French in Russia, would have befallen it.

The strength of the northern army under General Hampton, was about four thousand men, all regulars, by whom it was intended, as we have seen, that a junction should be made with the troops from Sackett's Harbour. Accordingly, in the month of September, General Hampton moved from Plattsburgh towards the Canadian frontier, which he crossed on the 21st of October. The route of the army, which had been obstructed in every possible way by the enemy, lay along the left bank of the Chateaugay river, by which it advanced with great difficulty until the 25th, when it being ascertained that the enemy,

under Sir George Prevost, was in considerable force behind a wood, which separated the army from the open country, General Hampton determined upon endeavouring to cut them off. Colonel Purdy was, therefore, detached to the right bank with the 1st brigade, that he might gain the rear of the enemy by a ford about twelve miles below, while their attention was engaged by the 2d brigade in front. Unfortunately, from the darkness of the night, and the ignorance of the guides, the first part of the plan entirely failed. The 2d brigade advanced on the 26th, and soon afterwards learned that the enemy was posted behind a ravine, at the distance of two miles. The 10th regiment, consisting of two hundred and thirty-seven men, from the report of that day, was moved forward, and after a march of half an hour, fell in with a body of the enemy, which they soon routed, and drove from the ground. The rest of the brigade did not appear until after the termination of the action, and to the great regret of the army, the 1st brigade was about that time perceived on the opposite bank, it having been unable to advance further from the causes we have stated. On the same day, the whole force retired, about two miles, to the spot where the baggage had been halted, without molestation from the enemy, who were secured behind intrenchments and abattis.* At this place, the army remained until the 28th, when intelligence having been received, which led to the conclusion that General Wilkinson had abandoned his descent of the St. Lawrence, a council of war was called, by which it was unanimously decided to retire to such a position as would secure its communication with the United States. The troops were accordingly put

in motion, and on the 2d of November reached their former post, at the Four Corners, within the territory of the United States. Here, General Hampton received the despatch from General Wilkinson, directing a junction of his force on the St. Lawrence. He immediately returned an answer, stating as we have already mentioned, his opinion of the impracticability of the measure, in consequence of the want of provisions, and soon afterwards fell back to Plattsburgh, where the troops went into winter-quarters. General Hampton then resigned his commission, leaving General Izard in command.

The two divisions of the northern army remained in winter-quarters, at these posts, until the month of January, when General Wilkinson received orders from the war department, to detach General Brown with two thousand men to the Niagara frontier, and to fall back with the remainder of his force to Plattsburgh. This order was complied with, and the remaining force being concentrated at the latter place, nothing of importance occurred until the end of March, when General Wilkinson, hearing that the enemy had collected a considerable force near the lines, resolved to dislodge them. He accordingly moved from Plattsburgh on the 30th of March, with about four thousand men, and found the main body of the British posted at La Cole Mill, a strong and extensive stone building, which had been fortified for the purpose. The state of the roads did not admit of the heavy ordnance being brought up, and an attempt was made to batter the walls with two small pieces, but they were found to be too solid to be shaken, and after repeated endeavours, the American commander drew off his forces, having suffered a loss of one hundred men in killed and wounded. He subsequently retired to Odletown, and in consequence of the discontent excited in the public mind by the result of this and the preceding expedition, he was removed from the command, which devolved upon General Izard.

We return now to the Ontario frontier, which, during the close of the year 1813, was visited by some of the severest calamities of war. After the departure of General Wilkinson, on his ill-fated expedition to Montreal, the command of Fort George devolved upon Brigadier-general M'Clure, of the New York militia. The force of this officer having been reduced on the 10th of December, by the expiration of the term of service of the militia, to about one hundred men, it was deemed expedient to abandon the place. On the 13th, the troops were accordingly removed, having previously destroyed the fort and public

* This account of the advance of General Hampton is taken from some particular details which appeared in the *Analectic Magazine*, for October, 1818, and were evidently written by an eyewitness. Nothing can be more gross or disgraceful to their national character, than the misstatements made by English writers of the engagement here mentioned. The official report of the British commander estimated the American force engaged at seven thousand five hundred infantry, four hundred cavalry, and ten field-pieces. Now, no fact is better authenticated than that the whole of General Hampton's army did not exceed four thousand men of every description, and that the force engaged was only the 10th regiment, numbering two hundred and thirty men. The British admit that their advanced party consisted of three hundred men, and it was probably much greater. This body was driven back by inferior numbers, and the ground it originally stood on occupied by the Americans. Patriotism is an excellent virtue, and the English deserve credit for their general love of country, but true patriotism never requires the utterance of such enormous falsehoods as we have adverted to.

property, and it is painful to add, the flourishing village of Newark. This outrage upon humanity, and the laws of civilized warfare, perpetrated at an inclement season of the year, and without any sufficient motive, excited, as it deserved, the indignation of the American people. It was immediately disavowed by the government, in an official communication made to the public authorities in Canada; but before the disavowal reached the latter, a severe and excessive measure of retaliation had been taken. On the 19th, at midnight, the enemy crossed the river with about six hundred men, surprised Fort Niagara, and massacred nearly the whole garrison, consisting of about three hundred men, chiefly invalids. From Fort Niagara, they proceeded to Lewistown, and after routing a considerable body of militia, burned that village, Manchester, Young's town, and the Indian settlement of Tucaroras. On the 30th of the same month, a party of regulars, militia, and Indians, in number about seven hundred, landed at Black Rock, and advanced to the town of Buffalo, to defend which a body of about twenty-five hundred militia was stationed. On the approach of the enemy, however, these men fled without firing a musket, to their lasting disgrace, and the unfortunate village was soon taken, and immediately reduced to ashes, after which, the British returned to Canada. In thus devastating a whole frontier, which but a little while before had been the scene of happiness and prosperity, they unquestionably exceeded the bounds of a just retaliation, had even the conduct of General M'Clure received the sanction of the American government. In this case; in the employment of the savages; and indeed in many other instances; the British officers appear to have been governed by a vindictive and unrelenting spirit, incompatible with the relations of civilized states, and with the principles of religion and morals.

The naval warfare on Lake Ontario, although not marked by the same brilliant events as that on Lake Erie, was yet not devoid of interest. Each party had, at different times, a numerical superiority of force, and as the one government increased the number and force of its vessels in exact proportion to the other, it came to pass that before the conclusion of the war, ships of the largest magnitude in naval architecture floated over those waters, which, till then, had borne only the light skiff of the Indian, or the slender shallop of commerce. This alternate preponderancy of force, gave occasion to the display of the highest skill and seamanship by the two commanders; and, notwithstanding the narrow limits of

the lake, neither party was able to boast of signal success over the other. In the month of August, 1813, an encounter took place between the two squadrons, which, after being productive of a variety of manœuvres, terminated in the capture of two of the smaller American vessels, in consequence of the superior sailing of the British ships. No important event occurred subsequently to this period, until the beginning of October. Both squadrons were then on the lake, but the prudent caution of the British commander, whose force was then inferior, induced him to avoid a general action, while the efforts of Commodore Chauncey were generally crippled by the dull sailing of his small vessels. On the 5th, however, after a fruitless chase of the British squadron, he succeeded in capturing four transports, on board of which were about three hundred officers and privates of the regular army. The winter and spring of 1814 were occupied chiefly in augmenting the force of the two fleets. At the commencement of the season, the superiority was on the side of the enemy, and, as a frigate of the largest size was then building at Sackett's Harbour, he availed himself of his command of the lake to destroy as much as possible the American means of warfare. On the 5th of May, an attack was made upon Oswego, a small village near the border of the lake, which had become the deposit of a considerable quantity of naval stores, and was defended by a fort containing five guns and about three hundred men, under Colonel Mitchell. The enemy made an attempt to land from fifteen boats, but so heavy a fire was opened upon them from the fort, that they were compelled to retire. On the succeeding day, the whole fleet having taken a position to cannonade the fort, the British troops succeeded in effecting a landing, advanced, and took possession of the village, from which the naval stores had principally been removed through the vigilance of Colonel Mitchell. Disappointed in their object, the British retreated on the 7th, with the loss of about one hundred men. They are supposed to have amounted to about fifteen hundred, and were under the command of General Drummond. The American loss was about seventy.

The launch and equipment of the new American frigate, compelled Sir James Yeo to withdraw his squadron to Kingston, leaving a number of gun-boats on the lake. The opportunity was then taken, by the American officers, to remove the stores from Oswego to Sackett's Harbour by water. Accordingly, on the 28th of May, Captain Woolsey, of the navy, left

the former port with eighteen boats, accompanied by Major Appling, with about one hundred and thirty of the rifle regiment, and an equal number of Indians. Having arrived off Sandy Creek, they discovered the enemy's gun-boats, and in consequence entered the stream. The riflemen and Indians were landed, and posted in an ambuscade. The enemy, as was expected, ascended the creek and landed a party, which was moving up its bank, when the Americans rose from their ambush, and opened so destructive a fire upon them, that in ten minutes they surrendered, to the number of about two hundred, including two post captains and six lieutenants. With these, were also captured three gun-boats, and several smaller vessels. Of the Americans, only one man was killed. Shortly after this event, Commodore Chauncey having completed the equipment of his new frigate, again sailed from Sackett's Harbour, but as he had now a superiority of force, the British commander did not think proper to venture an engagement.

The campaign on the borders of Lake Ontario, did not commence until near mid-summer. We have seen, in a preceding part of this chapter, that General Brown was detached by order of the government, from the northern army to Sackett's Harbour, with about two thousand men. After his arrival at the latter place, he remained for some time employed in disciplining and organizing his troops, until he received directions from the war department to move to Black Rock and Buffalo, with a view to future operations in the peninsula. The army under his command, when concentrated at Buffalo, amounted to between three and four thousand men, and was composed of two brigades of infantry under Generals Scott and Ripley, a detachment of artillery, and a body of volunteers from New York and Pennsylvania, under General Porter. On the morning of the 3d of July, this well appointed and gallant force landed in the vicinity of the British fort of Erie, opposite to Black Rock. Preparations were immediately made for an assault, but before the artillery could be planted, it surrendered, and the garrison, to the number of one hundred and thirty-seven, were made prisoners of war.

Having placed a small garrison in Fort Erie, General Brown advanced on the succeeding day to within two miles of Chippewa, on the heights, near which the enemy's troops, to the number of about three thousand, were intrenched. On the morning of the 5th, General Porter was detached with the volunteers to drive back the enemy's skirmishers; and, by cutting off

their retreat, to bring on a general engagement. The enemy was not slow in manifesting a disposition to meet the Americans. About noon, General Riall, who commanded the British forces, moved out of his works, and commenced an attack upon General Porter's command, to support which, the first brigade and part of the artillery were now advanced, and took post on its right. The determined onset of the British regulars, soon compelled the raw troops under General Porter to give way, and thus exposed the flank of General Scott's brigade. To prevent the enemy from profiting by this advantage, General Brown now ordered up General Ripley's brigade, with directions to skirt the wood on the left of the line, and to gain, if possible, the rear of the British right. After a severe struggle, Major Jessup, with the left flank battalion of the first brigade, succeeded in reaching a position, from which he opened so galling a fire as to compel that portion of their troops to retrograde; while, at the same time, the remainder of the brigade continued to press forward. The enemy now finding his efforts ineffectual on every point, gradually fell back until he reached the sloping ground in the vicinity of Chippewa, where, being hard pressed by the victors, his retreat became a rapid and disorderly flight. The further advance of the American troops was checked by the enemy's batteries; and the day being now too far spent for an assault, General Brown drew off his forces and returned to camp.

The battle of Chippewa was undoubtedly the best fought action that had yet occurred in the progress of the war. The numbers on both sides were nearly equal; the troops engaged were chiefly of the regular army, and the field was won by fair and open fighting. The Americans had been for some time earnestly employed in perfecting themselves in discipline, under zealous and enlightened officers, who were anxious to wipe off the stigma which successive defeats had attached to the American arms. The British troops, on the other hand, were veterans, and many of them had recently arrived, flushed with the conquest of the first soldiers of Europe. To have beaten them, therefore, by dint of superior skill or bravery, was a source of great triumph to the American army, and excited unbounded joy in the republic. The loss of men was nevertheless unusually great, and showed the obstinacy with which the battle had been contested. The official report of General Brown, stated the killed, wounded, and missing of the American army at three hundred and twenty-eight. That of the

British commander, represented his whole loss to have amounted to four hundred and ninety-nine, among whom were many officers of rank.

Soon after his defeat, General Riall abandoned the works at Chippewa, and fell back to Queenstown, while the American army occupied the former place, and no operation of material importance ensued for some days. On the 25th, however, General Brown being informed that an attack was meditated by the enemy upon Schlosser, a place on the American side of the Niagara, where the sick and baggage of the army had been sent, resolved to draw him off, if possible, from this attempt. General Scott was accordingly despatched at four in the afternoon, with his own brigade, Towson's artillery, and the dragoons. After proceeding about two miles, the enemy was found posted on an eminence, with the Queenstown road in their front, and defended by a battery of nine pieces of cannon. A narrow strip of wood intervened between the two armies. After despatching an express for reinforcements, General Scott resolved to attack the enemy. The action was commenced by Captain Towson's artillery, and was supported for an hour by the first brigade alone, against the greatly superior force of the enemy. The right of the brigade was occupied by Major Jessup, with the 25th regiment. This gallant officer finding the road which led to the British rear unoccupied, threw himself upon it with impetuosity, and succeeded in capturing General Riall and many other officers and men. The ranks of the Americans, were however rapidly thinning under the severe fire from the enemy's batteries, while the British were continually receiving reinforcements. The day was now spent, when General Ripley with the second brigade arrived at a critical moment. He was directed by General Brown to form on the right of the first brigade, but perceiving that by this step he should subject himself to a similar fate, he resolved to disobey his orders, to place himself between the enemy and the first brigade, and to attack the heights on which their battery was placed, without the possession of which, it was plain the Americans had nothing to hope. He therefore formed the two regiments of which his brigade was composed, in front of General Scott's line, and leading the 23d in person, he directed Colonel Miller, with the 21st, to assault the enemy's battery. The order was executed by the latter with the utmost gallantry. After a short contest, in which many of the artillerymen were bayoneted at their pieces, the enemy's cannon were

carried, and at the same moment General Ripley, with the 23d, drove the infantry from the crest of the eminence. The British troops being thus forced from their position, the American line was formed in front of the captured artillery. The conflict was, however, not yet over. The enemy being reinforced by a large body of fresh troops, brought up his whole force, and made three resolute and determined attacks upon the Americans, in each of which, after a close contest of bayonets, he was repulsed and driven down the hill. It was now midnight. The command of the American army had devolved upon General Ripley, in consequence of the wounds of Generals Brown and Scott. Previous to retiring from the field, the former had given directions to General Ripley, to collect the wounded and return to camp. These orders were now obeyed, but unfortunately, from the circumstance of most of the horses being killed, it was found impossible to remove the captured cannon. They were therefore left on the field, having been previously spiked.

In this sanguinary engagement, the superiority of numbers was unquestionably on the side of the British; only one half of the American army was engaged at one time: the first brigade having been put almost *hors de combat*, before the arrival of the second. The enemy, on the other hand, received continued accessions of fresh troops, after the commencement of the action. The palm of victory was claimed by both parties. If occupying the position of an enemy, after previously driving him from it, obtaining possession of his artillery, and retaining it in opposition to his repeated efforts to recover them, be not a victory, it is impossible to say to what actions that expression can be applied. The British troops had been withdrawn from the field, before the Americans retired to their camp, and every appearance of opposition had ended. The loss of men was great on both sides. Of the British, eighty-four were killed, including five officers, five hundred and fifty-nine wounded, among whom were Generals Drummond and Riall and thirty-nine other officers, and two hundred and thirty-five missing, of whom one hundred and sixty-nine were taken prisoners. Of the Americans, eleven officers, and one hundred and sixty non-commissioned officers and privates were killed, fifty-four officers, and four hundred and seventeen non-commissioned officers and privates wounded, and eight officers, and one hundred and nine non-commissioned officers and privates missing.

On the succeeding morning, General

Ripley, in conformity with orders from General Brown, put his troops in motion on the Queenstown road, but having soon afterwards learned that the enemy was in great force, at no considerable distance, while his own strength did not exceed sixteen hundred effectives, he again resolved to disobey his instructions. He therefore broke up the camp at Chippewa, and destroying the bridges in his rear, retreated to Fort Erie, the defences of which were immediately repaired and strengthened. The enemy, to the number of about five thousand men, followed his footsteps, and encamped about two miles from Fort Erie; to which they now laid a regular siege. On the day after the commencement of the siege, General Gaines arrived from Sackett's Harbour, and took the command. From this period until the 14th of August, a heavy cannonade was maintained against the American works, and the approaches of the besiegers were gradually drawn nearer. At length, at two in the morning of the 15th, the British troops moved to the assault in three columns. The right, under Colonel Fisher, advanced to within a short distance of the American left, which was defended by the 21st regiment, and Towson's artillery, when it was received with so destructive a fire, that after four successive attempts to advance, it broke and fled. The left column, under Colonel Scott, was received by the 9th regiment, Captain Douglas's artillery, and two companies of volunteers, and retreated after the first fire. The centre column, led by Colonel Drummond, advanced under cover of a ravine, without loss, to the wall, against which they placed scaling ladders, and after a sanguinary struggle established themselves for a short time on the bastion; at this moment, a sudden explosion took place under the platform, which destroyed numbers of both armies, and put the remainder of the enemy to flight. The remains of the British columns then retired to their camp. The loss of the assailants was very severe. Colonels Scott and Drummond, with fifty-four others, were killed, three hundred and nineteen wounded, and four hundred and thirty-nine missing, most of whom were killed or wounded. The American loss amounted to but eighty-four in all.

The besieging army lay comparatively inactive for a considerable period after this repulse. Fresh troops were constantly arriving, and a heavy cannonade was continued against the fort. The fire from the enemy's batteries proving very severe and destructive, General Brown, who had resumed the command, resolved on a sortie, for the purpose of effecting their destruc-

tion. The British force at this time consisted of three brigades, of about fifteen hundred men each, one of which was alternately stationed at the batteries, while the others remained at the camp, two miles distant. At noon on the 17th of September, the party destined for this enterprise, moved out of the fort in two divisions. The left, under General Porter, advanced through a wood, with so much celerity, that the enemy were completely surprised; a short conflict ensued, which ended in the capture of the batteries and garrison, with the loss of Colonels Gibson and Wood, who fell gallantly fighting at the head of their men. The right division, under General Miller, had been stationed in a ravine, with directions not to advance until General Porter should have gained the enemy's flank. The noise of the firing being heard, General Miller immediately moved forward, and, after a close and severe contest, the whole of the enemy's batteries were carried. The cannon were then spiked, and the troops having accomplished their object, returned to the fort, carrying with them three hundred and eighty prisoners. Besides this loss, one hundred and fifteen of the enemy were killed, and one hundred and seventy-eight wounded. The American loss was also very severe. Seventy-nine were killed, among whom was General Davis of the New York militia, two hundred and thirty-two wounded, and two hundred and sixteen missing.

The success of this enterprise compelled the British commander to raise the siege, and fall back behind the Chippewa. The American army was also soon afterwards strongly reinforced by the arrival of Major-general Izard, with five thousand men from Plattsburgh. Having taken the chief command, that officer immediately advanced towards Chippewa, where he found the enemy strongly intrenched, and vainly endeavoured to entice him into the field. The season being far advanced, it was determined to withdraw the army to the American shore. Fort Erie was therefore destroyed, and the troops went into winter quarters at Buffalo, Black Rock, and Batavia.

While the inhabitants of the northern frontier were thus suffering under the difficulties and privations of war, those of the south were not exempt from similar calamities. Previous to the commencement of hostilities with Great Britain, differences had existed between the Indians of the Creek and Seminole tribes and the United States, arising from depredations committed on the frontier settlers, which the latter were not slow in retaliating. The war

with England encouraged the savages to hope for assistance from that nation, and affairs soon bore the appearance of regular hostility. In the month of September, 1812, Colonel Newman, with about one hundred and twenty volunteers from Georgia, was attacked by a body of Indians, and after various success, was compelled to retreat. No event of great importance occurred subsequently to this, until the ensuing summer, when a most sanguinary and ruthless massacre filled the southern settlements with consternation. The threats of the Indians had caused many of the inhabitants on the Alabama to take refuge in the temporary forts which had been erected for the protection of the frontier. In one of them, called Fort Mimms, about one hundred and fifty men, and the same number of women and children, were collected. On the 30th of August, this unfortunate party was surprised by a large body of savages, and of the three hundred individuals, only seventeen escaped the tomahawk or the flames. The ruin and devastation of the neighbouring settlements followed this inhuman outrage, and it now became evident, that nothing short of the most exemplary punishment could restrain these ferocious savages. The legislature of the state of Tennessee immediately ordered a draft of thirty-five hundred men, of the militia, which were placed under the command of General Jackson. With about two thousand of this draft and five hundred mounted men, under the command of Colonel Coffee, that officer immediately set forth for the Seminole country. On the 2d of November, Colonel Coffee was detached with nine hundred men against a body of the Indians posted at Tallahatchee, whom he attacked with fury, and drove into their town. Here, a desperate conflict was maintained, the savages neither asking nor receiving quarter, until nearly every warrior perished. One hundred and eighty-six were killed, the remainder, consisting principally of the wounded, and women and children, became prisoners. Soon after the return of this detachment, General Jackson determined to proceed with his whole force, consisting now of twelve hundred infantry, and eight hundred mounted gun men and cavalry, to the relief of Talladega, a fort of friendly Indians, then invested by the enemy. Having made a rapid march, he arrived on the 8th of December within a short distance of the fort, and drew up his force so as nearly to surround the savages. A sharp conflict ensued, but part of the American infantry giving way, the main body of the enemy escaped; leaving three hundred warriors dead on the

field, and many more are said to have been killed in the pursuit. After this victory, General Jackson led his forces back to the vicinity of Tennessee, where he was soon involved in difficulties from the want of subordination in his troops. The term of service of the militia was about expiring, and the volunteers claimed a discharge from a misunderstanding of the law under which they were received. All the efforts of this popular and able commander were insufficient to restrain the mutinous spirit of his men; and he was at length compelled to march them back to Tennessee, where they were discharged.

In the mean time, the Indians were suffering in another quarter an ample measure of retribution. General White, with a body of East Tennessee militia, fell upon a town of the Hillabee tribe, which he destroyed, together with about sixty of their warriors; and returned with two hundred and fifty prisoners. About the same period, General Floyd, with a party of the Georgia militia, obtained a signal victory over a body of the enemy on the Tallapoosa. Two hundred of the latter were killed, after a contest of three hours, in which they fought with desperate bravery. The loss of the Georgians was trivial in comparison.

A small number of the militia still remained with General Jackson, and having received a reinforcement of one thousand mounted volunteers, who were engaged for sixty days only, he resolved to lead them against the enemy, a considerable body of whom was posted at a bend of the Tallapoosa. On the 21st of January, he arrived in the vicinity of this place, and encamped in a hollow square. At dawn the next morning, the American encampment was attacked by the Indians in several quarters, with the utmost fury. They were repulsed at one point, only to renew the assault at another; but the vigilance of General Jackson at length triumphed, and the enemy returned to their fortified post with great loss. The loss of the Americans too was considerable, and as provisions began to be scarce, General Jackson resolved to retrace his steps to the Coosa. His march was annoyed by the Indians, and on arriving at a dangerous defile near the crossing of the Enotichopeo Creek, his rear-guard was attacked, and put to a shameful flight. The gallant behaviour, however, of a company of artillery, retrieved the credit of the army, and saved it from destruction. The Indians were in their turn routed, and pursued to a considerable distance.

Soon after their return to Fort Strother, on the Coosa, the time of service of the

volunteers expired. A draft was then made of twenty-five hundred militia, for three months, and on the 6th of February they were joined by a regiment of regulars, six hundred strong. The want of provisions prevented General Jackson from undertaking any enterprise until the 14th of March, when he set out with the intention of attacking the enemy's post on the Tallapoosa, near New Youka. The Indians had displayed an unusual degree of judgment and skill in the selection and fortification of this post. It was surrounded on three sides by the river, and the only passage by which it was accessible was over a narrow strip of land, on which a breastwork, about six feet in height, with a double row of port holes, had been thrown up. The number of warriors with which it was garrisoned was supposed to amount to about one thousand. General Jackson's force, although considerably reduced by detachments, was three times as numerous. On the 27th of March, he reached the vicinity of Tohopeka. His plan of attack was soon arranged. General Coffee, with the mounted infantry, was directed to gain the southern bank, and encircle the bend; while the remainder of the forces were drawn up in front of the breastwork. As soon as it was announced that General Coffee had reached his station, the assault was commenced; for some moments a destructive contest was maintained at the intrenchment; but at length the assailants having scaled the rampart, the savages were in a short time driven to the bank. Here they encountered General Coffee's force, and finding their retreat cut off, they endeavoured to take refuge behind the brush on the lofty banks of the river, from which they occasionally fired upon the whites. The victory being now gained, General Jackson sent a flag with an interpreter to summon them to surrender. From misunderstanding the nature of the offer, or more probably from a determination to refuse quarter, they fired upon and wounded one of the party. They were, therefore, given up to destruction. Five hundred and fifty warriors were found dead upon the peninsula, besides a great number who perished in the river. Only four men, with three hundred women and children, were taken prisoners. Fifty-five of the Americans were killed, and one hundred and forty-six wounded; among the former was Major Montgomery of the regulars, a young officer of great promise, who was killed while mounting the enemy's intrenchments.

With this irretrievable defeat, terminated for ever the power of the Creeks. While we condemn their barbarities, and admit the propriety of retaliation, it is impossible

not to admire their valour and fortitude, and to regret that their lawless disposition required such exterminating severity. Their unconditional submission was the price of a treaty of peace concluded not long after this event. They agreed to retire to the rear of the army, and occupy the country east of the Coosa, while a line of American posts was established from Tennessee and Georgia to the Alabama.

It is now time to turn the attention of the reader to the proceedings of Congress, of which, however, our limits forbid us to give more than a rapid sketch. In the midst of unusual violence and asperity of parties, the 13th Congress assembled at Washington on the 24th of May, 1813. The most important part of the message of the president related to financial affairs, of which the picture was not very flattering. The expenditures consequent upon the state of the country, would, it was supposed, fully equal the receipts, and to sustain the credit of the treasury, it was imperiously necessary that some certain and adequate source of revenue should be provided. In conformity with the recommendation of the president, bills levying internal duties were introduced into the House of Representatives on the 10th of June, and were subsequently passed by both houses. By the first, a direct tax on lands and houses to the amount of three millions was authorized. The remainder imposed duties on distilled liquors, refined sugars, retailers' licenses, sales at auction, carriages, and bank and other notes, the proceeds of the whole were estimated at five and a half millions. A loan of seven and a half millions for the service of the year 1814, was subsequently authorized. After despatching other business of minor importance, Congress adjourned on the 2d of August.

On the 2d of December, that body again convened. In his message to both houses, the president called their attention to a subject of considerable interest. Among the prisoners taken by the British in the course of the war, were several natives of Great Britain, who had emigrated to America long previous to hostilities. On the principle set up by the British government, that no person can expatriate himself, they had been sent to England for trial as traitors. The American government immediately placed in confinement an equal number of British soldiers, with a notification that they would experience a similar fate with the American prisoners. In retaliation for this step, American officers and non-commissioned officers, double in number to the British soldiers, were imprisoned, and a similar punishment threatened. The American government, on the other hand, ac-

lected a like number of British officers, to be held as hostages for the Americans. Affairs were in this state, when the president's message was delivered. An arrangement was, however, effected in the spring of 1814, between the two governments, which provided that all prisoners, including those placed in confinement as hostages, should be exchanged, with the exception of those originally sent to England for trial, it appearing that no proceedings had been instituted against them. The right of retaliation was notwithstanding reserved by the American government in case any punishment should be inflicted on its citizens.

The great and unexpected revolution of power in Europe, which has been narrated in a preceding part of this work, had the effect of throwing open the long closed ports of that quarter to commercial adventure. The continuance of the restrictive system in America, could therefore no longer affect the British nation, which was now also to derive its supplies from, and export its manufactures to the continent. Other reasons also, it was supposed, concurred to induce a repeal of the embargo and non-importation laws; and this measure, which was recommended by the president, was adopted by both houses in the early part of April.

The increase and better organization of the army, were, however, subjects which required more of the attention of Congress. The inducements to enlist had been previously found insufficient, and were now greatly increased. An act was passed early in the session, offering a bounty of one hundred and twenty-four dollars in money, to every able-bodied person who should thereafter join the regular army, and a premium of eight dollars to every person who should provide a suitable re-

cruit. By a subsequent act, the president was authorized to re-enlist for five years, fourteen regiments of infantry, which had been originally engaged to serve for twelve months, and to raise three additional regiments of riflemen. To the naval force, little addition was made.

The annual report of the state of the treasury was not calculated to give a favourable opinion of the financial affairs. The expenditures for 1814 were estimated at upwards of forty-five millions, while the ways and means, it was supposed, would not exceed sixteen millions. To provide for the balance, two acts were passed by Congress. The first authorized the president to borrow a sum not exceeding twenty-five millions, and the second empowered him to issue treasury notes to the amount of five millions additional. Only a part, however, of the amount proposed to be borrowed, could be obtained, and that on terms very unfavourable to the government.

Early in the year 1813, an offer had been made by the Emperor of Russia to mediate between America and Great Britain. The proposal was accepted on the part of the former; and three commissioners, John Quincy Adams, Albert Gallatin, and James A. Bayard, were appointed by the president and senate to treat with the British government. The latter, however, refused to submit the subject to mediation, but professed its willingness to negotiate at London or Gottenburg. In consequence of this intimation, two additional commissioners, Henry Clay, speaker of the House of Representatives, and Jonathan Russell, were authorized, in conjunction with those already appointed, to treat with the British plenipotentiaries.

Congress adjourned on the 18th of April, after a session of uncommon length.

CHAPTER IV.

AMERICAN ANNALS, (continued :) Naval Events—Cruise of Commodore Rodgers—Cruise and Capture of the *Essex*—Capture of the *Eporvier*—Of the *Rein-deer*—Of the *Avon*—Of the *Levant* and *Cyane*—Of the *President*—Of the *Penguin*—War on the Coast—Capture of *Eastport*—Attack on *Stonington* and *Castine*—Battle of *Bladenburgh*—Capture of *Washington*—Attack on *Baltimore*—On *Plattsburgh*—Engagement on *Lake Champlain*—War in the South—Attack on *Mobile*—Capture of *Pensacola*—Invasion of *New Orleans*—Battles of *New Orleans*—Capture of *Fort Bowyer*—Civil History—Hartford Convention—Congressional Proceedings—Negotiation at *Ghent*—Treaty of *Peace*—Conclusion.

THE naval history of the United States, bears abundant proof of the enterprise and activity of the American marine. Courage and skill are admirable features in the character of seamen, but without a daring

spirit of enterprise, the vast superiority of the enemy would have condemned the republican navy to a perpetual blockade, as it had already done the navies of Europe. One of the most enterprising, though least

successful of the American officers, was Commodore Rodgers; who in his frequent cruises, had visited almost every portion of the globe. In the month of February, 1814, he returned with the frigate *President* to the United States, after a cruise of seventy-five days. Off Sandy Hook, he fell in with the British ship *Plantagenet* of seventy-four guns, and believing that he would not be able to escape, he lay-to for her to approach. She nevertheless declined an engagement, and Commodore Rodgers pursued his course to New York. The mutinous state of his crew, was subsequently alleged by the British commander, as a reason for not bringing the *President* to action.

About the same period, the cruise of Captain Porter in the frigate *Essex*, remarkable for its extent, and the adventurous spirit with which it was conducted, was terminated by the capture of that vessel. The *Essex* sailed from the Delaware in October, 1812, under orders to join the squadron of Commodore Bainbridge, off the coast of South America. After touching at the Cape de Verdes, Captain Porter arrived on the coast of Brazil in November, and not finding the *Constitution*, proceeded round Cape Horn, which he doubled during tremendous storms in the month of February. He then put into the port of Valparaiso, and having procured the necessary supplies, sailed for the Gallipagos islands. Here, he cruised for the space of six months, during which he inflicted incalculable injury on the enemy's commerce. The whole of the British vessels at that time on the Pacific were captured, to the number of twelve; three of them were sent to Valparaiso, three to the United States, and two given up to the prisoners. Of the remainder, one was converted into a vessel of war, on which he mounted twenty guns, and named her the *Essex Junior*, and with her and the other three, he proceeded to the Marquesas islands, for the purpose of provisioning and repairing his frigate. At Nooakeva, one of this group, he met with a very hospitable reception from the natives in general, but the hostile conduct of the *Typees*, one of the tribes, led to a conflict with them, which ended in the destruction of their village, with circumstances of severity deeply to be regretted.

In company with the *Essex Junior*, Captain Porter sailed from Nooakeva on the 12th of December, and arrived at Valparaiso shortly afterwards. They had not been here long, when a British frigate, the *Phœbe*, Captain Hillyar, with the *Cherub* sloop of war, appeared off the port, having been fitted out expressly to meet the *Es-*

sex. Their united force was much greater than Captain Porter's, the *Essex Junior* being a mere store-ship. After a blockade of six weeks, he at length made an attempt to get to sea; unfortunately, in rounding a point, a squall carried away his main-top mast, and thus precluded all hope of getting out. Returning to the harbour was equally impracticable, and Captain Porter therefore ran into a small bay, within pistol shot of the shore, where the laws of war ought to have protected him. Captain Hillyar, however, regardless of these rules, commenced an attack before a spring could be put on the *Essex's* cable. The *Phœbe* and *Cherub* both took a position under her stern, and opened a heavy fire from their broadsides. In return, Captain Porter could bring only three twelve-pounders to bear on the enemy, and finding his crew to be falling fast around him, he cut his cable, and ran down with the intention of laying the *Phœbe* on board. The latter however kept away, and being armed with long guns, the *Essex* carrying only carronades, her fire was so destructive that Captain Porter determined to run his ship on shore, but the wind setting off the land, he was unable to accomplish his purpose, and after a sanguinary contest of three hours, no alternative remained but to strike his colours. The slaughter on board the *Essex* was very great; out of two hundred and fifty-five men, one hundred and fifty-four were killed, wounded, or missing. The flag of the *Essex* was not struck to an equal force. The *Phœbe* mounted fifty-three guns, and had on board three hundred and twenty men; the *Cherub* twenty-eight guns, and one hundred and eighty men. The number of guns on board the two vessels, was therefore eighty-one, while the *Essex* carried only forty-six. The *Essex Junior* was at anchor in the port of Valparaiso, during the action, in which she bore no part.

In the encounters which took place this year, between the sloop of war of the two nations, the flag of the United States was uniformly triumphant. The ship *Peacock* of eighteen guns, commanded by Captain Warrington, being on a cruise on the southern coast, fell in with, on the 29th of October, the British brig *Epervier*, of equal force. After an action of forty-two minutes, the latter surrendered, with the loss of eight killed, and fifteen wounded. Only one man was killed, and two wounded, on board the *Peacock*. The prize, which was found to contain one hundred and twenty thousand dollars, was brought safely to the United States. About the same period, the sloop of war *Wasp*, of similar force, was launched, and sailed

under Captain Blakely, on a cruise in the British channel. On the 28th of June, she encountered the British brig of war *Reindeer* of nineteen guns, and after a series of manoeuvres on the part of the latter, succeeded in bringing her to a close action. The engagement was continued with great spirit for two hours, when the crew of the *Wasp* having boarded her antagonist, the British flag was hauled down. The loss on both sides was considerable, from the length of the action, and the proximity of the vessels. On board the *Wasp*, five were killed and twenty-one wounded. Twenty-five of the *Reindeer's* crew, including her captain, were killed, and forty-two wounded, and the vessel so much injured that it was found necessary to set her on fire. Soon after the action, Captain Blakely put into the port of L'Orient in France, from which he again sailed on the 27th of August. On the evening of the 1st of September, two sail were discovered, to one of which chase was given. At half past nine, the action commenced, and was terminated in forty-five minutes, by the surrender of the enemy, in a sinking state. While about to take possession of her, other vessels were discovered at a short distance, and the *Wasp* was compelled to abandon her prize, which subsequently proved to be the sloop of war *Avon*, of twenty guns. She sunk immediately after the removal of her crew, having lost eight killed and thirty-one wounded. Two only of the *Wasp* were killed, and one wounded, and the injury she received was so trifling, that her cruise was not interrupted. On the 23d of September, she captured a British brig of eight guns, which was sent to the United States, and from that period nothing more was ever heard of this gallant vessel.

The frigate *Constitution*, already memorable by her victories, was destined to add another leaf to her laurels. On the 17th of December, she sailed under Captain Stewart, on a cruise. On the 20th of February, 1815, two sail were descried, to which she gave chase, and at six P. M. came up with them; a spirited action ensued, one of the enemy's vessels being on the bow, and the other on the stern of the *Constitution*; in forty minutes the largest vessel surrendered, and proved to be the frigate *Cyane*, of thirty-four guns, and one hundred and eighty men. After taking possession of her, Captain Stewart gave chase to her consort, which was now endeavouring to escape, and having come up with her, she too surrendered, and was found to be the sloop of war *Levant*, of twenty-one guns, and one hundred and fifty-six men, thirty-nine of whom were killed or wound-

ed. On board the *Cyane*, twelve were killed and twenty-six wounded. Three only of the Americans were killed, and twelve wounded. On the 10th of March, Captain Stewart carried his prizes into the Portuguese harbour of Port Prayo; off which on the succeeding day, three large vessels were discovered. Captain Stewart immediately put to sea, and with the *Cyane* succeeded in reaching the United States, after a long and close pursuit. The *Levant* was compelled to put back into Port Prayo, and in violation of the laws of nations, was there captured by a British squadron.

After the arrival of the frigate *President* at New York, Commodore Rodgers, with his crew, were transferred to the new frigate *Guerriere*, and their places were supplied by Commodore Decatur, with the crew of the United States, which vessel was now laid up, there appearing no probability of an escape from the blockading squadron. The *President*, under her new commander, was now fitted out for a cruise in the Indian Seas, in conjunction with the *Peacock* and *Hornet* sloops of war, and a store ship. The port of New York was at this time blockaded by a large British force, which it became difficult to elude. The *President* therefore sailed alone, on the evening of the 14th of January, 1815, appointing a general place of rendezvous. Unfortunately, in going out of the harbour she struck on the bar, broke her rudder braces, and materially injured her trim for sailing. A strong westerly wind prevailing, she was unable to return to port. Her course was therefore continued, and at day-light she was discovered and chased by the *Majestic* of seventy guns, the *Endymion*, *Pomono*, and *Tenedos*, of fifty guns each. By noon, the *President* had out-sailed all the vessels except the *Endymion*, which was found to gain upon her. Every exertion was made to escape, by throwing over anchors and other heavy articles, but in vain. At five in the afternoon, the *Endymion* opened a fire upon the sails and rigging of the American vessel, and Commodore Decatur was reduced to the necessity of engaging her, with the hope of conquering her before the remainder of the squadron could get up. A spirited action then ensued, and was continued for two hours and a half, when the *Endymion* dropt astern, having ceased firing, and being to appearance disabled. Commodore Decatur then made sail again in the hope of escaping, but the *Pomono* and *Tenedos* soon afterwards coming up, he was compelled to surrender, with the loss of twenty-four killed, and fifty-five wounded. The loss of the *Endymion*, as stated by her com-

mander, was eleven killed and fourteen wounded. From her crippled state, no doubt can exist that she would have been compelled to strike to the President, had she been unsupported.

The Peacock and Hornet sailed soon afterwards, without being acquainted with the fate of the President. On the 23d of January, they parted company, and the Hornet directed her course to Tristan d'Acunha. While at anchor off this place on the 23d of March, a vessel of war was discovered, for which Captain Biddle made sail. About noon, an engagement commenced, which continued for twenty-two minutes, when the enemy, after being repulsed in an attempt to board, surrendered with the loss of forty-two killed and wounded. She proved to be the British brig of war Penguin, of nineteen guns, commanded by Captain Dickinson, who was killed in the action. Of the Hornet's crew, one man was killed and eleven wounded. The prize was destroyed on the succeeding day. The action of the Hornet and Penguin was the last of any importance that occurred during the war. The naval history of that period was thus terminated as successfully as it had been begun. In two instances alone, had the British flag been victorious over an equal force, and when the "thousand ships" of the enemy are remembered, their captures of vessels of inferior force were remarkably few. The brilliant victories of the American navy, on the other hand, raised the character and fixed the destinies of the republic. With the capture of the *Guerriere*, began a new era in its history. Henceforward, it may safely be predicted, that the dignity of the nation will not be insulted by the impressment of its seamen, nor its commerce assailed by the depredations of Europe.

The year 1814 was marked by a departure from the system which the British had previously observed in relation to the eastern states. The blockade of the coast, which had in the early part of the war been confined to the middle and southern states, was now extended to the most eastern extremity of the union, and shortly afterwards this step was followed by a direct invasion of its shores. On the 11th of July, a powerful British force under Sir Thomas Hardy, landed on Moose Island, in the bay of Passamaquoddy, and took possession of East Port, a place which had been in possession of the United States since the peace of 1783, although never actually recognised as within the territory. From this place, he sailed for the coast of Connecticut, and on the 9th of August appeared before the village of Stonington,

with a 74 gun ship, a frigate, a bombship, and a gun brig. A flag was sent in with a laconic note requiring the removal of the "unoffending inhabitants" within an hour. Three hours however elapsed, during which the militia of the vicinity were collected, and a small breast-work thrown up, with two eighteen-pounders and a four-pounder. The enemy commenced his fire in the evening, and continued it until midnight without the slightest injury to the town. During the next and succeeding day, the bombardment was renewed with no better effect. On the 12th, the whole squadron took their station nearer to the town, and kept up a heavy fire until noon when they hauled off, and on the 13th, weighed anchor and departed. This impotent attempt upon an unarmed village, served only to excite feelings of resentment against the assailants. About forty houses were destroyed, but not one individual injured.

A more extended plan of conquest was about this time matured by the British government. That part of the district of Maine which lies east of the Penobscot, would, it was conceived, be an advantageous addition to their possessions in that quarter, and preparations were accordingly made for taking possession of it, with a view of retaining it at the treaty of peace. On the 1st of September, a fleet under Admiral Griffith arrived off Castine, and a considerable body of troops under Governor Sherbrooke being landed, the town was taken possession of without opposition. The next day, about one thousand men were despatched in barges up the river, for the purpose of capturing the corvette *John Adams*, which lay at Hampden, distant about thirty-five miles. Her commander, Captain Morris, had landed some of her guns and thrown up a battery on the neighbouring heights for her protection. The militia of the vicinity, to the number of three hundred and fifty, were posted on the flanks of the seamen, but on the approach of the enemy they shamefully fled, leaving the latter without support. Captain Morris was therefore compelled to order a retreat, having previously destroyed his vessel. Some pieces of cannon and a few of the militia fell into the hands of the British. The next object of attack was the town of Machias. On the 9th of September, the British force arrived off this place, which surrendered without resistance. Preparations were then made to advance into the interior, but this trouble was saved by a voluntary offer of submission made by Brigadier-general Brewer, on behalf of the militia of the district, who engaged that they should not serve against

his Britannic majesty during the war. This disgraceful proposition was seconded by the principal inhabitants, and the whole territory thus passed under the British dominion, without even a show of resistance, and remained in their possession during the war, without any attempt on the part of the state of Massachusetts to recover it. It is impossible to avoid contrasting this tame acquiescence of the government and people of that state, with the energy and patriotism of the southern and western people, and even with the conduct of the inhabitants of the same state during the Revolution, and it affords a melancholy proof of the extent to which party spirit will sometimes carry men under the best of governments.

We have now to record an event which inflicted a more severe blow upon the character of the American administration, than any other incident of the war, and covered the people with shame and mortification. The capital of the republic, bearing the name of the venerable founder of its liberties, fell almost without a struggle into the hands of the enemy, and experienced a fate which Rome in the worst days of Europe never received from her invaders. The native spirit and resolution of the people, however, were not bowed down by this calamity; the camps and garrisons were filled with volunteers, who panted for revenge; those who had uniformly supported the war, were rendered still more zealous in its behalf, and thousands who had previously withheld their services, now gave it their warm and steady support. The blow aimed by the British government, therefore, recoiled on itself, and instead of dividing the people, the incursion to Washington had the effect of uniting all parties in the middle and southern states against the common enemy.

The operations of the British squadron in the Chesapeake during the early part of 1814, were not of a nature to require minute detail. With the exception of occasional skirmishes with a squadron of gun-boats under Commodore Barney Admiral Cockburn did not deviate from the course of petty warfare he had previously pursued against warehouses and churches. About the middle of June, information of the European peace having reached America, it was deemed proper by the administration to prepare a sufficient force as a counterpoise to the veteran troops, which the enemy would now be able to throw into the scale. An attack upon Baltimore or Washington being apprehended, a new military district, comprising those cities, was created, and placed under the command of General Winder; and on the 4th

of July, a requisition on the several states was made by the president for ninety-three thousand four hundred militia, who were to be detached and held in readiness for service. Of these, two thousand from Virginia, five thousand from Pennsylvania, six thousand, the quota of Maryland, and two thousand, the whole number of militia in the District of Columbia, were, with about one thousand regulars, placed at the disposal of General Winder. Between placing men at his disposal, and bringing effective troops into the field, however, there was a wide difference. None of the Pennsylvania militia appeared for many weeks after the requisition, in consequence of the deranged state of the militia system; only one half of those from Maryland arrived in time, and the Virginia troops as assembled, were unarmed and undisciplined. Such were the means with which an European army, flushed with conquest, were to be resisted. No more could have been expected of the commanding general than what was performed; but posterity will not fail to censure the gross neglect and improvidence of the administration.

Early in August, a strong reinforcement of ships of war, with a large body of transports, arrived in the Chesapeake, under Admiral Cochrane. To mask his intentions, the enemy despatched a number of frigates and bomb-vessels up the Potomac, and a squadron under Sir Peter Parker, to threaten Baltimore, while the main body ascended the Patuxent to the town of Benedict, where the army was landed on the 19th of August, to the number of about five thousand men, all infantry. On the next day, they advanced to Nottingham, along the river, supported by the launches of the squadron on their right flank, and on the 22d arrived at Marlborough. The flotilla under Commodore Barney, had been in the mean time destroyed by his sailors, who now joined the army under General Winder. On the news of the enemy's landing, the latter officer had collected about three thousand men, one half of whom were militia or volunteers of the District of Columbia, and had taken post at the wood-yards, about fourteen miles from Washington. On the advance of the enemy to Marlborough, he fell back to a position eight miles from that town, and about the same distance from Washington. On the evening of the 23d, the British advanced to within three miles of General Winder's encampment, and the latter, apprehensive of a night attack, retired upon Washington. The reinforcements from Baltimore, under General Stansbury, to the number of about twenty-one hundred men, with two companies of artillery, arrived on the

same night at Bladensburg, in a jaded and exhausted state. Hearing of the retreat of General Winder, they broke up their encampment before day on the 24th and fell back, but while on the march, orders were received from that officer to retrace their steps, and give the enemy battle at Bladensburg. General Stansbury accordingly marched back his troops, and took a position in a field on the left of the road from Washington, placing his artillery, which consisted of six six-pounders, behind a breastwork near the bridge. Shortly afterwards, General Winder brought up his main body, which was formed in a second line in the rear of the Baltimore troops, while Colonel Beall's militia, to the number of about eight hundred, were posted on the right of the road, and the heavy artillery, under Commodore Barney, was placed on an eminence commanding it.

These arrangements had scarcely been made, when the enemy's column appeared in sight, and moved rapidly towards the bridge. The fire from the artillery at first threw it into confusion, but being quickly rallied, it passed the bridge, displayed into line, and compelled the artillery to fall back on the left of the Baltimore troops, upon which the enemy continued to advance, throwing rockets from their pieces. Unable to withstand this fire, the Baltimore militia broke and retreated in confusion. The enemy now moved forward on the turnpike-road, where they were received by so spirited a discharge from the artillery under Commodore Barney, that after several ineffectual attempts to advance, they were compelled to desist from this project. They then moved to the left, and having soon put to flight the militia of Colonel Beall, exposed the flanks of Commodore Barney's force, which was then compelled to retreat, with the loss of their commander, who was wounded and made prisoner. The second line still remained firm, but being now outflanked, they were ordered to retreat and form on the heights near the capital, where they were to have been joined by a fresh body of Virginia militia, and by the Baltimore troops. Such, however, was the panic of the latter, that they had scattered in every direction; and it was found impossible to collect any considerable number. The assembled troops were insufficient to make any further defence, and after a consultation with some of the officers of government, General Winder determined to retreat through the city. In the mean time, General Ross moved on rapidly towards Washington, which he entered at the head of his advance, about eight o'clock in the evening.

The success of the British troops in the affair of Bladensburg, which hardly deserves the name of a battle, is not surprising. It is true, the numerical amount of the Americans was greater than that of their opponents;* but in every other respect, the latter were far superior. They were a united, well organized body of disciplined veterans, commanded by officers of experience, under whom they had long served. The Americans, on the other hand, were an uninstructed, discordant mass, harassed with unusual marches, ignorant of their own strength, and wanting confidence in their officers and themselves. Of the imposing array of numbers at Bladensburg, only five hundred were of the regular troops, and these were newly raised recruits; about six hundred were marines and sailors from the flotilla, and the remainder raw militia, who but a few hours before were pursuing the ordinary occupations of civil life. How was it to be expected that such men could withstand the fire of rockets and the assault of even half their number of veteran troops? Had the whole American force been united only a day before the engagement, it is possible nevertheless, that a different result might have taken place; or had the retreat of the Baltimore militia been conducted in a more orderly manner, and directed upon a proper point, a more determined stand might still have been made on the heights near the capital. The loss of men on the part of the Americans, was very trifling; ten or twelve only being killed, and about thirty wounded. That of the British was much more severe. Their whole loss amounted to two hundred and forty-nine, of whom sixty-four were killed, and one hundred and eighty-four wounded. With the entry of the British troops into Washington, terminated the glory of their expedition. The outrages upon taste and the arts, and humanity, that ensued, ought to fix an eternal stigma upon the government that directed, and the officers that executed them. In retaliation for the burning of Newark, which, as we have already seen, had been amply atoned for, the British Admiral Cochrane announced in an official letter to the secretary of state, that he was determined to "destroy and lay waste such towns and districts on the coast as might be found assailable," and the first opportunity that was afforded for putting

* The force of the enemy has been variously estimated, from thirty-five hundred to seven thousand. It probably did not exceed four thousand. That of the Americans, of all descriptions, was stated by the committee of Congress to have exceeded six thousand, with twenty pieces of artillery.

this most unrighteous plan into execution, was at Washington. Here, every thing that had in other times been held sacred, even by barbarians, fell a sacrifice to the ruthless hostility of these Christian invaders. The capitol, the president's house, the public offices of the government, together with the valuable library of Congress, and many private dwellings, were destroyed. The buildings at the navy-yard, with a new frigate and sloop of war, had been committed to the flames by order of the government previous to the entry of the enemy. Having gratified their animosity against the American people, the British commander retired from Washington on the evening of the 25th, leaving behind a number of their wounded, and arrived on the 29th at Benedict, where they re-embarked without molestation.

The squadron which entered the Potomac was not less successful. Fort Warburton was disgracefully abandoned by its commander, Captain Dyson, and no other obstacle intervening, they arrived off Alexandria on the 29th of August. This town, being entirely defenceless, was compelled to capitulate. The rapacity of the British officers was gratified by the surrender of the shipping and private merchandise, with which they descended the river, without receiving any serious injury. Sir Peter Parker, in the mean time, had, somewhat higher up the Chesapeake, landed a body of two hundred and fifty seamen and marines, for the purpose of surprising a body of two hundred militia, under Colonel Read, encamped near Bellair, on the eastern shore. He was received, however, very warmly by the Americans, until their cartridges being exhausted, the latter fell back, and the British party at the same time retreated, with the loss of their commander and several others killed.

In pursuance of their design of "destroying and laying waste," the British commanders next turned their attention to the city of Baltimore. On the 11th of September, the enemy's fleet appeared off the mouth of the Patapsco, about fourteen miles from Baltimore, and the next day the troops, to the number of about four thousand, landed at North Point, and took up their march for the city. The Americans, on their part, had not been remiss in preparing for defence. The whole of the city militia were called into the field, and with a brigade of Virginians, a few companies of volunteers from Pennsylvania, and about seven hundred regulars, formed an army of about eight thousand men, which was placed under the command of Major-general Smith. On the news of the appearance of the enemy, General Stricker

was detached with a force of about three thousand two hundred men, including a small body of cavalry and riflemen, and six four-pounders. On the 11th, this officer moved towards North Point, and halted near a creek, seven miles from the city. The next morning, on hearing of the enemy's landing, he took a position at the junction of the two roads, his right resting on the creek, and his left on a marsh, the artillery being posted in the main road, while a second and third line were placed in the rear. An advanced corps, which had been sent out to reconnoitre, had proceeded but a short distance, when it fell in with the main body of the enemy. A skirmish ensued with the advance of the latter, in which General Ross, the British commander, was killed. The command then devolved on Colonel Brooke, who continued to move forward, and having come into action with the force of General Stricker, deployed his troops to the right, and pressed upon the American left. General Stricker then ordered up his second line to that quarter, but from the inexperience of the militia, this movement was effected with great confusion, and shortly afterwards one of the regiments gave way, and fled in disorder, followed by a battalion of another regiment. The rest of the line remained firm, but the enemy now outflanking it, General Stricker fell back upon the heights in the rear, where General Smith, with his whole force, was posted.

On the succeeding morning, the enemy appeared in front of the American position, but finding it too strong for a direct attack, he manœuvred to the right, with the apparent intention of taking a circuitous route. Part of the American force was then disposed so as to counteract this design, and shortly afterwards the British commander concentrated his troops, and manifested an intention to assault the lines in the course of the night. At daylight the next morning, however, it was discovered that he had retreated. A party was detached in pursuit, but in consequence of the fatigue of the troops, the enemy re-embarked without much loss. In the engagement of North Point, thirty-nine of the British were killed, and two hundred and fifty-nine wounded. Of the Americans, twenty-four were killed, one hundred and thirty-nine wounded, and about one hundred taken prisoners.

While these events were occurring on land, a formidable attack was made on Fort M'Henry, which commands the approach to Baltimore. The bombardment commenced at sunrise on the 13th, and was continued until seven in the morning

of the 14th, when the British admiral, finding a greater resistance than he expected, withdrew his ships, after suffering considerable loss; and having taken on board the land forces, descended the Chesapeake. Thus terminated the attack on Baltimore, from which success was confidently anticipated by the British commander. He found, however, to his cost, a different reception from what he met at Bladensburg, and paid the forfeit of his life for his mistaken contempt of the American people.

While the southern states were thus experiencing the calamities of an aggravated and relentless hostility, another portion of the union had been invaded by the enemy, under circumstances very unfavourable to the cause of the republic. The peace of Europe had placed at the disposal of the British government a large and formidable army, with which it was enabled to attempt schemes of conquest and destruction, more extensive than any it had yet conceived. The first step in its new plans was apparently to obtain the command of Lake Champlain, and thence to move down the Hudson, thus dividing the eastern section from the rest of the union, while the discontent so strongly manifested in the New England states, would, it was hoped, lead also to a political division. The expected reinforcements arrived in the months of July and August, and as soon as they were organized, it was determined to lead them on the expedition. On the 3d of September, Sir George Prevost, at the head of fourteen thousand regular troops, crossed the American frontier, and took possession of the village of Champlain, intending thence to proceed to the attack of Plattsburgh, while the British squadron should at the same time engage that of the Americans on the lake.

The march of General Izard to Sackett's Harbour had left Plattsburgh undefended, except by about fifteen hundred regular troops, under Brigadier-general Macomb. On the news of the enemy's design, the utmost exertion was made by this officer to collect a force of militia, and to put the works thrown up for the protection of the place in the best state of defence. By the 4th of September, about one thousand militia were collected, part of whom were stationed seven miles in advance, to obstruct the progress of the enemy. On the 6th, the latter was discovered approaching, and after a slight skirmish the militia party retired in confusion. The advance of the British column was, however, considerably retarded by the felling of trees, and other means, and General Macomb had time to collect his troops, and tear up the planks of the bridge across the Sara-

nac, on the right bank of which his entrenched camp was situated. The enemy having made his appearance, his light troops entered the town, and annoyed the Americans on the opposite bank, until by a few hot shot the buildings were set on fire, and several attempts to cross on the ruins of the bridges were uniformly repulsed. From this period to the 11th, the British commander was occupied in throwing up batteries opposite the American lines, and General Macomb on his part was no less active in strengthening his works, and augmenting his force.

The operations of Sir George Prevost appear to have been retarded by the delay in fitting out the squadron, whose co-operation he conceived necessary to the success of an assault. At length on the morning of the 11th, the British vessels appeared in view of Plattsburgh. Their fleet consisted of the frigate *Confiance* of 39 guns, the brig *Linnet* of 16, the sloops *Chub* and *Finch* of 11 each, and thirteen galleys mounting 18 guns; carrying in all 95 guns and about one thousand men, and was commanded by Captain Downie. The American squadron was anchored in the bay of Plattsburgh, and carried in all 86 guns and about eight hundred men. It was commanded by Commodore Macdonough, and consisted of the *Saratoga* of 26 guns, the *Eagle* of 20, the *Ticonderoga* of 17, the *Preble* of 7; and ten galleys mounting 16 guns. At nine in the morning, the British commodore in the *Confiance*, anchored abreast of the *Saratoga*, at a distance of three hundred yards; and the remaining vessels of his squadron took their stations opposite to those of the Americans. The engagement then commenced. After a fire of two hours, Commodore Macdonough, finding that the superior force of the *Confiance* had crippled most of the guns on the starboard side of his vessel, resolved to wind her round and open a fresh fire. This difficult manœuvre was performed with success, and the *Confiance* being unable to effect the same operation, soon afterwards surrendered. The brig and sloops followed the same fate; three of the galleys were sunk, and the rest escaped. This glorious and memorable victory was gained with little comparative destruction of life. The killed and wounded of the Americans amounted to one hundred and ten; of the British eighty-four were killed, including Captain Downie, and one hundred and ten wounded.

The attack of the American batteries commenced at the same moment with the naval engagement. Repeated attempts were made under cover of a heavy bombardment to force a passage of the river, in

each of which the assailants were repulsed with great loss. The surrender of the fleet, which was announced by the shouts of victory from the American lines, induced the British commander to withdraw his troops from the contest. At two in the morning of the 12th, the whole British army precipitately retreated, leaving their sick and wounded behind, and reached Chazy, eight miles distant, before their flight was discovered. Upwards of five hundred deserters soon afterwards came in, and their whole loss was supposed by General Macomb to be about twenty-five hundred : that of the Americans was only ninety-nine. Such was the issue of this powerful expedition, the last operation undertaken by the enemy in that quarter. The double victory of the army and navy raised the hopes, and exalted the reputation of the American people, and had a powerful effect upon the issue of the negotiations then pending between the two countries.

Another brilliant series of events remains to be recorded, before we terminate the narration of military operations. In the extreme south, as well as on the remote northern frontier, a ray of glory was shed on the closing scenes of the war, and a fresh lesson inculcated of the strength and power of a free people contending against the invaders of their soil. After the conclusion of the contest with the Creeks, General Jackson fixed his head-quarters at Mobile, where he received information that about three hundred British troops, under Colonel Nicholls, had arrived at Pensacola, and that an additional force of thirteen sail of the line, and ten thousand men, were daily expected. With his characteristic promptitude, he immediately made an additional call on the people of Tennessee, and took efficient measures to prepare for defence. The entrance of the bay of Mobile is defended by Fort Bowyer, which was at this time garrisoned by one hundred and twenty men of the 2d infantry, under Major Lawrence. On the 15th of September, Colonel Nicholls appeared, with four vessels of war, off the fort, and soon afterwards landed a body of three hundred men, composed of regulars and Indians. An attack was commenced at the same time by land and water; but after a cannonade of three hours, the British vessels were compelled to retreat, and the commodore's frigate was so much disabled, that she drifted on shore, where she was set on fire and abandoned by her crew, only twenty of whom, out of one hundred and seventy, escaped. The troops retreated by land to Pensacola.

The government of Florida, having thus

suffered its neutral territory to be violated, for the purpose of inflicting an injury on the United States, General Jackson resolved to demand satisfaction. He therefore marched from Mobile with a body of Tennessee volunteers, two thousand of whom had recently joined him, some regulars, and a few Choctaw Indians; and, having arrived in the vicinity of Pensacola on the 6th of November, he sent a flag, which was fired on and forced to return. He now determined to take possession of a place which had been so long made use of by the enemies of the republic to its annoyance. Early on the 7th, the troops were put in motion. The American encampment being to the west, it was supposed the attack would be made in that quarter, and accordingly the chief preparations of defence were made by the British and Spaniards on that side. The main body of the Americans, however, were directed to an opposite point, and the garrison, being completely surprised, were soon driven from their positions; a capitulation was then signed, by which Pensacola and the different fortresses were surrendered to the United States. The fort called the Barrancas, which commanded the entrance of the bay, remained yet to be taken possession of. General Jackson was about marching his army for this purpose, when intelligence was received of its destruction by the British troops, who with their shipping then evacuated the bay. The government of the United States had not authorized the re-construction of them, and General Jackson soon afterwards returned to Mobile.

While at Mobile, intelligence was received that a formidable expedition was preparing for the invasion of Louisiana, and General Jackson proceeded immediately to New Orleans. Here, abundant occasion was offered for the exercise of his varied talents, and the display of his mental energy. This important city was not properly defended at any one of the points from which it might be assailed: its population was various, disunited, apprehensive, and discontented; many had refused to comply with the militia draft, and even the legislative assembly was not free from the spirit of disaffection. In this state of things, the most decided and efficient measures were necessary, and General Jackson was not slow in adopting them. The defences of the Mississippi were strengthened; the inlets or bayous to the east were obstructed; the militia of Kentucky and Tennessee, who had been ordered out by the government, were hastened in their progress, and the patriotism of the people aroused by every means in his power.

At length, early in December, a fleet of sixty sail of vessels was discovered off the Ship Island. A naval force of five gun-boats, under Lieut. Jones, had been collected on the lakes east of the town, which it was supposed would be able successfully to defend the narrow inlet; and now, on the news of the enemy's approach, Lieutenant Jones made sail for the passes of Lake Pontchartrain. Here, on the 13th, he was attacked by the enemy's barges, to the number of forty-three, with upwards of a thousand men, and after a gallant defence of an hour, was compelled to surrender. The capture of these vessels having given the enemy the entire command of the approaches to New Orleans in that quarter, General Jackson redoubled his vigilance and exertions. The militia of the city was called out *en masse*; an embargo was laid on the vessels in the harbour; the negroes were impressed and compelled to work on the fortifications; and soon afterwards, martial law was proclaimed. These strong and unusual measures, which nothing but the urgency of the case could have justified, led probably to the salvation of New Orleans.

Most of the bayous and canals leading to the Mississippi, had been obstructed or guarded with care. One, called the Bayou Bienvenu, being little known, was unfortunately left open and undefended, except by a picket guard. On the 22d, the enemy came suddenly on the American detachment, surprised them, and having pushed rapidly, reached the bank of the river by two o'clock in the afternoon. General Jackson, who had been joined the preceding day by four thousand Tennessee militia, under General Carroll, resolved immediately on attacking them. With about two thousand men, consisting of General Coffee's brigade of militia, a small body of regulars, and the city volunteers, with a detachment of artillery, he marched in the afternoon of the 23d, leaving General Carroll's force, and the city militia, to defend the Gentilly road.

To the left of the enemy's line resting on the river, General Jackson ordered the armed schooner Caroline to take a station, from which a fire could be advantageously opened upon it, at the same moment that the attack should be made by the land forces. This plan was put in execution about seven in the evening. The brigade of General Coffee rushed impetuously on the British right, while General Jackson, with the remainder of the forces, assailed their left, and the battery of the Caroline was directed with considerable effect. The enemy, although taken by surprise, soon formed, and withstood the assault with

bravery. A thick fog arising, the American commander withdrew his troops, and, at four in the morning, retired to a strong position near the city. His loss in this short engagement was twenty-four killed, and one hundred and fifteen wounded, and seventy-four missing. That of the British was, in all, two hundred and thirteen.

The American troops were now earnestly employed in strengthening the position taken by General Jackson, after the affair of the 23d. These lines, which subsequent events have rendered memorable, were on both banks of the Mississippi. That on the left was nearly straight, about one thousand yards in length, with a parapet, and a ditch containing five feet water, extending on the right to the river, and on the left to a thick and impervious wood. On the right bank, was a heavy battery of fifteen cannon, which enfiladed the advance to the lines on the left. In the mean time, the enemy had been reinforced by the main body of the army, and a large train of artillery, under Sir Edward Packenham, the commander-in-chief of the expedition. Having previously destroyed the schooner Caroline, by a battery erected for the purpose, the whole British army was marched up the levee on the 28th, and at the distance of half a mile, began a furious attack, with rockets and bombs. The fire from the American lines was, however, directed with so much more precision, that the British general drew off his troops with some loss. At daylight, on the 1st of January, the cannonade was renewed from batteries erected by the enemy near the American lines, while, at the same time, a bold attack was made on General Jackson's left, which ended in the repulse of the assailants. In the evening, they retired from their batteries, leaving behind a considerable quantity of warlike munitions.

Shortly after this event, both armies received an accession of strength; that of General Jackson, by the arrival of twenty-five hundred Kentuckians, under General Adair, and the invaders by General Lambert, with four thousand men. The American troops now consisted of about eight thousand men, many of whom were badly armed; the British were in number not less than ten thousand, mostly veterans, and provided with every necessary article of war. Preparatory to the grand assault of the lines, it was necessary for the British commander to obtain possession of the batteries on the right bank, which the want of boats prevented his reaching. With great labour, he at length succeeded in cutting a canal from the bayou to the Mississippi, by which he was enabled to

transport his boats to the river. This operation was completed on the 7th, and the next morning fixed for the assault, which was to take place on both banks at the same time.

The eighth of January will long be memorable in the annals of the American republic. The preservation of an important city from plunder and violation; the defeat and destruction of the most powerful army that ever landed on the American shores, by a band of undisciplined militia—such were the consequences of the events of this day. Having detached a strong party to the right bank, under Colonel Thornton, the British commander moved early in the morning with his remaining force to the assault, in two divisions, under Generals Gibbs and Keen, the reserve being commanded by General Lambert. When they arrived within reach of the batteries, a heavy cannonade was opened, and as they approached nearer, a stream of well directed fire, from the unerring rifles of the militia, carried destruction into their ranks. After vainly attempting to advance, the assailants broke and fled in confusion. A second time, did they approach the ditch, with equal ill success. A third attempt was made to bring them to the charge, but such was the havoc made among their officers, and in their ranks, that nothing could induce them to return.—Their commander-in-chief had been killed; Generals Keen and Gibbs were severely wounded, and the plain was strewn with the dead and dying. In this state of things, General Lambert, upon whom the command had devolved, determined to give up the contest; and collecting together the remains of his army, returned to camp. The attack on the right bank, had in the mean time been made, and was attended with greater success. The body of undisciplined militia, by which it was defended, had ingloriously fled, through fear of being outflanked, and the enemy quickly obtained possession of their works. The defeat on the left bank, however, left the enemy little disposition to profit by this advantage; and a stratagem of General Jackson induced him to abandon it. General Lambert having proposed an armistice, the proposal was agreed to by the American commander, with a condition that it should not extend to the right bank, to which no reinforcements should be sent by either party. Deceived by this reservation, which led him to suppose that the Americans had been reinforced in that quarter, General Lambert withdrew his troops, and the lines were immediately re-occupied by

General Jackson. Never perhaps was a victory gained with a greater disproportion of loss, than on this occasion. Of the Americans, only seven were killed and six wounded, while of the enemy, upwards of two thousand, including almost all their general officers, were killed, wounded, or prisoners. The patriot is often compelled to weep over the carnage by which his country has been delivered from foreign invasion: but how exquisite is his gratification, when that holy end is effected with little bloodshed, and when, in the beautiful language of the defender of New Orleans, "Not a cypress leaf is interwoven with the wreath of triumph." The loss of human life is always to be regretted; but humanity itself must cease to lament, when those, whose purpose is violation, plunder, and destruction, perish in the attempt to effect their object.

The enemy had been equally unsuccessful in his endeavour to force a passage up the Mississippi. A part of the British fleet entered that river, and anchored opposite Fort St. Philip, on which they commenced a cannonade on the 9th of January, which was continued until the 17th, when finding that no impression was made, they gave up the contest, and retired from the river. From this place, they proceeded to Mobile bay, where the remainder of the fleet had assembled, with the troops of General Lambert, which had re-embarked after their repulse from New Orleans. Fort Bowyer was invested by this formidable force on the 18th of February, and surrendered on the 11th of March. The garrison, to the number of three hundred and sixty-six, were made prisoners of war. The news of peace, which arrived soon after this event, put a period to all further hostility.

The political history of the republic during this period, abounds with important and interesting events, of which we can give no more than a rapid sketch. The designs of devastation and destruction, avowed by the enemy, and the degrading demands made of the American plenipotentiaries at the negotiations of Ghent, had united all parties in the middle and southern states, for the determination to uphold the rights of their common country. In the eastern states, unfortunately, a different temper prevailed. Neither the dangers of the republic, nor the lofty and insulting tone of her enemy, were of sufficient moment to induce the leaders of the dominant party in that section, to swerve from the course of unvarying opposition to the measures of the government they had from the first adopted. It is mortifying to state,

that every opportunity was taken of interfering with the just and legal prerogatives of the general government, and by the language of defiance and disunion it was thought proper to use, the enemy was encouraged to persevere in the war, from a belief that a dissolution of the confederacy was not far distant. Towards the close of the year 1814, it appeared as if the most violent of the opposition party were urging matters to this awful crisis. The report of a committee of the legislature of Massachusetts, after dwelling on the supposed grievances of that section, recommended a convention of delegates from the states of New England, for the purpose of consulting on the best means of redressing them. The report being adopted, twelve delegates were appointed, and the rest of the New England states invited to accede. Of these states, Rhode Island and Connecticut alone coincided with Massachusetts.

The delegates from the three states, met at Hartford on the 15th of December, and sat with closed doors until the 4th of January, when they adjourned, after publishing a report of considerable length. In this document, they attempted to demonstrate that the commercial interests of New England had been sacrificed to promote the views of the administration; during the preceding thirteen years, and recommended certain alterations of the constitution, as necessary for the general welfare. It was evident from the proceedings of these persons, that they would have gone further, and plunged the country into the horrors of a civil contest, for the gratification of a sordid and selfish love of power, had they not perceived that the great body of the community was against them. They wanted courage to perform what they had often and vehemently threatened, and the feeble actors of this noisy drama sunk first into contempt, and have since passed into oblivion. The name of this convention is still preserved, and has almost become proverbial for every thing bold and flagitious in design, but weak and timid in execution. It is hardly necessary to add that the resolutions it recommended, were immediately rejected by the other members of the union.

Congress assembled on the 19th of September, amid the ruins of the capital, from which the desolating hand of the invader had just been withdrawn. The gloomy state of the country required new energy and decision from the representatives of the people; the enemy was to be taught that the spirit of a republic rises with the pressure upon it, and the designs of the 'actionous and discontented were to be

baffled and repressed. For the further prosecution of the war, and the defence of the country against the bold projects of the enemy, the treasury was to be replenished, and the army considerably augmented. The financial embarrassments of the administration had for some time been extreme; great difficulty had been experienced in obtaining the authorized loans, in consequence of the payment of the interest not being sufficiently guaranteed, and of the disordered state of the circulating medium. At length, on the appointment of Mr. Dallas to the treasury department, which took place soon after the meeting of Congress, a new and more efficient system was adopted. In his first communication to Congress, the distressed condition of the finances was openly acknowledged, while the great resources of the country were exhibited, and developed. He recommended the institution of a national bank, with a capital of fifty millions, an increase of 100 per cent. to the direct tax and the other duties, and the imposition of new taxes, to the amount of seven millions annually. By these means, it was calculated that an annual sum of twenty-one millions might be raised, with which the ordinary expenses of the country, and the interest on loans, might be defrayed, while the extraordinary expenses of the war were to be provided for by loans and the issue of treasury notes. The measures recommended by the secretary, were generally adopted in Congress. The bills for the imposition of taxes passed both houses, and were sanctioned by the president. That for the establishment of a national bank, however, underwent a different fate. After suffering repeated amendments, the most important of which was the reduction of its capital to thirty millions, it passed both houses, but on being presented to the president for his signature, was returned by him, with objections founded on the manner in which the capital of the proposed bank was constituted, and its supposed inefficacy to assist the operations of the treasury. A new bill was introduced in the Senate, agreed to by that body, and after the receipt of the news of peace, indefinitely postponed by the House of Representatives.

The next step was to increase the number and efficiency of the army, in order to meet the augmented means of the enemy. The employment of militia, under the existing system, was found expensive and precarious, and enlistments into the regular army proceeded very slowly, from the want of adequate inducements. Several plans were proposed by Mr. Monroe, who

now filled the office of secretary of war. The first proposed a classification of the militia, each class being compelled to furnish a recruit for the ranks of the regular army. The second was founded on a similar classification, and an extension of the term of service to two years. A bill in conformity to the latter proposition was introduced into Congress, and passed the Senate, but in the House of Representatives the term of service was reduced to one year. Its most important feature being thus destroyed, it was subsequently postponed to a day beyond the session.

While Congress was thus engaged in the discussion of warlike measures, the pleasing and unexpected intelligence arrived, that a treaty of peace had been signed at Ghent, on the 24th of December. The correspondence between the respective plenipotentiaries, which had been previously communicated to the public, had not been of a nature to encourage the belief that a speedy termination of hostilities was near. After a long delay, the British commissioners arrived at Ghent on the 6th of August, and in their first communication evinced the spirit in which the negotiation would be conducted on their part. The termination of the European contest had removed the principal causes for which the war against Great Britain had been declared, and as soon as the American administration were apprized of that event, they instructed their commissioners to waive the abstract question of impressment and blockade, or to conclude a treaty leaving those points open for future discussion. A fair opportunity was therefore offered to the British government to close the contest on honourable terms. Their recent successes, however, in Europe, had filled them with the idea of the great superiority of Britain over her republican opponent, had increased their pretensions, and elevated their tone. It was required by their commissioners as a *sine qua non*, that no purchase should in future be made from the Indians, the limits of whose possessions should be distinctly marked; that no fortified post should be maintained by the United States on the shores of the

western lakes, and no vessels of war kept on their waters, while the right of fortifying and maintaining a naval force was to be retained by England; that the western boundary should be revised; and that the United States should cede to Great Britain a part of the district of Maine, in order that a direct communication might be maintained between Halifax and Quebec. The answer of the American commissioners was decided, but temperate. The claims of their opponents received a prompt and unqualified negative, while at the same time their injustice was clearly exposed. Matters remained in this state until intelligence was received in Europe of the capture of the territory of Penobscot, when a new proposition was made by the British commissioners to treat on the basis of the *uti possidetis*, a proposal which was immediately rejected. The news of the defeat of the British troops at Baltimore and Plattsburgh, and of the capture of their fleet on lake Champlain, reached Europe not long afterwards, and appears to have produced a considerable effect upon the tone of the British government. Their demands were necessarily relinquished, and the only obstacles remaining in the way of accommodation were thus removed.

The first article of the treaty of peace provided for the restoration of all places and possessions taken by either party, with the exception of the islands in the bay of Passamaquoddy. The second and third related to the period after which the capture of prizes should be deemed invalid, and to the restoration of prisoners. By the fourth, it was agreed that the claims of the two countries to the islands in the bay of Passamaquoddy should be decided upon by commissioners. The fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth articles, related to similar questions of boundary, and provided a similar mode of settlement. By the ninth, it was agreed that both parties should put an end to hostilities with the Indians. The tenth related to the traffic in slaves, to promote the entire abolition of which both parties agreed to use their best endeavours.

CHAPTER V.

FRENCH HISTORY: Difficulties of the Situation of Louis XVIII. at the Commencement of his Reign—Sketch of his Ministry—Opening of the first Session after the Restoration—Speech of the King—Royal Constitutional Charter—Restrictions on the Liberty of the Press—Exposition of the State of the French Nation at the Period of the Restoration—Budget—King's Debts and Civil List—Prince Talleyrand's Contrast between the public Burthens of France, England, and America—Establishment of the Legion of Honour confirmed—The sale of Emigrant Property declared irrevocable—Restoration of the unsold Estates of the Emigrants—The Duke of Tarentum's Plan for indemnifying the Emigrants, and securing the Endowments of the Military—Corn Laws—Establishment of Ecclesiastical Schools—Of a National Penitentiary for Young Criminals—Expedition against the French Part of the Island of St. Domingo abandoned—Close of the First Session of the Restoration Parliament—State of Parties in France—Disinterment of Louis XVI. and his Queen—Ominous Aspect of public Affairs.

LOUIS XVIII. on ascending the throne of his ancestors, found himself surrounded by difficulties. The splendid military despotism, which had for several years dazzled his country, had hushed, but not extinguished the revolutionary parties, and the circumstances of the restoration gave to the conflicting views and interests of his subjects new life and vitality. It is one of the baneful consequences of a long continued state of warfare, that it gives to a large portion of the population habits of living, and modes of thinking, very adverse to a state of peace. The military life, notwithstanding all its hardships, by its varied scenes and licentious indulgences, seldom fails to prove alluring to the youthful mind in the lower ranks of society; while in the higher a great number are professionally devoted to it, whose sole hopes of future advancement depend upon the subsisting demand for their services. Modern history scarcely affords an instance in which the causes of a fondness for war have concurred more efficaciously than in France, which, from the period of its revolution, had almost continually been involved in hostilities; and which, during many years, had submitted to the despotic rule of a man of unbounded ambition, and of talents peculiarly adapted to military enterprise. The astonishing success attending his schemes of aggrandizement, had raised the power and glory of the nation to an elevation greatly beyond those of its proudest days; and the armies which he led into the field surpassed in magnitude those of any period in French history. It is true, his gigantic plans had ultimately wrought their own subversion, and he had been the author of a more extensive and tragical waste of lives to his own troops, than can be paralleled in modern times; still, however, a great mass of past glory adhered to his name, and his troops had no difficulty in finding reasons for his failures, in unforeseen circumstances,

and in the perfidious desertion of his former allies. The pride of the nation, co-operating with this feeling, spurned at the idea of being conquered; and to escape from this reproach they willingly cherished the notion, that if treachery had not prevented Napoleon from executing his military combinations, he would in the last campaign have driven the allied armies in disgrace from the French territory. As soon, therefore, as the joy of present relief from danger had subsided, a spirit of discontent manifested itself in animosity against the allies, and in dissatisfaction to a government considered as imposed upon them by the triumph of foreign arms. The party thus formed soon became strong and audacious in the capital, and in some of the departments; and it required all the prudence and vigilance of the government to prevent its breaking out in acts of violence and insurrection.

The great body of the French nation, however, found themselves exhausted with the pressure of war, and anxious to enjoy that repose, which they hoped to find under the reign of a benign monarch, supported by the friendship and alliance of all the powers of Europe. The French marshals, no matter how strongly influenced by self-interest, had all sent in their adhesion to the new government, and while the soldiers were without leaders, their murmurs and discontent presented no subject of serious alarm.

It was on this principle, that the king endeavoured to attach the marshals and generals to his person and government, and to guarantee to them those honours and distinctions for which they were originally indebted to another master. To confer upon the government an increased ground of security, Marshal Soult, whose military talents had placed him among the most distinguished generals of France, was appointed minister of war; and Prince Talleyrand, the early minister of Napoleon,

and one of the most consummate statesmen of his age and nation, was elevated to one of the first offices in the state, and intrusted with the entire management of the negotiations at the congress of Vienna. With respect to the political integrity of this minister, doubts may justly be entertained; he had found no difficulty in accommodating himself to the republican form of government at the commencement of the revolution, and to the military despotism of Napoleon in a more advanced state of its progress; but no man was a more complete master of the science of diplomacy; and it was to the skilful application of his influence over the public mind, that the Bourbons were indebted in a large degree for their restoration. In point of rank, the first minister of the king was M. d'Ambray. This statesman, whose political bias was in favour of absolute power, was placed at the head of the law department, and like a late distinguished British chancellor, discharged the duties of his office with more integrity of principle than urbanity of manners. M. Beugnot, who for some months filled the office of director-general of the police, and was afterwards removed to the naval department, recommended himself to the favour of his sovereign, by the fascination of his manners, and the charms of his literature, rather than by the extent of his political knowledge, or his sagacity in the choice of his agents. M. d'André, the successor of Beugnot in the police, though zealously attached to his king, retained in his department the principal part of those public officers who had served Fouché and Savary, and with this assistance discharged the functions of his office with vigilance and activity. M. Ferrand, another of the emigrants, held the office of director-general of the posts, with a seat in the cabinet. A martyr to the palsy, he had not the energy necessary for his situation; and his secretaries and clerks were all devoted to Lavallette, the postmaster-general under Napoleon. M. Dupont, the predecessor of Soult in the office of minister of war, and formerly one of Bonaparte's generals, was a wit and a poet, but destitute of the qualifications which constitute a man of business. The Abbe Louis, minister of finance, by his skill and application, contributed to impart to the public mind a confidence in the national resources. The Abbe Montesquiou, minister of the interior or home department, an office in which the whole internal government of the country is comprised, and from which the recommendation of all the prefects, sub-prefects, and mayors, emanates, was a man of pleasure, and better calculated to shine in the court of

Louis XV. than to preside in the council of Louis XVIII. Though strongly attached to the king, he retained in office a large proportion of the municipal officers under the Napoleon dynasty, on the principle that it is better policy to gain over an enemy than to recompense a friend. Count de Blacas, the minister of the king's household, from the influence he possessed over the mind of his sovereign, was regarded as the first of his ministers. He had shared the fortune of his king in exile, and while resident in England held the office of master of the stole at Hartwell. It is difficult to characterize the political system of this favourite; though, like the Abbe Montesquiou, he is generally supposed to have cherished the chimerical hope of restoring the ancient *regime*, and bringing back the government to the period of 1798. Besides these, there were several other members of the chambers, who held the rank of ministers without filling any ostensible situation; but although there were abundance of ministers, there was no point of adhesion in the ministry; personally unacquainted with each other, they were divided in their political views, and governed their separate departments without any general pervading principle, considering themselves more as independent clerks than as a united executive power.

On the 4th of June, 1814, the royal session was opened in the saloon of the legislative body. On that occasion, the king, accompanied by the princes of the blood and the marshals of France, and other distinguished officers and ministers, seated himself upon the throne, and addressed the assembly in the following terms:—

"Gentlemen, surrounded as I am, for the first time, by the great officers of state, and the representatives of a nation, which unceasingly lavishes on me the most affecting marks of its regard, I congratulate myself on having become the dispenser of those benefits, which Providence has deigned to confer on my people.

"I have concluded a peace with Austria, Russia, England, and Prussia, in which all their allies are included, that is to say, all the princes of Christendom. The war was universal; the peace will be equally so.

"The rank which France has always held among nations, has been transferred to no other, and remains in her undivided possession. All that other states acquire as to security, tends equally to increase her's, and consequently increases her real power. That portion of her conquests which she does not retain, should not be regarded as detracting from her real strength.

"The glory of the French armies has received no stain. The monuments of their valour exist, and the *chef-d'œuvre* of art henceforth belong to us by more stable and more sacred rights than those of victory.

"The paths of commerce, which have so long been closed, are about to be re-opened. The mar-

kets of France will not only be open to the productions of her own soil and industry ; but will also be supplied from the possessions which she recovers, with such articles as custom has taught her to want, as well as those which are necessary for the arts she pursues. She will no longer be obliged to deprive herself of them, or to obtain them on ruinous conditions. Our manufactures are about to flourish again ; our maritime towns are resuming their activity. Every thing promises that a long calm without, and durable felicity within, will be the happy effects of peace.

"One sad recollection, however, will always diminish my joy. I was born, and hoped to have remained all my life, the most faithful subject of the best of kings ; but to-day I occupy his place. Still he is not entirely dead ; for he lives in the testament* by which he meant to have instructed his august and unfortunate son, whose successor I became. With my eyes fixed on this immortal work, penetrated by the sentiments which it contains, and guided by the experienced counsel of several members of your body, I have framed the constitutional charter which will now be read to you, and which fixes the prosperity of the state upon a solid basis."

* See vol. i. book i. p. 73.

† ROYAL CONSTITUTIONAL CHARTER.

LOUIS, by the grace of God, King of France and Navarre.—To all those to whom these presents shall come, health.

Divine Providence, in recalling us to our states, after a long absence, has imposed great duties upon us. Peace being the first want of our subjects, we occupied ourselves incessantly about it : and that peace, so necessary for France, as well as for the rest of Europe, is signed. A constitutional charter was required by the present state of the kingdom. We promised it, and we now publish it.

We have considered that although in France the authority rests altogether in the person of the king, our predecessors have not hesitated to modify the exercise of it according to the circumstances of the times ; that thus the commons owed their enfranchisement to Louis the Fat ; the confirmation and extension of their rights to Saint Louis and Philip the Handsome ; that the judicial order was established and developed by the laws of Louis XI., Henry II., and Charles IX., and finally, that Louis XIV. regulated all parts of the public administration by different ordinances, the wisdom of which nothing since has surpassed : we have held it our duty, according to the example of the kings our ancestors, to appreciate the progress of lights always increasing, and the new relations which this progress has introduced into society ; the direction which the minds of men have taken for half a century, and the important alterations which have resulted. We have ascertained that the desire of our subjects for a constitutional charter, was the expression of a real want ; but in yielding to this wish, we have taken all precautions to insure that this charter shall be worthy of us, and of the people which we are proud to command. Men of wisdom, selected from the chief bodies of the state, have been associated with commissioners from our council, in framing this important work. At the same time that we felt the necessity for a free monarchical constitution, to fulfil the expectation of enlightened Europe, we have also held ourselves bound to recollect, that our first duty towards our people was, to preserve for their own interests the rights and prerogatives of the crown. We trust that, instructed by experience, they are convinced that the supreme au-

"My chancellor will make my parental intentions known to you more in detail."

The peers and deputies then took the prescribed oaths ; and the royal charter

thority alone can give to the institutions which it establishes, the force, the permanency, and the majesty with which it is itself clothed ; that thus, when the wisdom of kings accords with the wishes of the people, a constitutional charter may be of long duration ; but when violence wrests concessions from the weakness of the government, public liberty is not less endangered than the throne itself. We have finally searched for the principles of a constitutional charter in the French character, and in the venerable monuments of past ages. Thus we have seen in the re-establishment of the peerage, an institution truly national, which ought to bind every recollection to every hope, by reuniting the ancient with the modern times. We have replaced by the chamber of deputies, those ancient assemblies of the fields of March and May, and the chambers of the third estate, which have so often given at once proofs of their zeal for the interests of the people, and of fidelity and respect for the authority of the kings. In studying thus to join anew the chain of the times, which lamentable breaches had interrupted, we have effaced from our recollection, as we wish it was possible to efface from history, all the evils which have afflicted the country during our absence.—Happy to find ourselves once more in the bosom of the great family, we know not how to reply to the love of which we received so many testimonies, except by pronouncing words of peace and consolation. The wish most dear to our heart is, that all Frenchmen should live as brothers, and that no bitter recollection may ever disturb the security to be expected from the solemn deed which we execute in their favour this day. Sure of our intentions, strong in our conscience, we pledge ourselves, before the assembly that hears us, to be faithful to this constitutional charter, reserving to ourselves to swear to maintain it, with a new solemnity, before the altars of Him, who weighs in the same balance kings and nations.—For these reasons, we have voluntarily, and by the free exercise of our royal authority, granted, and do grant, transfer, and make over to our subjects, for ourselves, and for our successors, and for ever, the constitutional charter, which follows :—

Public Rights of the French.

1. The French are equal in the eye of the law whatever may be their titles or ranks.
2. They contribute without distinction to the charges of the state, in proportion to their fortunes.
3. They are all equally admissible to all employments, civil and military.
4. Their personal liberty is equally protected. No one can be prosecuted, nor arrested, except in the cases provided for by the law, and in the forms which the law prescribes.
5. Every one professes his religion with equal freedom, and obtains the same protection for his worship.
6. The Catholic-apostolic and Roman religion, is, however, the religion of the state.
7. The ministers of the Catholic-apostolic and Roman religion, and those of the other Christian worship, alone receive allowances from the royal treasury.
8. The French have the right to publish and print their opinions, conforming themselves to the laws repressing the abuse of this liberty.
9. All property is inviolable, without any exemption touching what are called national properties—the law making no difference on that head.
10. The state can require the sacrifice of a property

was presented to both houses by the Chancellor d'Ambray, in the presence of the king. The constitutional charter, as decreed by the senate, was not materially

for the public interest, cause being first legally shown, and an indemnification assigned. 11. All inquiries into votes or opinions pronounced prior to the restoration are prohibited. The same obligation is enjoined to the tribunals and citizens. 12. The conscription is abolished. The mode of recruiting the land and sea forces is determined by the law.

Forms of the King's Government.

13. The person of the king is inviolable and sacred. His ministers are responsible. The executive power belongs exclusively to the king. 14. The king is the supreme chief of the state; commands the forces by land and by sea; declares war; makes treaties of peace, alliance, and commerce; appoints to all employments in the public administration; and makes the regulations and ordinances necessary for the execution of the laws and the safety of the state. 15. The legislative power is executed jointly by the king, the chamber of peers, and the chamber of deputies of the departments. 16. The king proposes the law. 17. The law proposed is offered, at the pleasure of the king, either to the chamber of the peers or that of the deputies; with the exception of laws of taxation, which shall be addressed first to the chamber of the deputies. 18. Every law is to be discussed and decided upon with perfect freedom by the majority of both chambers. 19. The chambers are allowed to petition the king to propose laws, and to suggest what they think the law required ought to contain. 20. This demand may be made by either of the two chambers: but the matter must have been previously discussed in a secret committee. The law suggested cannot be sent to the other chamber by that in which it is proposed, till after a lapse of ten days. 21. If the proposition be adopted by the second chamber, it is placed under the eye of the king; if it be rejected, it cannot be proposed again in the same session. 22. The king alone sanctions and promulgates the laws. 23. The civil list is fixed for the duration of every reign by the first legislative assembly after the king's accession.

Of the Chamber of Peers.

24. The chamber of peers is an essential portion of the legislative power. 25. It is convoked by the king at the same time with the chamber of the deputies of the departments. The session of each begins and ends at the same time with that of the other. 26. Every assembly of the chamber of peers, held at any other period than during the session of the chamber of deputies, or without the orders of the king, is illicit, and null and void in law. 27. The nomination of peers of France belongs to the king. Their number is unlimited. He can vary their dignities, and name them for life, or render them hereditary, according to his pleasure. 28. The peers cannot enter their chamber till the age of twenty-five years, nor have a deliberative voice till thirty. 29. The chancellor of France presides in the chamber of peers, and in his absence a peer named by the king. 30. The members of the royal family, and princes of the blood, are peers by right of birth. They take their seat next to the president, but they have not deliberative voices until they have attained the age of twenty-five years. 31. The princes cannot take their seats in the chamber without the ex-

at variance with the constitution thus granted to the people; but it did not comport with the views of sovereign rights and authority entertained by Louis XVIII. to en-

press orders of the king, specially issued for each session, by a message: under penalty of every thing done in their presence being null and void. 32. All the deliberations of the chambers of peers are secret. 33. The chamber of peers takes cognizance of crimes of high-treason, and of all attempts against the safety of the state defined by law. 34. No peer can be arrested except by the authority of the chamber, nor judged but by it in criminal matters.

Of the Chamber of the Deputies of the Departments.

35. The chamber of deputies shall be composed of persons elected by the electoral colleges, the organization of which shall be determined by the laws. 36. Each department shall have the same number of deputies as at present. 37. The deputies shall be elected for five years, and in such a manner that the chamber shall be renewed by one-fifth every year. 38. No deputy shall be admitted to the chamber who has not attained the age of forty years; nor unless he pays direct taxes to the amount of 1000 francs. 39. If, however, there be not found in the department fifty persons of the age required, and paying at least 1000 francs direct taxes, the number may be filled up by those paying the highest taxes under 1000 francs—and these again cannot be elected concurrently with the first. 40. The electors who take part in the nomination of the deputies cannot have the right of suffrage unless they pay 300 francs direct taxes, and have attained the age of thirty years. 41. The presidents of the electoral colleges shall be named by the king, and by eight members of the college. 42. Half the deputies, at least, shall be chosen from qualified persons, having their political residence in the department. 43. The president of the chamber of deputies is named by the king from a list of fifty deputies presented by the chamber. 44. The sittings of the chamber are public, but on requisition from five members it must be formed into a secret committee. 45. The chamber divides itself into select committees, to discuss the projects presented to it from the king. 46. No amendment can be made on a law, unless it be proposed in general committee by the king, and referred to, and discussed by, the select committee. 47. The chamber of deputies receives all proposals for taxes; and these proposals cannot be referred to the peers, till after they have been admitted by the commons. 48. No tax can be established or levied, if it has not been previously agreed to by the two chambers, and sanctioned by the king. 49. The land tax is granted only for one year. The indirect impositions may be granted for several years. 50. The king convokes the two chambers annually: he prorogues them, and may dissolve that of the deputies of the departments; but, in this case, he must convoke a new session within three months. 51. No personal restraint can be exercised against a member of the chamber during the session, nor during the six weeks prior or subsequent to it. 52. No member of the chamber can, pending the session, be prosecuted or arrested in a criminal process, except in the case of flagrant crimes, after the chamber has permitted his prosecution. 53. Every petition to either of the chambers must be tendered and presented in writing. The law prohibits its being presented by the petitioner in person at the bar.

ter into a compact emanating from his subjects. He insisted upon receiving the crown as an inheritance, not as a gift from the nation; and choosing to consider the throne as never out of the possession of his family, he dated his charter in the 19th year of his reign. In the same spirit he assumed the title of King of France, not King of the French; and resumed the ancient formula, "By the grace of God." His language in effect was:—"I reign because my ancestors have reigned. I reign by the rights of my birth. It is for me to make a convention with my people respecting the form of the institutions which shall regulate my authority,* and to make a voluntary limitation of a power in itself unlimited.†"

The refusal of the king to ratify the constitution adopted by the unanimous consent of the conservative senate, and meant to form the French bill of rights, excited considerable alarm, and was very freely deprecated by the friends of popular privileges; but the advocates of undefined prerogative strenuously maintained, that as the government of France was neither a republic nor an elective monarchy, it did

not become the king either to recognise the sovereignty of the people, or to confirm the elective franchise of the senate. In this way, the question whether the rights of sovereigns are *jure divino* or *jure humano* was again raised, and discussed by the politicians of France with as much warmth as the same inquiry had called forth in England a century before. The decision in the present instance was in favour of divine right, but it was an award that shook the foundation of the throne, and endangered its future stability.

One of the most early and important subjects which engaged the attention of the chambers of legislation during their first session, respected the liberty of the press, which had been stipulated for in the 23d article of the constitutional charter, and guaranteed, though in language somewhat equivocal, by the 8th article of the royal charter. Several of the speakers in the chamber of deputies had already submitted resolutions to that assembly on this subject, but it was not till the 6th of July, that the king's ministers produced a plan explanatory of their intentions. On that day, the Abbe de Montesquieu and the

Of the Ministers.

54. The ministers may be members of the chamber of peers, or of the chamber of the deputies; they have, moreover, access to either chamber, and ought to be heard when they require it. 55. The chamber of the deputies has the right of impeaching the ministers, and of bringing them before the chamber of peers, which alone possesses the right of judging them. 56. They can be accused only on a charge of treason or embezzlement; particular laws will specify this class of crimes, and point out the procedure.

The Judicial Order.

57. All justice emanates from the king: it is administered in his name by judges of his nomination and appointment. 58. The judges appointed by the king are irremovable. 59. The courts and ordinary tribunals, now existing, are maintained: no change shall take place, except by virtue of a law. 60. The present institution of the judges of commerce is preserved. 61. The magistracy of the peace is also preserved; and the justices, though named by the king, are not irremovable. 62. No man can be separated from his constitutional judges. 63. In consequence, no extraordinary commissions and tribunals can be created; the jurisdiction of provost-marshal is not comprehended in this denomination, if the re-establishment of them is deemed necessary. 64. The proceedings shall be open in criminal matters, unless that publicity be prejudicial to order and morals; and in this case, the tribunal declares it to be so by a decision. 65. The institution of juries is preserved; the changes which longer experience may render it expedient to make, cannot be done but by a law. 66. The penalty of the confiscation of property is abolished, and cannot be re-established. 67. The king has the right of granting pardon, and that of commuting

punishment. 68. The civil code, and the laws now existing which are not repugnant to the present charter, remain in full force until they are legally abrogated.

Particular Rights guaranteed by the State.

69. The military on active service, the retired officers and soldiers, the pensioned widows, the officers and soldiers, shall preserve their rank, honour, and pensions. 70. The public debt is guaranteed; every sort of engagement entered into by the state with its creditors is inviolable. 71. The ancient nobility resume their titles; the new preserve theirs. The king creates nobles at pleasure; but he grants to them only titles and honour, without any exemption from the charges and duties of the community. 72. The legion of honour is continued; the king will determine the domestic regulations and the decorations. 73. The colonies shall be governed by special laws and regulations. 74. The king and his successors shall swear, at the solemnity of their coronation, faithfully to observe the constitutional charter.

Transitory Articles.

75. The deputies of the departments of France who sat in the legislative body from the late adjournment, shall continue to sit in the chamber of the deputies until they are replaced. 76. The first renewal of a fifth of the chamber of deputies shall take place, at the latest, in the year 1816, according to the order laid down in the series.

We command that the present constitutional charter, placed before the eyes of the senate and of the legislative body, conformably to our proclamation of the 2d of May, shall be sent forthwith to the chamber of peers and that of the deputies.

Given at Paris, in the year of grace 1814, and the nineteenth of our reign,

(Signed)

LOUIS.

L'ABBE DE MONTESQUIEU.

* Chateaubriand's Political Reflections.

† Speech of the Chancellor.

Count de Blacas, were introduced into the chamber, to present, by the king's order, a law for the regulation of the press. After some of the usual observations on the advantages on the one hand resulting from a free communication of opinions, and the dangers on the other attending the abuse of such a liberty, the Abbe touched upon the principal provisions of the proposed law, and said: "It has long been perceived and acknowledged, that writings of small bulk, which it is easy to circulate with profusion, and which are read with avidity, may immediately disturb the public tranquillity; repressive laws are insufficient against the effects for which the author, perhaps, can be punished only, when the mischief has already become too great, not merely to be repaired, but even to be arrested in its progress. Writings of this nature, are, therefore, the only publications against which the law takes precautions beforehand. Every work of ordinary size may be published freely; the king and the nation will have nothing to fear from them; and if the author commits any offence, the tribunals will be in readiness to punish him."—"If," continued the minister, "we lived at a period, when reason, long trained and tried, had a stronger sway than the passions; when national interests, clearly understood and strongly felt, had attached to its cause the majority of private interest; when public order, strongly consolidated, no longer feared the attacks of imprudence or folly; then the unlimited liberty of the press would be unattended with danger, and would even present advantages; but our situation is not so happy; our character even, as well as our situation, forbids the establishment of an indefinite liberty. Nature has distributed her gifts among nations as among individuals; the diversity of institutions has fortified these primitive differences; we have received for our share a vivacity, a mobility of imagination, which require restraint; let us not complain of this; let us not envy a neighbouring nation the enjoyment of advantages of another kind. Ours have procured us enough of happiness and glory where-withal to be content; to them, we owe that elegance of taste, that delicacy of manners, which is shocked by the least neglect of decorum, and which does not permit us to violate it, without falling at once into the most unbridled licentiousness. The king proposes to you nothing that does not appear to him absolutely necessary to the safety of the national institutions, and to the march of government: assist him with your information and your influence; unite with him for the interests of liberty as for those of peace; and you

will soon see that liberty unfold itself without storms, amidst the order which you shall have concurred in maintaining."

The projet of the law proposed by the king was divided into two parts: the first regarding the publication of works; and the second, the superintendence of the press; according to the first, every work of above thirty sheets might be published freely, without previous examination or revision. The same liberty was extended to all writings in the dead languages, as well as to books of devotion, and law reports, if sanctioned by the names of professional persons, and works of literary and scientific societies established by the king, without regard to the number of sheets they contained. The liberty which was apparently given in this part of the projet, was, however, in a great measure withdrawn, by the proposal that the director-general of the press might ordain, according to circumstances, that all writings of thirty sheets should be communicated to him before they were committed to the press. The appointment of censors was to be vested in the king; and the director-general was to cause every work of the prescribed size to undergo their inspection; and if two, at least, of these censors conceived the writing to be defamatory, dangerous to the public peace, or immoral in their tendency, the director-general was vested with the power to interdict the publication, subject to an appeal to a committee of revision, appointed by the king, consisting of three members of the house of peers, and three of the national deputies.

If this part of the projet appeared inimical to the liberty of the press, the second part, which regarded its superintendence, was still more decidedly hostile to freedom of publication. According to the proposed regulations, no person was allowed to exercise the business of a printer, or bookseller, without the king's license previously obtained; nor without taking an oath that he would conform to the regulations prescribed by the state for the government of his trade; which licenses might be withdrawn on violation of the laws or regulations. All printing establishments not properly notified and permitted by the director-general of the press, were to be deemed clandestine, and as such were to be destroyed, and the proprietors subjected to a fine of ten thousand francs and six months' imprisonment. If notice were not given, and a deposit made, of a copy of any work, the impression was liable to seizure; and in such case, a fine of a thousand francs for the first offence, and two thousand for the second, was to be levied; if the printer,

from design or inattention, omitted to fix his name and residence to the title-page of any copy of a work, he became liable to a penalty of three thousand francs; and in case of the substitution of a false name or address, a fine of double that sum awaited him, besides imprisonment. Every bookseller exposing to sale a work without a printer's name, incurred a penalty of two thousand francs, which was to be reduced to one thousand, on disclosing the name of the offending printer. This projet, which could be justified on no ground but as a temporary measure arising out of the unsettled state of the government, concluded with the proposal that the law should be revised in three years, for the purpose of making in it such improvements as experience might show to be necessary.

It was not to be expected, that a plan so hostile to the effectual liberty of the press, and so closely assimilated in its leading features to the restrictive system imposed on that engine of knowledge, in the year 1810, by the Emperor Napoleon,* would be revived with general concurrence; accordingly we find, that on the first of August a report was made to the chamber of deputies by a committee of their own body, in which the proposed law, in its original form, was strongly deprecated, and it was decided by a majority of the committee that previous censorship ought not to serve as the basis of any legislative enactment upon this subject. The speech of the chairman of the committee, M. Raynouard, contained a forcible appeal to the assembly against the proposed law, which was considered incompatible with the freedom of the press, and as a direct violation of the 8th article of the constitution. The details on this topic, so interesting to public liberty, were highly animated, and continued through four successive days; but the court party prevailed; and a majority of one hundred and thirty-seven against eighty voices proved, that even the representatives of the people had not sufficient confidence in the loyalty of their constituents, to suffer the throne of their sovereign to rest upon the foundation of free discussion and popular favour.

Before the votes were taken, M. Montesquieu had conceded, on the part of the king, that the censorship should not apply to any work exceeding twenty sheets, and that the operation of the act should be limited to the end of the session of 1816. In the chamber of peers, the opposition was less strenuous, but several delays took place; and it was not till the 21st of October that

the shackles upon the press were riveted, under the sanction of a law, though a royal ordonnance for the re-establishment of the censorship had existed ever since the 10th of June.

One of the first duties of the ministers of Louis XVIII. was to present to the nation an exposition of the state in which his majesty had found the kingdom; and on the 12th of July, the Abbe de Montesquieu, minister of the interior, having been introduced to the chamber of deputies, submitted to that assembly an *exposé*, to show how much the nation had suffered from the ambitious projects of its late ruler; to lay open the deceptions which had been practised to conceal the real state of the public affairs; and to give an adequate impression of the magnitude of those difficulties which the new administration had to encounter. But it was not sufficient to point out the existing evils; it was necessary at the same time to propose a remedy, and it was one of the objects of the minister to explain the manner in which this happy consummation was to be effected.

The *exposé* was introduced by some observations on the prodigious loss of men occasioned by the hostile enterprises of the late government, and the minister of the interior stated the amount of the calls made since the end of the Russian campaign at thirteen hundred thousand!* of which number, however, it fortunately happened, that the last levies had not been fully executed. The war had not time to cut off all those who had joined the standards; but this simple statement of the requisitions, enforced on the population during a period of from fourteen to fifteen months, served to convey some idea of what the losses of the nation must have been during the past two-and-twenty years. Many causes, however, contributed to repair these losses; the improvement of the condition of the inhabitants of the country, by the division of the great landed properties, the equal distribution of inheritances, and the progress of vaccination, were amongst the most powerful. Even the conscription itself became a source of increased population—an impure source, which introduced disorder and immorality into marriages concluded with precipita-

* On the 11th of January, 1813 . . .	350,000
3d of April . . .	130,000
24th of August, for the army in Spain . . .	30,000
9th of October, conscription of 1814, &c.	120,000
Conscription of 1815	160,000
On the 15th of November, 1813, recalls of year 1811 to 1814	350,000
Jan., 1814, officers and cavalry equipped . . .	17,000
Levies en masse organized in 1814 . . .	143,000

* See vol. ii. book iv. p. 152.

tion and imprudence. Hence, a multitude of unfortunate marriages, of ridiculous or indecent connexions, so that many men, even of the lower orders, soon became weary of what they had embraced only to shelter themselves from the conscription, and in order to dissolve these ill-assorted ties, threw themselves once more into the way of the dangers they had sought to avoid.

Agriculture, it was acknowledged, had made real progress in France; this progress had commenced long before the revolution, but since that epoch, new causes had accelerated its march. The propagation of improved modes of agriculture, by learned societies; the residence of a number of rich proprietors in the country, combined with their experiments, their instruction, and their example; the erection of veterinary schools; produced the most happy effects on many branches of rural economy; but the errors and faults of the government opposed continual obstacles to their development. The continental system caused enormous losses to the proprietors of vineyards: in the south, many of the vineyards had been rooted up; and the inadequate price of wines and brandies discouraged this branch of culture generally. The forced attempts to introduce the Merino breed of sheep, had cost the government twenty millions of francs, and the consequence had been rather to deteriorate than to improve the breed. The establishment of studs had been more successful, and the breed of horses, until the fatal years 1812 and 1813, was excellent, and afforded numerous cavalry. The loss of a few months in these years amounted to two hundred and thirty thousand horses, which could not be replaced at an expense of less than 105,200,000 francs. The stock was in fact exhausted; and every horse cost the government from 400 to 460 francs. The mines in France had very sensibly increased; the French territory now presented four hundred and seventy-eight working mines, which employed seventeen thousand workmen, and yielded to the country a raw material of the value of 26,800,000, and to the state a revenue of 251,000 francs. The continental system, by compelling manufacturers to search, in the territory of France itself, for resources before unknown, had in this respect benefited the national manufacturers; but the obstacles which it presented to the introduction of a great number of raw materials, were injurious in a more considerable degree. Some of those obstacles had already been removed, and the cotton manufactures were stated to employ four hundred thousand persons, and a capital of one hundred millions. Those of Rouen had already considerably revived. The linen

manufactures of Laval and Bretagne suffered much by the war with Spain, where they had formerly found their principal market. Those of silks had experienced the same fate. The internal consumption of silks had indeed increased, but what might not France hope to gain by the renewal of her commerce with Europe? In 1787, the manufacturers at Lyons kept at work fifteen thousand looms; during the late war, that number was reduced to eight thousand; but Lyons had already received considerable orders, and promised to regain its former prosperity. The manufacture of woollens, leather, &c. had suffered in an equal degree from the continental system. These prohibitive laws did still more mischief to commerce than to manufacturing industry; and the system of licenses ruined and discouraged a great number of merchants, by raising hopes that were destroyed in a moment by the will which had fostered them.

Passing from these subjects to the budget of the minister of the interior, the exposé stated, that the mass of the funds appropriated to the services of that department, for the three last years, amounted to an average of one hundred and forty-four millions, and that the public treasury never contributed to these funds more than sixty millions annually, leaving the residue to be supplied by special duties and imposts. The deplorable embarrassments of the hospitals were particularly noticed, and it was stated, that the war department was indebted to those institutions, in Paris alone, for sick and wounded soldiers, 1,393,365 francs.

With respect to public works, great enterprises had been undertaken, some from motives of utility, and many others from ostentation, or from views in which the happiness of France had no share. Thus, while magnificent roads were opened on the frontiers, those of the interior were neglected. In the department of bridges and causeways, there was an arrear of twenty-eight millions, and to aggravate the evil, this department would be charged with the extraordinary expense occasioned by replacing thirty principal bridges, which had been blown up or burned during the last campaign. The canals were in a better state, but their works were far from being completed, and would require much additional expense. The works at Paris had been a particular object of the cares of the late government, because in them it found the means of ostentation, magnificence, and popular favour. Some of them, particularly those of the public markets, would be really useful; and the works of embellishment, though of a less beneficial description, should not

be abandoned. Their total expense was estimated at fifty-three millions five hundred thousand francs, and more than twenty-four millions had already been expended upon them.

Under the head of war ministry, the statements demand particular notice, and may serve to impress upon nations the salutary conviction, that among all the financial evils pressing upon governments, those arising from war are beyond all comparison the heaviest. Here was the root of the evil; hence originated the disorders which extended to all the other branches; and the disasters of the three last campaigns had plunged this department, already so complicated, into a complete chaos. The public expenditure was still extremely heavy: on the 1st of May, 1814, the land forces of France amounted to more than five hundred and twenty thousand, including gens-d'armes, veterans, invalids, and cannoniers, guarding the coast. Besides this force, there were 122,597 military of all ranks, enjoying half-pay; and one hundred and sixty thousand prisoners were returning from Prussia, Austria, England, and Russia. The whole of the war expenses for 1814, in their different branches, were estimated at seven hundred and forty millions of francs, and the arrears due at two hundred and sixty-one millions, exclusive of a sum of one hundred millions *ordonnanced* by the ministers, but which the treasury had not been able to pay.

For four-and-twenty years, the navy had been weakened by the very means which had been taken to give it the appearance of strength. Thus, in 1804, the projected invasion of England was pompously announced: ports, which had never yet been entered, except by fishing boats and packets, were immediately converted into vast maritime arsenals; and Paris itself saw a dock-yard formed within its walls, and the most valuable materials employed in the construction of vessels, which were notwithstanding unfit for their destination. And what now remained of these armaments? The wreck of some of the vessels, and accounts, which proved, that for the successive creation and destruction of this monstrous and useless flotilla, more than one hundred and fifty millions had been sacrificed. In the Scheldt, the treasure of France was lavished on an object which it was impossible to accomplish. The grand works executed at Cherbourg, and the fine squadron at Toulon, were the only good results from a system in which besides there was nothing but weakness and impotence. All the arsenals were completely dilapidated: the immense naval

stores collected by Louis XVI. were squandered; and during the last fifteen years, France had lost in ill-judged expeditions forty-three ships of the line, eighty-two frigates, seventy-six corvettes, and sixty-two transports and packets, which could not be replaced at an expense of two hundred millions. The port of Brest, the finest and best in Europe, had been entirely neglected. Though a debt had been accumulated in this department, to the amount of more than sixty-one millions, the arsenals were exhausted, and unprovided with stores, and the ships were still more unprovided with good sailors. The loss of the French colonies, the measures which oppressed commerce, and the reverses experienced by the fleets, would of themselves have sufficed to extinguish the maritime population; but the measures by which the last government gave to the crews of ships the organization of regiments, pronounced the sentence of its absolute destruction, and sailors of France lost on the plains of Germany the habits of the ocean.

One of the most singular features of this *exposé* related to the situation of the public finances. In this department, the distortions and exaggerations had been extreme, and it was not till Louis XVIII. ascended the throne, that it was known that the budgets of 1812 and 1813, which had been made to exhibit a fictitious equilibrium, presented an actual deficit of 312,032,000 francs. Napoleon was not ignorant of this vast accumulation of debt, but he always cherished the hope of covering it, either by foreign tributes, which were the fruits of his first campaigns, or by deriving resources from special funds. By these accumulations, the total of the increase of the debts of the state, in the course of thirteen years, amounted to the sum of 1,645,469,000 francs, about 68,560,000*l.* sterling.

This exposition, though an *ex-parte* statement, and as such open to suspicion, may be considered as a summary of the evils of Napoleon's government; and the impression made by the details was powerfully felt in every country in Europe. The duty of pointing out the remedy for the evils that had been thus exhibited, devolved on the minister of finance, and the Abbe de Montesquiou, in conclusion, assured the assembly, that the cares of the government should not be confined to the re-establishment of a prosperity purely material. "Other sources of happiness and glory," said the orator, "have been cruelly attacked. Morality has not escaped any more than public wealth, from the fatal influence of a bad government. That

which has just been terminated, completed the evils which the revolution had caused; it re-established religion merely to make it an instrument for its purposes. Public instruction submitted to the same dependence; and the efforts of the respectable body who conducted it, were opposed by a despotism which wished to rule the minds of all, in order to enslave the bodies without resistance. The national education must take a more liberal course to maintain itself on a level with the information common to Europe, by returning to principles now long forgotten among us. Unhappily, we cannot also restore at once to France, those moral habits, and that public spirit, which cruel misfortunes and long oppression have almost annihilated. Noble sentiments were opposed, generous ideas were stifled; the government, not content with condemning to inaction the virtues which it dreaded, excited and fomented the passions which could advance its views; to suppress public spirit, it called personal interest to its aid; it offered its favours to ambition, in order to silence conscience; no other alternative was left than that of serving the state, no other hope than that which it could alone fulfil. Such were the melancholy effects of that corruptive system which we have now to combat. The difficulties of the moment are great, but much may be expected from time; the nation will feel that its zealous concurrence is necessary to hasten the return of its own happiness; its confidence in the intentions of its king, the lights and wisdom of the two chambers, will render the task of government more easy; and if any thing can prevent the speedy realization of those hopes, it will be that restless turbulence which wishes to enjoy without delay the blessings of which it has the prospect."—"While regretting the benefits which must still be waited for," continued the minister of the interior, in conclusion, "let us enjoy those which are offered to our acceptance; already, peace reopens our ports; liberty restores to the merchant his speculations, and to the mechanic his labours; every one sees the end of his calamities. The king confides equally on his people and their deputies, and France expects every thing from their generous agreement. What more fortunate circumstance, than that of an assembly, which has deserved so well of its country, and a king who is desirous of being its father! Enjoy, gentlemen, this fortunate reunion; see what France expects from it; let these happy commencements encourage you in your career, and may the gratitude of your latest descendants be at once your emulation, your glory, and your recompense."

The financial details promised by the minister of the interior, were on the 23d of July laid before the chamber of deputies by Baron Louis, the minister of finance, whose plan comprehended a proposal to regulate and fix by law the amount of receipts, and the expenditure for the year 1814; to provide for the service of 1815; and to assign means and periods for the payment of the debts contracted anterior to the 1st of April, 1814.

One of the first points to which the attention of the assembly was directed, was the expenditure of the year 1814. The rate of ordinary and extraordinary expenses as established at the beginning of the year, under the boundless system of extravagance which existed at that period, would have amounted in the course of the year to the sum of 1,245,800,000 francs; whereas, the return of peace, the evacuation of territory, and a strict regard to economical reform, had diminished the estimate of necessary expenses to 827,415,000 francs. The amount of the ways and means for defraying these expenses, was estimated at five hundred and twenty millions, so that a deficit would be found of about three hundred and seven millions. The expenditure of 1815, it was hoped, would display the influence of peace, and might be calculated at six hundred and eighteen millions, for which it was proposed to provide by direct and indirect contributions, with the exception of ten or twelve millions, the sum at which the product of domainal forests was estimated. Customs, the minister considered less a final resource than a means of favouring domestic industry; and in apologizing for the continuance of the consolidated duties, he observed, "The king, in his retirement, long lamented the vexations to which the people were subject, by the collections of the *droits réunis*; and his first care was to announce their abolition, by the mouth of the prince of his family who preceded him. But the state in which his majesty found the treasury; the immense existing arrears; and the number of the brave men to be paid; render it an imperative duty with him, to preserve, for the state, resources proportioned to its wants. Salutary reforms will, however, be introduced, calculated to relieve the weight of a burden which has excited so many exclamations."

The next branch of this financial exposition related to the public debt, the accumulation of which now amounted to thirteen hundred and sixty-eight millions of francs, exclusive of about seventeen millions of perpetual rents, representing a capital of upwards of three hundred millions. On these sums, the arrears actually demand-

able, and for the payment of which it was absolutely necessary to provide, amounted only to seven hundred and fifty-nine millions. For the liquidation of this sum, it was proposed that bonds of the royal treasury should be issued, payable at the end of three years, and bearing a yearly interest of eight per centum, the holders of which should have the power of converting them into inscriptions in the great book of France. In order to give these securities full and adequate credit, three resources were proposed: first, the savings upon the budget of 1815; second, the alienation of three hundred thousand hectares of the forests of the state, and of the property of the communes that remained to be sold; and third, stock in the five per cent. consols, for the creditors who might prefer that kind of property. The minister concluded with expatiating on the immense advantages which England had derived from a sinking fund; and regretting that he was not yet able to introduce into the administration of the finances of France a similar germ of prosperity.

At the close of Baron Louis's speech, a member of the chamber of deputies, unconnected with the administration, moved that the king might be humbly requested to communicate to that assembly a statement of the debts which he had contracted during his residence in foreign countries, and to propose a plan for the payment of those debts as the debts of the state: this suggestion was afterwards carried into effect, and the payment of the king's debts, with those of his family, amounting to thirty millions of francs, was decreed by a unanimous vote of both chambers. A measure closely connected with this subject, was submitted to the chamber of deputies on the 26th of October. On that day, Count Blacas, minister of the royal household, presented the plan of a law relative to the civil list, and the endowment of the crown, for which the two chambers had addressed the king. By this law, which passed the assembly by a vast majority, the sum of twenty-five millions of francs was appropriated to the civil list, to be paid in twelve equal monthly payments; and the further sum of eight millions of francs was assigned to the princes and princesses of the royal family, to serve instead of appanage.

Whatever had been the prodigality of the late government of France, the national debt of that country sunk into insignificance, when placed beside the national debt of England. Peace and economy were alone necessary to extinguish the claims of the public creditor in the former country in a few years; but in the latter,

no British subject at present in existence could calculate upon seeing his country relieved from the burthens which the public debt has fixed upon the present generation, and entailed upon posterity. This contrast became a subject of exultation in the French senate; and when, on the 8th of September, Prince Talleyrand came to submit the budget to that assembly, the most striking feature in his speech was exhibited in the picture he drew of the comparative lightness of the burdens of the French people. "France, at peace with the whole universe," said the minister, "ought to aspire to new celebrity. She ought to endeavour to establish in every department of the administration candour and justice in the exercise of her powers. To obtain this great result, it is necessary to find the means for paying all demands on the state, and to prove that with the ability she possesses the will. France has now the means of paying all her expenses, all her debts, as will be seen by comparing that which she has, with that which she owes. The total amount of the debt now demandable, is seven hundred and fifty-nine millions of francs. The revenue of the year 1814 is estimated at five hundred and forty millions; and that of 1815 at six hundred and eighteen millions. This revenue is entirely furnished by taxes direct or indirect, with the exception of ten or twelve millions, the estimated produce of the forest domains. For the year 1814, there will be a deficit of 307,400,000 francs. This is occasioned by the events which preceded the first of April, and consequently is made part of the debt of 759,000,000, now demandable. The expenses of the year 1815, fixed at 547,700,000, leave an excess in the revenue for that year of 70,300,000 francs. The calculations have seemed to some persons not to be sufficiently exact. This desire of accuracy cannot be satisfied. We must, for the present, content ourselves with approximations: but the house may be satisfied that it has before it the maximum of debt, and the minimum of the receipts, so that if there be errors they will be innoxious. Amidst all the calculations into which the present discussion leads us, it will be pleasing, and perhaps instructive, to remark, on the relative state of our burdens with those nations whose prosperity is the most striking, that the situation of France, after so many storms, is still promising. According to the last census, the population of France was twenty-eight millions. Dividing equally among all the annual amount of the taxes, which we take at six hundred millions, the quota paid by each is little under twenty-

francs. In England, the produce of the taxes, not including those of Ireland, has arisen, of late years, to at least sixty millions sterling, which, divided among twelve millions of inhabitants, give five pounds sterling, or one hundred and twenty francs, as the contribution of each individual: that is to say, more than five times as much as the amount for each individual in France. In the United States of America, the receipts of the customs, which previous to the two last years of war, formed almost the only revenue, produced annually sixteen millions of dollars. This sum, divided among seven millions of inhabitants, gives about twelve francs for each individual; to which, must be added the local taxes peculiar to each state, amounting to about eleven francs more, and making twenty-three francs for each individual. Whence it follows, in all respects, whether in population, extent of territory, or taxable property, the advantages of France are above those of both these nations." "It must be acknowledged," continued Talleyrand, "that our financial system still wants, for its completion, the establishment of a sinking fund: the economy introduced into all parts of the budget has hitherto opposed a temporary obstacle to the establishment of such a fund; the king's ministers wished that its final success should not be compromised by too much haste in its production, for a sinking fund derives its utility and effects from its permanence and immutability; a single change in its appropriation may cause the loss of all its fruits; for by the laws of accumulation, it is time, continuity, and perseverance, which produce the prodigious results that seem explicable only by the science of numbers. I regret that circumstances have not permitted a measure of administration of such importance to be comprised in the new plan of the system of the finances from its commencement; but I have the pleasure to express my confidence, that it will form an essential and fundamental part of the plans of the next year's budget. This is a new era, in which the justice and moderation of the prince, whose presence among us has restored peace to the world, will make us daily more sensible of the reciprocal advantages of virtues which may be so easily established in France, under the powerful sanction of honour; and may we hope, that the influence which the manners of our nation have so long exercised over others, will render general throughout Europe, this moderation, which has become more necessary than ever to the happiness of subjects, and the glory of sovereigns."

While efforts were thus making to impart confidence to the public mind, by cre-

ating a solid system of finance, the expediency of preserving some of the popular institutions of the late government was manifested in a royal ordinance, confirming the establishment of the legion of honour—an institution calculated to reward, in a way analogous to the manners of France, every kind of service rendered to the country, and furnishing the sovereign authority with the power of exerting the noblest influence on the national character.* By this ordinance, the reigning sovereign is declared chief and grand master of the order, and the privileges of its members are preserved, except the right of constituting a part of the electoral colleges. The pensions assigned to each rank in the legion, are faithfully maintained; and the decorations of the order are to bear the head of Henry IV., with the motto—"Honour and our country."

But the greatest safeguards to the throne of Louis XVIII. arose, not from the honourable distinctions which he chose to confirm, but from his positive declaration, "that all property should be irrevocable, without any exception of that which is called national." On this subject, there was an acute sensibility in every part of France; and the freedom with which several public writers insisted upon the restitution of the property of the emigrants, served to heighten that alarm, which the unguarded language of some of the public functionaries was too well calculated to call forth.† In order to soothe these apprehensions, a resolution was passed unanimously in the chamber of deputies, to the effect that all such alarms were unfounded; and the report on that decision was ordered to be printed and promulgated.

At the same time, a law for restoring the unsold estates of the emigrants, was introduced into the French chambers of legislation, and passed in both these assemblies by large majorities. In the peers, the Duke of Tarentum, Marshal Macdonald, announced his intention, on this occasion, to propose at an early day the project of a law to be submitted to the king, the object of which would be to grant life annuities to those of the emigrants, the sale of whose estates had left them unprovided for. The arrangement of a plan of so much difficulty, required more time than was at first antici-

* Preamble to the royal ordinance.

† M. Laisné, the president of the chamber of deputies, was "adverse to extinguishing the hopes of the emigrants, by shutting the door against hope;" and Monsieur, the king's brother, in a public address to the emigrants of the south, went so far as to say, "that though little had been yet done for them, hopes were entertained, that in time, more complete justice would be rendered of them."

pated; and it was not till the tenth of December that the marshal was prepared to submit the result of his reflections and information to the peers. His calculations were divided into two classes—those which concerned the endowments for the military, deprived of them by the last events of the war; and those which related to property sold in consequence of confiscation. On the latter of these divisions, he observed, that there had been concluded directly with government 1,055,889 sales of national domains, since the breaking out of the revolution. In giving to each original purchaser a family of three persons, an estimate much below the truth, a result was obtained of 3,167,667 individuals interested in the first sales of national domains; and, if the common proportion of changes and partitions, for twenty-five years, were taken at three, an aggregate of 9,503,001 persons interested in the stability of these sales of national domains would be found, without mentioning the persons indirectly interested by the effect of credits and inscriptions. It was against this Colossus, whose height the eye could not measure, that some impotent efforts were directed. To unsettle the possession of a property so disposed, would be an act of desperation; but sound policy required that the country should place itself, by an indemnity, between the ancient proprietors and the acquirers, and that, by its liberality towards the one, it should secure the possessions of the other. An opinion, so general as to approach almost to demonstration, rated at four milliards the value of the national property of every class; the mass of property confiscated or sold, might amount to nine hundred millions of francs. From this sum, evidently exaggerated, was to be deducted six hundred millions, for the numerous liquidations which had been made to the creditors of that property; and for the removal of the sequestrations which had been pronounced for twenty-three years. Three hundred millions only remained to be provided for by indemnities. This value would be almost unperceived in the calculations of a great nation, if its first want, in returning to order, were not the sentiment of justice and generosity. In the plan of indemnity, the duke proposed to replace the value of the sales of confiscated property, by an annuity of two and a half per cent. payable out of such resources as the statesmen who heard him might think proper to suggest.

This arrangement would not of itself consummate the public happiness. There were still other claimants upon the national liberty—they were the brave men mutilated in a thousand battles, who were reduced

to the most abject state, from the moment the service of the small endowments ceased, that is, since the disastrous campaign of Moscow. The pensioners of four thousand francs, and under, had been distributed into four classes; the 1st of four thousand francs; the 2d, two thousand; the 3d, one thousand; and the 4th, five hundred. The duke proposed to destroy this order of endowment, and to place the weakest part first; those of five hundred and a thousand, which were formed of annuities, free from taxes, had not undergone, and ought not to undergo any reduction. United, they offered an aggregate of three thousand six hundred and four claimants, and would require a sum of 1,802,000 francs. The remaining classes, which comprised one thousand two hundred and sixteen pensioners, had their revenue established upon property, and suffered by taxes, reparations, and the loss of exchange, a reduction of nearly one-fifth, reducing their revenue to 2,017,000 francs. France would need only three millions at most, to discharge to the full, towards her defenders, the most sacred portion of such a debt. "A measure of legislation," concluded the duke, "ought to result from the measures thus proposed. Happy the ministers, and the administrators, invited to assist in it. Formerly, they liquidated to destroy—now, they liquidate to repair. Liquidation will not be compensation for all losses—after twenty years war and discord, who will expect to become again what we were? Consoled already by return, the consolation of the exile will be completed by an indemnity which he dared not expect; and that of the army by a benefit which it thought to have lost with its author."

In France, as in England, great difference of opinion prevailed, respecting the laws for regulating the exportation and importation of corn; and soon after the restoration of peace, considerable disturbances took place at Dieppe, and some other sea-ports, occasioned by large shipments of corn being made from those places for England. In consequence of this agitation in the public mind, the subject of the corn laws was, at an early period of the session, brought before the two chambers; where it gave rise to several animated and elaborate discussions. M. Bequey, the director-general of agriculture, in a luminous speech, delivered in the chamber of deputies, on the 10th of October, stated, that the average price of wheat throughout the kingdom of France, for the twelve years preceding the revolution, was fifteen francs eight cents* the hectalitre;† and that, for

* Equal to about 34s. per quarter, English.

† Hecto, in the new weights and measures of

the twelve last years, the medium price had been twenty-one francs forty-six cents.* The system advocated by the director-general was, the imposition of a duty on exports, when the price of grain approached the rate at which, by law, exportation was to cease, and the free importation of grain, at all times, from foreign countries. The south of France, where corn generally obtained a price about one-fourth more than the average price of the kingdom, exported its manufactures, he said, to the Levant and the states of Barbary; and if France did not take their corn, they would cease to receive her manufactures. These principles the chamber thought proper to adopt, and a law was passed, allowing exportation of corn from France, when under a certain price, and free importation at all times, without regard to prices.

During the latter years of the reign of Napoleon, the public schools in France, under the "university system,"† were confined almost exclusively to a military education, and instruction in the duties of civil life, as well as in those of religion and morals, was lamentably neglected. In order to retrieve the credit, and to extend the influence of the clerical body in France, a royal ordinance was published by the king, on the 11th of October, for the establishment of ecclesiastical schools, in all the departments, under the sanction and superintendence of the archbishops and bishops of the Gallican Church. A single incident serves sometimes to designate a reign; and the distinguishing characteristics of the reigns of Napoleon I. and Louis XVIII. were distinctly manifested in the systems of education patronized by the two sovereigns. With the former, military glory was every thing, and the education of youth was directed exclusively to the attainment of this object; with the latter, the interest of the church was the prevailing feeling of the royal mind, and his ecclesiastical schools contributed exclusively to this end. No contrast could be more palpable. The one was a warrior, the other a devotee. Neither of them had the necessary qualifications to secure the happiness of the French people, although the two characters amalgamated might have made either of them a fit sovereign.

Another ordinance of Louis XVIII. was exposed to fewer objections, and reflected honour upon his reign: In the administration of the criminal law of the country, one of the first objects of the state should be to correct the vicious habits of crimi-

nals, and to prepare them, by habits of order and industry, combined with the influence of moral and religious instruction, to become, at the termination of their periods of imprisonment, peaceable and useful members of society. For the purpose of effecting an object so desirable, all prisoners, under twenty years of age, against whom the sentence of the law had been denounced, were ordered to be collected together in one jail, to be called "The prison of experiment;" the governor of which was to be charged with the superintendence of its police, and of the labour and instruction deemed necessary for the reform of the criminals. To aid him in an undertaking so important to the interest of the state, an assistant and six inspectors were to be placed under him, and these offices were to be filled gratuitously. Once in every month, the minister of the interior was to make a report of the state of the prison; and a commission, composed of a counsellor of state, and two masters of request; and a second commission, composed of three members of the court of session; were to visit this penitentiary twice a year, for the purpose of ascertaining the nature of its management, and the probable extent of its benefits. This wise and salutary plan seems to have originated with one of the most enlightened and benevolent men in France, and the Duke de la Rochefoucault was appointed director-general of an institution, which was indebted to him for its existence. In this, as well as in many of the other plans and measures of the new government, there was one feature which demands the tribute of praise—the whole of the details, verified and approved by the minister of the interior, were to be submitted, not only to the king, but also to the public.

Notwithstanding the pacific disposition of the king, there still existed in France too many restless spirits, and too great a fondness for national glory. The consequence was, that the hope of regaining a compensation for what they had lost by the peace of Paris, still animated the public mind, and the compensation was, they vainly hoped, to be found in the conquest of St. Domingo. The French part of this imperial island was in possession of two negro chiefs—Petion and Christophe; the latter of whom, under the title of King Henry, displayed a wise and enlightened policy in the administration of public affairs, worthy of imitation by the monarchs of Europe. The indigenous part of the population was estimated at three hundred and twenty thousand souls; and the two chiefs could bring into the field upwards of sixty thousand warriors. Such were

France, signifies 100 times: so hectolitre imports 100 litres, each litre being equal to 2 1-8 wine pints.

* Equal to about 47s. per quarter, English.

† See vol. ii. book iv. p. 159.

the sovereign and the people whom the French government, uninstructed by the fatal termination of General Leclerc's expedition, wished to enslave.* But no sooner had King Henry learned that Louis XVIII. whose own misfortunes might have inspired him with sentiments of justice and humanity, was fitting out an expedition against the kingdom of Hayti, than he issued an energetic proclamation,† justifying, at the tribunal of nations, the legitimacy of his sable government; and in which, while he promised security and protection to the subjects of those powers who visited the island of St. Domingo for the purposes of commercial intercourse, he declared the determination of his subjects, rather to bury themselves under the ruins of their country, than to behold the destruction of that edifice, which they had cemented with their blood. "The king of a free people," said he, "a soldier by habit, we fear no war, nor dread any enemy. We have already signified our determination not to interfere in any way in the internal government of our neighbours. We wish to enjoy peace and tranquillity among ourselves, and to exert the same prerogatives which other nations enjoy, of making their own laws. If, after the free exposition of our sentiments, and the justice of our cause, any power should, contrary to the laws of nations, place a hostile foot on our territory, then our first duty will be to repel such an act of aggression by every means in our power. We solemnly declare, that we will never consent to any treaty, or any condition, that shall compromise the honour, the liberty, and the independence of the Haytian people. Faithful to our oath, we will rather bury ourselves under the ruin of our country, than suffer our political rights to sustain the slightest injury."

A language so decided, and so well-timed, had its proper influence upon the councils of France; and the obstacles, both physical and military, in the way of the conquest of St. Domingo, induced the French government to abandon an expedition prepared for that purpose, and preserved the inhabitants of that island from the galling influence of those chains, which French ambition and cupidity had forged for the colonists in the western islands of the Atlantic.

The first session of the restoration parliament of France closed its sittings on the 30th of December; and a review of its proceedings will serve to show, that much valuable time had been spent in the discus-

sion of questions, that tended neither to promote the security of the throne, nor to advance the happiness of the people: such was the question for restricting the liberty of the press, by placing censors over its operations. The salutary regulations introduced into the department of finance, appeared, on the contrary, calculated to retrieve the public credit, by affording facilities for the reduction of the debt already incurred, and by making provision against its future augmentation. In order to regulate the affairs of commerce, and to retrieve its drooping operation, the circle of representation was enlarged, by the creation of a commercial chamber; and the tides of the ocean, which had for years flowed in vain, were again made subservient to the prosperity of France. Whatever might be the feelings of the nation and of the army, the two chambers of legislation manifested their regard for the person and family of the sovereign, by voting a civil list, equal to that with which the crown was endowed under Louis XVI. and by a unanimous resolution to make the nation responsible for the debts incurred by her sovereign, during a long period of exile. Unhappily for the tranquillity of the state, the vital question regarding emigrant property, though frequently before the assembled legislators of France, was brought to no decision; and the indemnity of the clerical body for the confiscation of church property made during the revolution, involved considerations too delicate to be submitted to the immediate consideration of the chambers.

The state of parties in France, as it appeared at the beginning of the year 1815, was such as to indicate the existence of wide differences in opinions and interest among large classes of the community; and although, in a well-established government, and among a people of sedate character and temperate feelings, it is found by experience, that such diversities may prevail without materially endangering the public tranquillity; yet under the rule of a dynasty restored, after a long intermission, by foreign troops, to the throne of a nation distinguished for the vehemence and promptitude of its emotions, there was sufficient reason to apprehend, that secret dissensions could not long subsist without bursting into a flame. In the military class in particular, who deeply felt the humiliation of the French arms, hitherto triumphant beyond example, the hostility to the reigning family was no longer disguised. A spirit of military enterprise still strongly predominated in the nation, and a recent ordinance for the reduction of officers of all ranks, not actually employed, to half-pay, combined with the recall of

* See vol. ii. book iii. p. 447.

† Dated, "Sans Souci, the 18th of September, 1814, eleventh year of independence, and the 4th of our reign."

the Swiss guards to Paris, and the exclusion of the old imperial guard from the capital, swelled the mass of discontent. Both officers and soldiers, with scarcely any exceptions, retained a high sentimental attachment to the man who had so long led them to victory, and under whose banners, notwithstanding recent disasters, they fondly regarded themselves as destined to retrieve the honour and glory of their country. The imperial rank, which he had been still suffered to preserve, maintained his titular dignity; and his position at Elba, separated only by a narrow space of sea, kept him almost in view of the French shores, and allowed a ready intercourse with his numerous partizans.

The year, however, commenced in the French capital with those demonstrations of loyalty, which are always at the service of power, and which too frequently serve to lure sovereigns to their ruin. The municipal body of Paris, ushered in the season of gratulation by an address to the king, in which the peculiar advantages of legitimate authority were eloquently expatiated upon, and his majesty was assured that all the subjects in his realm would cheerfully sacrifice their lives and fortunes for the maintenance of those blessings, which it was his felicity to confer, and their happiness to enjoy.

A religious service calculated to revive a recollection of the errors and crimes of the revolution, and by no means adapted to the temper of the times, was performed on the 21st of January, the anniversary of the execution of Louis XVI. Two-and-twenty years had elapsed since that "deed without a name," was perpetrated; and the chief actors in the scene had long since perished, by that tempest which their own violence had raised. The retributive hand of providence, and the voice of surrounding nations, had already stamped this act with its appropriate character; and the ceremonial of reinterment was as uncalled for as it was impolitic.* Suspensions had long

been entertained, that a design existed to restore the principles of the ancient monarchy; and the official order for shutting up the theatres of Paris, on the day of reinterment, and for the introduction into the French liturgy of a service commemorative of the death of the royal martyr, served to encourage this apprehension. There was, indeed, nothing in the character of the king to justify such an opinion; but other branches of the royal family were supposed to have imbibed a greater portion of the maxims of prerogative, and many of the emigrant noblesse, and ecclesiastics, were known to have retained all the political feelings with which they left the country. If, on these accounts, the friends of constitutional liberty found reasonable grounds for withholding their confidence from the existing government, there were not wanting others, who, from factious motives, aggravated the public discontents, by disseminating reports of designs to invalidate the purchase of national property, to effect the restoration of tithes, and to re-establish feudal and seigniorial rights; and from these causes, a mass of secret disaffection was engendered in the nation, which was ready to manifest itself whenever any superinducing cause should call it into action.

which were put aside to be presented to his majesty, along with two pieces of the bier. The bones were then placed in a box which had been brought for the purpose of receiving them, and the earth and lime which had been found along with the bones were deposited in another box. To discover the remains of the king, next day the digging recommended, and some planks of a bier were found, but there was no bed of pure lime as about the bier of the queen. The earth and the lime appeared to have been purposely mixed. In the midst of the lime and the earth, were found the bones of a male body: several of which, being almost entirely corroded, were on the point of crumbling into dust. The head was covered with lime, and was found between two leg bones. This was the situation indicated as that of the head of Louis XVI. No trace of any clothes could be found, nor could any complete bed of lime be discovered near the spot.

"The relics were then enclosed in a large box, which was fastened and sealed with the signet of the arms of France. The box was afterwards carried into the chamber, where the remains of the queen had been deposited the day before, in order that the ecclesiastics already assembled might continue round the two bodies the prayers of the church, till the time fixed for placing them in leaden coffins, and for carrying them to the royal church of St. Denis, where they were finally entombed. Marshals Soult and Oudinot held the pall over the coffin of Louis XVI.; and the Presidents Barthelemy and Laine, over the coffin of the queen. But not among the least interesting assistants at the ceremony, were M. M. Hue, Deseze, and Descloiseaux. The first had remained constantly with the king till his death; the second had ably defended him at the bar of the convention; and the third had preserved and watched over his mortal remains."—*Moniteur*.

* *Disinterment of Louis XVI. and his Royal Consort.*

"On the 18th of January, the chancellor, Count de Blacas, and others, proceeded to the cemetery of the Magdalene, now a garden, attached to the house of M. Descloiseaux. After causing the ground to be dug up by labourers, one of whom was present at the inhumation of the queen, a bed of lime, ten inches thick, was found, under which was discovered the mark of a bier, about five and a half feet long, with several planks still sound; a great number of bones along this bier were carefully collected. Some were, however, wanting, which had, doubtless, been reduced to dust. The head was found entire, and the position in which it had been placed indicated with certainty that it had been detached from the body. Some remains of clothes were also found, and a pair of elastic garters, pretty well preserved,

CHAPTER VI.

THE SECOND REIGN OF THE EMPEROR NAPOLEON: Introductory Matter: Exile—Return from Elba—Debarcation in the Gulf of Juan—Triumphal March from the Coast to the Capital—Departure of Louis XVIII.—His arrival at Ghent—Unsuccessful Efforts to raise the Royal Standard in the South and West of France—Proceedings of the Congress of Vienna in consequence of the Return of Napoleon—Declaration of the 13th of March—Proceedings of the British Parliament—Coalition Treaty of the 25th of March—Pacific Overtures made by France—Letter of the Emperor Napoleon to the Sovereigns of Europe—Justificatory Manifesto of the French Government—Fidelity of some of the French Marshals to the Royal Cause—Death of Berthier—Napoleon's Ministry—Policy of his Government—Efforts to rouse the French Nation to resist the threatened Invasion of their Country—New Constitution, entitled *Acte Additionnel aux Constitutions de l'Empire*—Champ de Mai—Meeting of the Chambers—Speech of the Emperor at the Opening of the Session.

FROM a review of the proceedings of the government of Louis XVIII. and the causes of the dissatisfaction of his people, the mind is directed, by a natural transition, to the imperial exile of Elba. The departure of Napoleon from Fontainebleau, on the 20th of April, 1814, attended by the English, Russian, Austrian, and Prussian commissioners, afforded the troops, by whom he was surrounded, another opportunity of indicating their undiminished attachment to a leader, under whose banners they had attained so much glory, and in whose cause they had endured so many sufferings. The cries of *Vive l'Empereur!* which attended the departure of the imperial cavalcade, were reiterated in every town and village from Fontainebleau to Moulins, and the discontent of the populace at the presence of the commissioners, and the object of their journey, was expressed in the most unqualified terms of abuse.* At Lyons, which city Napoleon and his attendants passed through near midnight on the 23d, a few persons were assembled, and saluted him with the cry so familiar to his ears in the days of his prosperity. On the following day, Marshal Augereau crossed the emperor on his route at Valence, where an interview took place, in which Napoleon reproached Augereau for the asperity of his proclamation of the 16th;† and the marshal recriminated, by reminding the fallen monarch of that insatiable thirst for conquest to which he had sacrificed the fidelity of his friends and the happiness of his country. In Valence, the troops belonging to Marshal Augereau's corps, though wearing white cockades, received the emperor with military honours, and their indignation was manifested in no equivocal terms towards the commissioners in his suite. Here, however, his triumphs ended; and his lacerated feelings were no

longer soothed with the homage of exclamations. At Avignon, on the morning of the 25th, a great concourse of persons were assembled, and the emperor and his attendants were saluted with cries of "*Vive le Roi! Vivent les Alliés! À bas Nicholas! À bas le Tyran, le Coquin, le mauvais Gueux!*" and even still coarser abuse. The conduct of the populace at Orgon and Aix was equally insulting; at the former of these places, a gallows was erected exactly on the spot where the relays of horses stood, from which was suspended a figure, in French uniform, sprinkled with blood, bearing a paper upon its breast with this inscription:—

"Tel sera tôt ou tard le sort du Tyran!"

These repeated demonstrations of popular indignation became so alarming, that Napoleon changed his dress in his carriage, soon after he left the town, and mounting a post-horse, rode on before in the character of a courier. At a small inn, on the other side of Orgon, the imperial suite stopped to dinner, and here, in a kind of chamber, the former ruler of the world was found by the commissioners, buried in thought, with his head resting upon his hand, and his countenance bedewed with tears.† An apprehension that the new government had determined to take away his life, continually haunted his imagination in the latter part of his journey, and after assuming various disguises, he quitted his own carriage entirely, and took a seat in a corner of General Koller's caleche. When his mind had regained some degree of composure, he spoke freely of his political projects while he was Emperor of France; but now,

* Narrative of Napoleon Bonaparte's journey from Fontainebleau to Frejus, in April, 1814, by Count Truchese-Waldburg, (Valdeburgh Fruchsels), attendant Prussian Commissary.

† See vol. ii. book ii. p. 342.

* A name applied familiarly to Bonaparte, while he was a student at the college of Brienne, and revived as a term of opprobrium after his abdication, under an erroneous idea that *Nicholas* was actually his Christian name. On this subject, his own writing, in the still existing registry of the second arrondissement of Paris, at the time of his first marriage in 1796, is pretty conclusive evidence—it is there written "*Napoléone Bonaparte.*"

† Count Truchese-Waldburg's Narrative.

according to his professions, every thing that could happen in the political world, was to him perfectly indifferent, and he felt extremely happy in anticipating the tranquil life which he should pass at Porto Ferrajo,—far from the intrigues of courts, and in the full enjoyment of his scientific pursuits. Yes! the throne of Europe might now be safely offered to him, for he should reject it; this conduct of the French towards him had evinced such black ingratitude, as entirely to disgust him with the ambition of reigning.

On the morning of the 27th, the emperor and his train arrived in the neighbourhood of Frejus, when, finding himself under the protection of a body of Austrian troops, he resumed his uniform, and once more occupied his own carriage. The Undaunted, an English frigate, under the command of Captain Usher, awaited his arrival, and on the evening of the 28th, he embarked on board that vessel in the harbour of St. Raphael, where fourteen years before he had landed on his return from Egypt. During the five days passed at sea, the manners of the emperor were usually condescending and courteous; General Koller and Colonel Campbell, the two commissioners appointed to attend him to the island, were daily invited to his table, and he frequently expressed his regret at the scenes which they had been called to witness, during the latter days of his journey, through the instigation, as he imagined, of the French government. On the 3d of May, the Undaunted arrived off the coast of Elba, and on the following day the bee-studded flag* of the Elbese empire waved from the watch-towers of Porto Ferrajo. In answer to a congratulatory oration from the municipal body of his new capital, the emperor assured them, that “the mildness of the climate, and the gentle manners of the inhabitants of Elba, had induced him to select this alone of all his extensive possessions, in the hope, that the people would know how to estimate the distinction, and to love him as obedient children, while he should ever conduct himself toward them as a provident father and sovereign.”†

The energies of the ever active mind of Napoleon were immediately applied to completing the fortifications of his capital, improving the public roads, and adding to the agricultural and mineralogical resources of the island. “His days,” says one of his

attendants, “passed in the most pleasing occupations. All his hours were filled up. That indefatigable activity, which in other times he applied to the vast conceptions of genius, he employed in the island of Elba in studying the embellishments of the retreat which he had chosen. In the morning he shut himself up in his library. He often rose before the sun, and employed himself for several hours in study. About eight o'clock, he took some relaxation, visited the works he had projected, and spent a considerable time with his workmen, among whom he numbered many soldiers of the guards. Whatever might be the state of the weather, he repaired daily to his chateau at St. Martin; and there, as in the city, he was occupied with the interior management of his house, required an exact account of every thing, and entered into the smallest details of domestic and rural economy. Often, after breakfast, he reviewed his little army; required the greatest regularity in their exercises and manœuvres, and caused the strictest discipline to be observed. After the review, he mounted his horse for his morning ride, generally attended by Marshal Bertrand and General Drouet, and in his excursion frequently gave audience to those who met him. At dinner, all who were admitted to his table were treated with kindness and cordiality, and he seems to have discovered the secret of enjoying the most intimate and familiar society without surrendering any part of his dignity. The evenings were usually dedicated to family parties.”

When the emperor received the visits of strangers, which frequently happened, he entered freely into conversation: frequently he spoke of the last campaign—of his views and hopes—of the defection of his marshals—of the capture of Paris; and of his abdication: on these topics, he would descend with great earnestness, exhibiting, in rapid succession, traits of eloquence, of military genius, of indignation, and of inordinate self-estimation. The chief violence of his rage was directed against Marmont for the surrender of Paris; and against Angereau for the surrender of Lyons. For the allied troops, as compared with his own, he expressed the most profound contempt; the Prussians were the best, but he would beat even them with one-third their number. In the vexation of his heart, however, he did justice to Blücher: “*Ce vieux diable*,” said he, “never gave me any rest. I beat him to-day—good, he attacked me to-morrow. I beat him in the morning—he was ready to fight again in the evening. He suffered enormous losses, and, according to all calcula-

*The ancient and peculiar ensign of Elba was singularly well adapted to Bonaparte's situation, being no other than a wheel—an emblem of the vicissitudes of human life, borrowed by the Elbese from the Egyptian mysteries.

†General Koller's Narrative.

tion, ought to have thought himself too happy to be allowed to retire unmolested, instead of which he immediately advanced upon me again; *ah, le vieux diable!*"

When the first impressions of novelty were effaced, Bonaparte's mind seems to have gradually subsided into a state bordering upon *ennui*. He grew corpulent, took less exercise, and slept more. But the discussions in the congress at Vienna, regarding his future destiny, and the arrangement of the Italian states, particularly of those which had been awarded by the treaty of Fontainebleau to the empress and his son, soon roused him from this state of torpor. Hitherto, he had evinced a decided predilection for the society of Sir Neil Campbell, the British accredited agent at Elba; he seemed to have nothing to conceal, and courted the strictest scrutiny; but having received a visit from some of his family and friends, who had just left Paris, and by whom the proceedings of the congress were reported, he became restless and dissatisfied. He now shunned the company of the British officer, and almost secluded himself from society. Often he would spend seven or eight hours in his closet, no one daring to intrude on his retirement; and at other times, he would wander on the shore with folded arms, and frequently with an unequal and agitated step. The embellishments of his capital, and the improvement of the island, were neglected, and almost forgotten; the discontents of the French people, which had now come to his knowledge, had awakened his slumbering ambition, and the incipient conspiracy to effect his restoration absorbed all his thoughts. The wheel of vicissitude was again in motion, and the mind of Napoleon became intently fixed upon the progress of the rotation.

The striking alteration in the conduct of Napoleon, and the frequent intercourse which he had now opened with his friends in Leghorn, Florence, and other parts of Italy, was not concealed from the principal governments of Europe; and there is no doubt whatever that Sir Neil Campbell reported from time to time to his government all that appeared to him deserving of notice, as well in the island of Elba, as on the neighbouring peninsula. It is impossible perhaps to conceive any situation in Europe less calculated for a place of security, or more favourable for conducting a conspiracy, than the island of Elba. That it was the place of Bonaparte's selection, as he informed the inhabitants on his first arrival among them, may be easily imagined; but that the allies should have acceded to such a choice, cannot be so well accounted for. Situated in the vicinity of France,

Spain, Naples, Sicily, and Sardinia, it afforded a centre of unrestricted communication with the principal scenes of his former usurpations; and that nothing might be wanting to give to Napoleon's genius for intrigue the most unbounded scope, a corvette was assigned him, to keep up his communication with the ports of the Mediterranean, and no cruiser of any nation had a right to violate his flag. Colonel Sir Neil Campbell had indeed been allowed to remain either at Elba or Leghorn, after he had fulfilled the whole of his duty, which consisted in conveying the exile to his residence at Elba, but he was not permitted by the treaty to exercise over him any police whatever, not so much as to seize and detain him if he thought proper to quit the island.*

Every instance of his activity within the little circle of his dominions, was contrasted by his admirers with the constitutional inertness of the restored monarch. Excelling as much in the arts of peace as in those of war, it wanted only, they said, the fostering hand and unwearied eye of Napoleon, to have rendered France the envy of the universe, had his military affairs permitted the leisure and opportunity now enjoyed by the Bourbons. These allegations, secretly insinuated, and at length loudly murmured, produced their usual effects upon the fickle temper of the public; and as the temporary enthusiasm in favour of the Bourbons faded into indifference and aversion, the general horror of Bonaparte's ambitious and tyrannical disposition, began to yield to the recollection of his active, energetic, and enterprising qualities.

This change must soon have been known to him who was its object. An expression is said to have escaped from him during his passage to Elba, which marked at least a secret feeling that he might one day recover the high dignity from which he had fallen. "If Marina," he observed, "had slain himself in the marshes of Minturna, he would never have enjoyed his seventh consulate."—What was perhaps originally but the vague aspirations of an ardent spirit striving against adversity, became, from the circumstances of France, a plausible and well-grounded hope. It required only to establish communications among his numerous and zealous partizans, with instructions to hold out such hopes as might lure the jacobins to his standard, and to profit by and inflame the growing discontents and divisions of France; and a conspiracy was almost ready formed, with little exertion on the

* Speech of Lord Castlereagh in the house of commons, April 7, 1815.

part of him who soon became its object and its centre.

Various affiliations and points of rendez-vous were now arranged, to recruit for partisans. The ladies of the ex-emperor's court, who found themselves humiliated at that of the king, by the preference assigned to noble birth, were zealous agents in these political intrigues; for offended pride hesitates at no measures for obtaining vengeance. The purses of their husbands and lovers were of course open to these fair intriguers, and many of them devoted their jewels to forward the cause of revolution. The chief of these female conspirators, was Hortensia Beauharnois, wife of Louis Bonaparte, but now separated from her husband, and bearing the title of the Duchess of Saint Leu. She was a lady of considerable talents, and of great activity and address. At Nantevre, Neuilly, and Saint Leu, meetings of the conspirators were held; and Madame Hamelin, the confidante of the duchess, is said to have assisted in concealing some of the principal agents. The Duchess of Bassano and the Duchess of Montebello (widow of Marshal Lannes) were warmly engaged in the same cause.

Paris was the centre of the conspiracy; but its ramifications extended through France. Clubs were formed in the chief provincial towns. Regular correspondences were established between them and the capital, an intercourse much favoured it has been asserted, by Lavallette, who, having been long director-general of the posts under Bonaparte, retained considerable influence over the subordinate agents of that department, none of whom had been displaced on the king's return. It appears from the evidence of M. Feorand, director-general under the king, that several of the couriers, who, like the soldiers and police officers, had found more advantage under the imperial than under the royal government, were in the interest of their own master; and it is averred, that the correspondence relating to the conspiracy was carried on through the royal post-office; contained in letters sealed with the king's seal, and despatched by public messengers wearing his livery.

Under circumstances, so auspicious to his designs, the ramifications of the conspiracy soon became widely extended. On the course of the Seine, as well as on the banks of the lake of Geneva, the violet was the secret symbol by which the conspirators denoted their chief, and recognised each other. Rings of a violet colour with the device, "*Elle reparaitra au printemps*,"* became fashionable. The ladies were dress-

ed in violet-coloured silks; and the men displayed violet-coloured watch-strings. When they asked, "*Aimez vous la violette*?"* if the answer was simply "*Oui*,"† it was inferred that the respondent was not a confederate; but if he exclaimed "*Eh! bien*,"† they recognised a brother, initiated in the secrets of the conspiracy, and completed the sentence by remarking, "*Elle reparaitra au printemps*." These secret symbols, less important for their professed purpose of secrecy than as a romantic embellishment of conspiracy, calculated to excite the imagination, and peculiarly adapted in that respect to the French character, had been employed a year before by the partisans of the house of Bourbon. A royalist then sounded those of whom he entertained hopes by saying "*Deli*," and if the answer was "*France*," the completion of the word showed the recognition of principle to be reciprocal.

Marshal Soult who was at the head of the army, in the capacity of minister-at-war, it was affirmed had already been initiated, and the divisional and regimental order-books and papers, found on the field of Waterloo after the battle, gave to this report an appearance of authenticity. From those documents, it appears, that early in February all leaves of absence and furloughs were recalled, the rigour against desertion was redoubled, the regiments were directed to fill up their vacancies, even from the disbanded pensioners, and the officers and men were to hold themselves in readiness and full marching order, for the first week of March; and all this note of preparation was on the pretence of some reviews or inspections, which were announced for that period. In the midst of this peril, the Bourbons seemed to slumber at the Tuileries, and like all the other powers of Europe, to disregard the warning voice which was so often sounded in their ears. Early in the month of January, offers are understood to have been received by M. Blacas, the minister and favourite of his sovereign, to disclose a plot formed for the restoration of Bonaparte; but the proposal was received with contemptuous silence, and treated with a reprehensible neglect. Were not the evidence of the fact incontestable, posterity would scarcely credit the assertion, that after the return of Napoleon, there were found in the bureau of the Abbe Montesquion, the minister of the home department, several successive communications from Comte de Bontheilliers, prefect of the department of the Var, unread, and

* It will reappear in the spring.

* Are you fond of the violet.

† Ah! well.

† Yes.

even unopened. The early part of these communications, which were dated in the month of January, informed the minister of the frequent departure and arrival of suspected persons to and from Elba, and the latter detailed the particulars of the plot, with the names of the partizans engaged in its execution. The object of these repeated despatches from the prefect, was to obtain instructions how to proceed, and in particular to request that an armed force might be despatched to the south, to arrest the progress of the conspirators; but the Abbé was too intent upon restoring Paris to her ancient place, as the seat of the amusements and pleasures of Europe, to suffer his mind to be diverted from this grand pursuit, by the less attractive duty of securing the crown of his sovereign.

The deliberations of the congress assembled at Vienna, in which Napoleon had begun to take so deep an interest, drew towards a close. The conduct of the exile had become the subject of correspondence between Lord Castlereagh and M. Talleyrand,* and it was supposed that the allied sovereigns, aware at length of the folly of placing him in the Isle of Elba, were deliberating upon the propriety of removing him to a situation more remote from his family and political connexions, and less dangerous to the future tranquillity of Europe. These circumstances served to hasten the great catastrophe, and probably hurried the conspirators into action before their plans were fully ripe for execution. It is impossible to speak with precision of the extent of the conspiracy, or of the number of its agents, but the fact was soon placed beyond doubt, that the first step in the enterprise was the invasion of France by a handful of soldiers, and its ultimate object the possession of the throne of that kingdom.

The plot formed against Louis XVIII. comprehended two enterprises. The first was to be achieved by the landing of Napoleon from Elba, when the universal good-will of the soldiers, the awe inspired by his name and character, and the suspicions and insinuations spread widely against the Bourbons, together with the hope of recovering what the nation considered as the lost glory of France, were certain to ensure him a general good reception. A second or subordinate branch of the conspiracy, concerned the insurrection of a body of troops under General l'Allemand, who were quartered in the north-east of France, and to whom was committed the charge of intercepting the retreat

of the king and royal family from Paris and, seizing them, to detain them as hostages at the pleasure of the restored emperor.

The preparations made for the hazardous enterprise which was now preparing to burst upon an astonished world, formed a striking contrast, in their extent and duration, with the preparations made by the same personage some years before, for the invasion of England. One day's notice was all that was deemed necessary, and the invading army, consisting only of four hundred guards, two hundred infantry, one hundred Polish light horse, and two hundred men of the flanking corps, constituting an army of nine hundred men,† embarked on board the *Inconstant*, of twenty-six guns; *L'Etoile* and *La Carolige* bombardiers, and four feluccas. The orders to embark were not received till one o'clock at noon; and at eight o'clock in the evening of the 26th of February, the expedition, with the emperor and his staff on board the *Inconstant*, sailed from Porto Ferrajo at the signal of a single gun, amidst the exclamations of—" *Paris ou la mort!*" —" *Paris or death!*"

The night proved clear and favourable, and fortune seemed to smile on the enterprise. Sir Neil Campbell, the British commissary, was in Italy; no cruisers appeared in sight; and before the dawn of the following morning, the adventurers hoped to double the cape of Capraia, and to be placed beyond the reach of the vessels which were known to be cruising on that station. But the wind, which was at the time of embarkation from the south, and favourable, gradually died away, and at break of day on the 27th, they had made only six leagues of progress, and were yet between Capraia and Elba. The night, however, had not been wholly lost, for during the darkness, the soldiers and the crew had changed the painting of the sides of the brig, from yellow and grey to black and white, in order to escape the observation of those who might meet the vessel. The danger now became imminent; and the captain (Chautard), and part of the crew, advised and urged the return to Porto Ferrajo; but Napoleon's resolution was not to be shaken; he ordered the flotilla to continue its voyage, determining, in case of necessity, to attack two French frigates and a brig, which now appeared in sight, which, however, it was thought would be more inclined to join than to oppose them. Towards noon the wind freshened, and at four o'clock in the afternoon they were off Leghorn, having escaped the observation

* Lord Castlereagh's speech in the house of commons, April 7, 1815

† *Moniteur* of the 23d of March, 1815.

of the cruisers. At six o'clock in the evening, the *Inconstant* perceived the *Zephyr*, Captain Andrieux, bearing down upon her, and made preparations for action; at first, it was proposed to speak to the *Zephyr*, and require her to raise the tricoloured standard, but it was afterwards thought better to pass her without being known, and the emperor ordered the soldiers to take off their caps, and to conceal themselves between the decks. More completely to lull suspicion, Captain Andrieux was hailed from the *Inconstant* by Lieutenant Taillade, who informed him that the vessel was bound from Elba to Genoa, and offered to undertake any commission which Captain Andrieux might have to execute at that place. This civility the captain declined, and at parting cried—"How's the emperor?" To which Napoleon himself exclaimed—"Wonderfully well!" and the ships, pursuing their opposite course, dropped away from each other. During the night of the 27th, the wind continued to increase; and at daylight on the 28th, the coast of Provence was in sight. Before this time, some uncertainty hung over the destination of the expedition, but now all doubt was removed, and at three o'clock in the afternoon of the 1st of March, the little fleet came to anchor in the gulf of Juan, near Antibes, in the department of the Var.

In the progress of the voyage, Napoleon, whose spirits never forsook him, talked without disguise of his present attempt, of his difficulties, his means, and his hopes: "In a case like this," said he, "one must think slowly, but act promptly; I have long weighed, and most maturely considered the project.—The glory and the advantages we shall gain, if we succeed, I need not enlarge upon. If we fail—to military men, who have from their infancy faced death in so many shapes, the fate which awaits us is not terrific; we know, and we despise, for we have a thousand times been exposed to the worst that fate can bring."* These were nearly the last words which he spoke before his little fleet came to anchor, and they were delivered with a more set phrase than usual, as a sort of final address to the companions of his great enterprise.

Causing his followers once more to assume the tricoloured cockade, Napoleon disembarked at Cannes, not far from Fréjus, which had seen him land a single individual, returned from Egypt, to conquer a mighty empire; had beheld him set sail, a terrified exile, to occupy the place of his banishment; and now again wit-

nessed his return, a daring adventurer, to throw the dice once more for a throne or a grave.

At five o'clock in the afternoon, the disembarkation of the troops was completed, and Napoleon, being himself the last man to quit the vessel, exclaimed with exultation, as he set his foot again on the territory of France—"Voilà le Congrès dissous"—"The Congress is dissolved." An officer with five and twenty men, was now despatched to secure the batteries upon the coast, but on approaching to Antibes, the detachment was seized by General Corsin, the governor of that place, and made prisoners. From the time of the disembarkation, till the rising of the moon at eleven o'clock at night, the invading army bivouacked on the sea shore, in a vineyard surrounded by olive-trees. At that hour, the emperor, placing himself at the head of his troops, advanced to Cannes, passing through Grasse to the village of Cérénon, at which place they arrived in the evening of the 2d, having already traversed a distance of twenty leagues. The reappearance of Napoleon produced a mingled sentiment in the inhabitants, of astonishment, fear, and joy. A scene of magical illusion, which the pen labours in vain to describe, everywhere presented itself. Crowds of unreflecting spectators hailed the reappearance of the eagle; and in those very departments where, not twelve months before, Bonaparte had been obliged to assume a disguise to avert the fury of the populace, he now marched openly and without molestation, at the head of a handful of men, with the avowed intention of overturning the throne of the reigning sovereign of France. This march was rather a triumph than an invasion. The population was permitted to count his feeble band, to approach his person, and to learn from his own mouth the object of his enterprise. On the 4th, Napoleon dined at Digne, and on the 5th advanced to Gap. At this place, two proclamations, dictated by Napoleon, and written on board the *Inconstant*, during his voyage from Elba, were printed and circulated. In these addresses, every chord that vibrated to the national feeling was struck upon by the hand of a master; and every topic that could arouse the ardour of the army in his support, or withdraw the attachments of the people from their legitimate sovereign, was pressed into the service of the invader:—

PROCLAMATION TO THE FRENCH PEOPLE.

"NAPOLEON, by the grace of God and the constitution of the empire, Emperor of the French, &c. &c. &c.

"*Bay of Juan, March 1, 1815.*

"Frenchmen!—The defection of the Duke of Castiglione delivered up Lyons without defence.

* Narrative of Colonel Jermanski, commander of the Polish Lancers, who accompanied Napoleon from Elba.

to our enemies; the army of which I confided to him the command, was, by the number of its battalions, the bravery and patriotism of the troops which composed it, fully able to beat the Austrian corps opposed to it, and to get into the rear of the left wing of the enemy's army, which threatened Paris.

"The victories of Champ Aubert, of Montmirail, of Chateau Thierry, of Vauchamp, of Mormans, of Montereau, of Craone, of Rheims, of Arcy-sur-Aube, and of St. Dizier; the rising of the brave peasants of Lorraine, of Champagne, of Alsace, of Franche Comte, and of Bourgoign; and the position which I had taken on the rear of the enemy's army, by separating it from its magazines, from its parks of reserve, from its convoys, and all its equipages; had placed it in a desperate situation. The French were never on the point of being more powerful, and the flower of the enemy's army was lost without resource: it would have found its grave in those vast countries which it had mercilessly ravaged, when the treason of the Duke of Ragusa gave up the capital and disorganized the army. The unexpected conduct of those two generals, who betrayed at once their country, their prince, and their benefactor, changed the destiny of the war. The disastrous situation of the enemy was such, that at the conclusion of the affair which took place before Paris, it was without ammunition, on account of its separation from its park of reserve.

"Under these new and important circumstances, my heart was rent, but my soul remained unshaken. I consulted only the interest of the country. I exiled myself on a rock in the middle of the sea. My life was, and ought to be, still useful to you. I did not permit the great number of citizens, who wished to accompany me, to partake my lot. I thought their presence useful to France; and I took with me only a handful of brave men, necessary for my guard.

"Raised to the throne by your choice, all that has been done without you is illegitimate. For twenty-five years, France has had new interests, new institutions, and new glory, which could be secured only by a national government, and by a dynasty created under these new circumstances. A prince who should reign over you, who should be seated on my throne by the power of those very armies which ravaged our territory, would in vain attempt to support himself with the principles of feudal law: he would not be able to recover the honour and the rights of more than a small number of individuals, enemies of the people, who, for twenty-five years, have condemned them in all our national assemblies. Your tranquillity at home, and your consequence abroad, would be lost for ever.

"Frenchmen! In my exile I heard your complaints and your wishes; you demanded that government of your choice which alone was legitimate. You accused my long slumber; you reproached me for sacrificing to my repose the great interests of the country.

"I have crossed the seas in the midst of danger of every kind: I arrive among you to resume my rights, which are yours. All that individuals have done, written, or said, since the capture of Paris, I will be for ever ignorant of: it shall not at all influence the recollections which I preserve of the important services which they have performed. There are circumstances of such a nature as to be beyond human organisation.

"Frenchmen! There is no nation, however small it may be, which has not had the right, and which may not withdraw itself from the disgrace of obeying, a prince imposed on it by an enemy

momentarily victorious. When Charles VII re-entered Paris, and overthrew the ephemeral throne of Henry V. he acknowledged that he held his throne from the valour of his heroes, not from a Prince Regent of England.

"It is thus that to you alone, and to the brave men of the army, I account it, and shall always account it, my glory, to owe every thing.

"By the Emperor, (Signed) NAPOLEON.

"The grand-marshal performing the functions of major-general of the grand army.

(Signed) COUNT BERTRAND."

TO THE ARMY.

"NAPOLEON, by the grace of God and the constitution of the empire, Emperor of the French, &c. &c. &c.

"*Gulf of Juan, March 1, 1815.*

"Soldiers!—We were not conquered: two men raised from our ranks betrayed our laurels, their country, their prince, their benefactor.

"Those whom during twenty-five years we have seen traversing all Europe to raise up enemies against us; who have passed their lives in fighting against us in the ranks of foreign armies; cursing our fine France; shall they pretend to command and control our eagles, on which they have not dared ever to look! Shall we endure that they should inherit the fruits of our glorious labours—that they should clothe themselves with our honours and our goods—that they should calumniate our glory! If their reign shall continue, all would be lost, even the memory of those immortal days. With what fury do they pervert their very nature! They seek to poison what the world admires; and if there still remain any defenders of our glory, it is among those very enemies whom we have fought on the field of battle.

"Soldiers! in my exile I heard your voice: I have arrived through all obstacles and all perils; your general, called to the throne by the choice of the people, and educated under your banners, is restored to you; come and join him.

"Tear down those colours which the nation has proscribed, and which for twenty-five years served as a rallying signal to all the enemies of France: mount the cockade tricolour: you bore it in the days of our greatness.

"We must forget that we have been masters of nations; but we must not suffer any to intermeddle in our affairs.

"Who shall presume to be master over us! Who would have the power? Recover those eagles which you had at Ulm, at Austerlitz, at Jena, at Eylau, at Friedland, at Tudela, at Eckmühl, at Essling, at Wagram, at Smolensko, at Moscow, at Lutizen, at Vurken, at Montmirail. Do you think that the handful of Frenchmen who are now so arrogant, will endure to look on them? They shall return whence they came, and there if they please they shall reign as they pretend to have reigned during nineteen years. Your possessions, your rank, your glory, the possessions, the rank, the glory of your children, have no greater enemies than those princes whom foreigners have imposed upon us; they are the enemies of our glory, because the recital of so many heroic actions, which have glorified the people of France fighting against them, to withdraw themselves from their yoke, is their condemnation.

"The veterans of the armies of the Sambre and the Meuse, of the Rhine, of Italy, of Egypt, of the West, of the grand army, are all humiliated; their honourable wounds are disgraced; their successes were crimes; those heroes were rebels, if, as the enemies of the people pretend, the legitimate sovereigns were in the midst of the foreign armies.

"Honours, rewards, affection are given to those who have served against the country and us.

"Soldiers! come and range yourselves under the standards of your chief; his existence is composed only of yours; his rights are those only of the people and yours; his interest, his honour, his glory, are no other than your interest, your honour, and your glory. Victory shall march at the charge-step: the eagle, with the national colours, shall fly from steeple to steeple, even to the towers of Notre-Dame. Then, you will be able to show your scars with honour; then, you will be able to glory in what you have done; you will be the deliverers of the country. In your old age, surrounded and esteemed by your fellow-citizens, they will hear with respect while you recount your high deeds; you will be able to say with pride—And I, too, was part of that grand army, which entered twice the walls of Vienna, those of Rome, of Berlin, of Madrid, of Moscow; and which delivered Paris from the foul blot which treason and the presence of the enemy imprinted on it."

"Honoured be those brave soldiers, the glory of the country; and eternal shame to those guilty Frenchmen, in whatever rank fortune caused them to be born, who fought for twenty-five years with the foreigner, to tear the bosom of the country."

"By the Emperor, (Signed) NAPOLEON.

"The grand-marshal performing the functions of major-general of the grand army.

(Signed) BERTRAND."

Five days after the debarkation, General Cambronne, with a small advanced-guard of forty men, met the advanced-guard of a division of six thousand men at Mure, coming from Grenoble to arrest the progress of the emperor. Cambronne, aware of the weakness of his force, demanded a parley, but, though all communication was refused, the royal troops fell back three leagues, and placed themselves in the pass. Undismayed by the threatened resistance of a force amounting to eight hundred men, Napoleon advanced, followed by about fifty of his grenadiers with arms reversed. Advancing to the right of the battalion, which appeared only to be waiting the command of its officer to fire upon him, he threw open his outer coat, and presenting his breast, exclaimed:—"Soldiers, you have been told that I fear death; if there be among you one soldier who would kill his emperor, let him plunge his bayonet into his bosom!" The effect was instantaneous; the arms of the soldiers were hurled to the ground; the guard and the soldiers embraced each other; and the air resounded with cries of "*Vive l'Empereur*." Napoleon had thus placed his life and his destinies in the hands of the army, and the experiment proved that their attachment remained unaltered. The tri-coloured cockade was soon assumed by the new reinforcements, who ranged themselves around the imperial eagles amidst the acclamations of the Elbese army, and the shouts of the populace. On the way

to Grenoble, Colonel Charles Labedoyere, who had lately received his appointment from the king, accompanied by the decoration of the legion of honour, arrived at the head of the 4th regiment of hussars, carrying an eagle, and joined the ranks of the emperor. The garrison of Grenoble had been augmented by a part of the 7th and 11th regiments of the line, sent from Chamberri, and selected for this service because they were unacquainted with the emperor's person, and would, it was supposed, be proof against all seduction. General Marchand, the commander of the place, was faithful to the king, and had placed his whole force on the ramparts, with the cannon loaded, and the matches lighted; but the cannoniers, instead of firing as they were ordered, extinguished their matches, and joined the garrison and the inhabitants in attempts to beat down the gates for the purpose of admitting the invaders.* The mayor and civil authorities now presented themselves, and offered their services to conduct the emperor to the Government-House; but he walked into a hotel kept by an old soldier of the guard, and was for some time completely lost to his staff, in the midst of a crowd who were thronging about him in every direction. During this period, the gates of Bonne, of which General Marchand had taken the key, were brought and laid under the window of the inn, by a vast body of the inhabitants, who exclaimed—"Napoleon, we could not offer you the keys of your good town of Grenoble, but here are the gates." General Marchand who had been arrested by the seditious soldiery, was now brought before him. Indignant at the insult which had been offered to this gallant officer, Napoleon ordered him to be immediately released, and pressed him to reassume the command of the town; "I may appeal to yourself," replied the general, "that I once served you faithfully: your abdication released me from my allegiance to you, and I have since sworn fidelity to the Bourbons; here is my sword, I can submit to become a prisoner, but I can never be a traitor."

* A medal was struck at the mint in Paris on the return of Napoleon to France, commemorative of the events now under review; on the obverse of which is exhibited the flight of the imperial eagle from Elba to the coast of Provence; and on the reverse the reception given to the emperor by the citizens and soldiers of France. The second restoration of the Bourbons consigned to destruction the dies from which were produced this personification of one of the most extraordinary passages in history; and already these medals have become so scarce, that an impression on bronze, not intrinsically worth five shillings, is valued by the dealers at twenty times that sum.

"Take back your sword, general," said Napoleon, "you have hitherto used it like a true soldier, and I respect you too much to urge you to use it in any way which your conscience would disapprove. You are at liberty to depart."

The next day, the garrison of Grenoble with Napoleon at the head, marched towards Lyons, having hoisted their tricoloured cockades, which were found sewed in the bottom of their knapsacks, and which they presented to the emperor, exclaiming, "They are the same which we wore at Austerlitz and Marengo." The defection of the garrison of Grenoble had placed Bonaparte at the head of a well appointed army of ten thousand men, and the disposition which had been shown towards him, assured him of the affection and co-operation of all who might be sent to oppose his march. Napoleon now got into an open carriage, which generally went at a foot pace, and was not unfrequently impeded in his route by the crowds who pressed by his side and loaded it with flowers and congratulatory addresses or petitions. The carriage was sometimes attended by a few hussars, and at others was without a single guard, and frequently two or three leagues distance from the main body of the troops.

The utmost celerity, courage, and address, on the side of Napoleon, might have failed to re-establish the imperial throne, had there not been an excess of delay, imbecility, and weakness, on the part of the court of Louis. It was not till the 5th of March, that the debarkation in the Gulf of Juan was known at the Tuileries; and the announcement of this appalling fact was not made to the inhabitants of Paris till the 7th, when the *Moniteur* contained a proclamation convening the chambers, and an ordinance of the king, denouncing Napoleon Bonaparte and his adherents as traitors, and authorizing all the military and civil authorities, or even private citizens, to bring him before a council of war, which, on proof of his identity, was to punish him with death. The first impression of the court was a mingled feeling of astonishment and contempt; but when the report of every succeeding day proved that Napoleon advanced without resistance, and that his army, like the dreadful avalanche of the Alps, increased at every step—that every town which he approached, exultingly opened to him its gates, and that the people too frequently united with the soldiers in acknowledging him as the new master of France, ridicule gave way to serious reflection, and reflection to alarm. Monsieur, with the Duke of Orleans, and Count Damas, set out without delay for Lyons; and

the Duke of Angouleme was ordered to proceed from Bourdeaux to Nismes. The municipal body of Paris assembled and voted an address to the king, and the inhabitants professed an attachment to the Bourbon race, which death itself could alone dissolve. That these loyal sentiments might not be suffered to evaporate in mere professions, registers were opened in the different districts of the metropolis for the enrolment of volunteers, and in less than three days the numbers were swelled to forty thousand men! On the 8th, sixty-nine deputies met in virtue of the royal summons; and on the following day, when the peers assembled, both chambers presented to his majesty addresses, abounding with assurances of loyalty and personal devotion. Marshal Soult, whose attachment to his old master began now to be strongly suspected, resigned his office on the 11th, and Marshal Clarke, Duke of Feltre, succeeded to the war department. From every part of the country, the deputies, on their arrival in Paris, brought the most consolatory accounts of the spirit of the departments, and the army of the usurper was stated, on official authority, to be reduced to four thousand men. Even the king's ministers contributed to the popular delusion, and three days after Monsieur had been driven from Lyons, the Duke of Feltre, the new minister of war, concluded a speech full of cheering prospects, by assuring the peers of France, that all the accounts from the army were perfectly satisfactory. Of one portion of the army, indeed, this assurance was true, for Colonel Lefebvre Desnouettes, who had attempted to seduce the regiment of royal chasseurs from their duty, and to lead them into the neighborhood of Lyons to join their former master, was defeated in his intention by the fidelity of his troops, and obliged to seek his own safety in flight.

On the 9th, Napoleon slept at Bourgoin; and on the same day, Monsieur, the Duke of Orleans, and the Count Damas, arrived at Lyons, where they were joined by Marshal Macdonald. Their first care was to assemble the national guard, reinforce the garrison, and barricade the bridges of the Rhone. The efforts of the Duc d'Artois to attach the soldiery and the people to the royal cause, were totally unavailing; his kindness and his caresses were received in silence, or rudely repulsed. The soldiers drew back, even from the proffered hand of their royal general, who asked them, in accents of grief, "What he had done to lose, and what he could do to regain, their favour?" The advanced guard of Napoleon's army reached the suburb of La Guilloterie on the 10th, when Marshal

Macdonald, placing himself at the head of two battalions of infantry, proceeded against them. On crossing the bridge that led to the suburb, they were met by a reconnoitring party of the 4th hussars, which had joined Napoleon at Grenoble; the troops on each side rushed forward—not to fight, but to embrace. Macdonald precipitated himself among them; but his menaces and his entreaties were alike unheard; the king's troops, forgetful of their allegiance, joined in casting the barricades into the Rhone, and ranged themselves under the standard of the invader. It was now evident that all was lost; the prince and the marshal retired from the town, and at 9 o'clock in the evening the emperor made his triumphal entry into the second city in France. The next morning, Napoleon reviewed the garrison, as well as the mounted national guard, composed chiefly of Lyonnais nobles, who, after a thousand protestations of devotion, in the morning of the preceding day, had suffered Monsieur to quit the city in the evening, attended only by a single dragoon. These faithless servants of the Bourbons, conceiving that they had recommended themselves to the emperor by the dereliction of their duty towards the rival family, solicited permission to form his body guard. Napoleon's answer to this application forms one of the extraordinary traits of character, which distinguish, and are recorded of, his progress to the capital: "Your conduct towards the Comte d'Artois," replied he, "tells me how you would behave to me, in case of a reverse. I thank you for your offer—but you will return immediately to your homes." To complete this act of magnanimity, the dragoon who had accompanied the prince was rewarded with the cross of the legion of honour, on the arrival of Napoleon at Paris. In the same spirit, Napoleon said to the municipal authorities, "We should forget that we have been masters of nations—my rights are those of the people alone—of all that individuals have done, written, or said, since the taking of Paris, I shall for ever remain ignorant."

At Lyons, Napoleon remained till the 13th, and on the day of his departure, dated from that city a number of decrees, in which he assumed the imperial title, and considered himself as again in possession of the throne.* During his stay at

* Substance of the Decrees issued by Napoleon at Lyons, on the 13th of March, 1815.

All the changes effected in the Court of Cassation and other tribunals, are declared null and void.

All emigrants, who have entered the French service since the 14th of April, are removed, and deprived of their new honours.

Lyons, he mixed with the people in the streets, and in their public assemblies, with the same unsuspecting confidence which had marked his former progress, and which was not less apparent in his further advance to the capital. Maçon, Autun, and Avalon, each, on successive days, witnessed and contributed to his triumphant progress; and on the 17th he arrived at Auxerre.

The rapid advance of Napoleon, and the daily increase of his army, served to awaken the court of Louis to a sense of their danger; and preparations were made to collect a formidable army at Melun, between Fontainebleau and Paris, to check the progress of the invaders in front; while Marshal Ney, who had been despatched to Lons-le-Saulnier, where an army was stationed amounting to fourteen thousand men, was directed to fall upon his rear. This officer, in an effusion of loyalty, had repaired to the Tuileries on the 9th, and besought his sovereign to employ him in the "impious war, waged against his throne by the brigand arrived from the island of Elba;" and half drawing his sword from the scabbard, he pledged himself, on forfeiture of his head, to bring the invader to Paris dead or alive; adding, "that he deserved to be brought in an iron cage." The vio-

The White Cockade, the Decoration of the Lily, and the orders of St. Louis, St. Esprit, and St. Michael, are abolished.

The national Cockade and the Tri-coloured Standard to be hoisted in all places.

The Imperial Guard is re-established in all its functions, and is to be recruited by men who have been not less than twelve years in the service.

The Swiss guard is suppressed, and exiled twenty leagues from Paris.

All the household troops of the King are suppressed. All the property appertaining to the House of Bourbon is sequestered.

All the property of the emigrants restored since the first of April, and which may militate against the national interest, is sequestered.

The two Chambers of the Peers and Deputies are dissolved, and the Members are forthwith to return to their respective homes.

The laws of the Legislative Assembly are to be enforced. All feudal titles are suppressed.

National rewards will be decreed to those who distinguish themselves in war or in the arts and sciences.

All the emigrants who have entered France since the 1st of January, 1814, are commanded to leave the empire.

All promotions in the Legion of Honour, conferred by Louis, are null and of no effect, unless they be made in favour of those who deserve well of their country.

The change in the decoration of the Legion of Honour is null and of no effect. All its privileges are re-established.

The Electoral Colleges are convoked to meet at Paris, in May next, in an Assembly extraordinary of the *Champ de Mai*, to new model the Constitution, according to the interests and will of the nation; and at the same time to assist in the Coronation of the Empress and the King of Rome.

lence of the marshal's zeal, which ought rather to have excited suspicion than conciliated confidence, procured for him the command of the army, and on the 12th, while the emperor was yet at Lyons, he arrived at Lons-le-Saulnier. Having assembled his staff, and harangued them in favour of the royal cause, with all the energy of his character, a large majority of the officers maintained a cold and obstinate silence; but it was easy to trace on their clouded brows their determination to enrol themselves under the imperial eagle; others, discontented, yet irresolute, wavered between their inclinations and their oaths; and a small number repeated their protestations of fidelity to the royal cause. During the night, some emissaries of Bonaparte arrived, and were introduced to Marshal Ney. They delivered to him letters from Marshal Bertrand, which painted in the most gloomy colours the hopeless situation of the king, and the certainty of Napoleon's success. They assured him, that the emperor had concerted this enterprise with Austria, through the mediation of General Koller—that the empress and her son were already on their road to Paris—that England had connived at Napoleon's escape—and that Murat advanced triumphantly on the side of Italy, to assist in the re-erection of the imperial throne. It was added, that Napoleon had for ever renounced his projects of ambitious government and universal dominion, and wished now to reign for the happiness of France alone. The marshal was shaken; his country, in the person of the king, had exacted an oath of fidelity; his country in the person of the emperor, absolved him from his allegiance. This sophism led him astray, and he determined to swell the number of the partizans of Napoleon. This flagitious act of perfidy, which will consign the name of Ney to the execration of posterity, was consummated by the following proclamation, issued by the marshal from his head quarters at Lons-le-Saulnier, on the 13th of March:—

OFFICERS AND SOLDIERS! The cause of the Bourbons is for ever lost. The legitimate dynasty which the French nation adopted, is about to re-ascend the throne. To the Emperor Napoleon, our sovereign, it alone belongs, to reign over our fine country.—Of what consequence is it to us, whether the noblesse of the Bourbons again expatriate themselves, or consent to live in the midst of us? The sacred cause of liberty and of our independence will no longer suffer under their fatal influence. They wished to degrade our military glory; but they have been deceived. That glory is the fruit of attempts too noble to permit us ever to lose its remembrance.—Soldiers! Those times are gone by, when the people were governed by the subjugation of their rights; at length, liberty triumphs, and Napoleon,

our august emperor, is about to confirm it for ever. Hereafter, shall that noble cause be ours and that of all Frenchmen! A truth so grand must penetrate the hearts of those brave men whom I have the honour to command.—Soldiers! I have often led you to victory; now I lead you to join that immortal phalanx with which the Emperor Napoleon approaches Paris, and which will be here within a few days; then our hopes and our happiness will be for ever realized.—*Vive l'Empereur!*”

The day on which the above proclamation appeared, the army under Marshal Ney quitted Lons-le-Saulnier, and on the 17th united themselves with the imperial troops at Auxerre.—From Auxerre, Napoleon advanced to Fontainebleau, and on the morning of the 20th he reviewed a regiment of lancers, in that court-yard in which, eleven months before, he had bid adieu to his army and to France. At seven o'clock, intelligence arrived that the king had left Paris at one o'clock in the morning of that day, and at mid-day his successor quitted Fontainebleau, with the determination to occupy the vacant throne. In addition to the troops of Elba, Grenoble, Lyons, and Lons-le-Saulnier, Napoleon's force had been swelled by a large body of officers of every rank, who since his entry into Grenoble, had from all quarters joined the old guard, and formed themselves into “a sacred battalion.” The decisive moment was now approaching, and on the side of the Bourbons the rencontre was expected on the declining plains of Melun, where the national guard of one hundred thousand men under the Duc de Berri, with Marshal Macdonald as his lieutenant, were drawn up *en etages*, in three lines: the intervals and the flanks armed with batteries, and the centre occupying the road to Paris. An awful silence, broken only at intervals by peals of martial music, intended to confirm the loyalty of the royal troops, by repeating the airs, “*Henri Quatre*,” and “*La Belle Gabrielle*,” or by the voice of the commanders, and the march of the divisions to their appointed ground, pervaded the king's army. All was anxious expectation. On the side of Fontainebleau, no sound as of an army rushing to battle was heard. If the enemy advanced, he evidently moved in silence, and the hope began to prevail, that his courage had failed him, and that he had retreated during the night. At length, a light trampling of horses became audible. An open carriage, attended by a few husars and dragoons, appeared on the skirts of the forest of Fontainebleau; it drove down the hill with the rapidity of lightning, and reached the advanced posts before the surprise occasioned by its appearance had subsided.—“*Vive l'Empereur!*”

burst from the astonished soldiery—"Napoleon—*Napoleon le grand!*" spread from rank to rank; for, bareheaded, Bertrand seated at his right and Drouet at his left, Napoleon continued his course, and passing through the opening ranks of the royal army, reached Paris at nine o'clock at night, and reascended the throne of the French empire.

"The journey of Bonaparte," it has been well observed, "from Cannes to Paris, is without parallel in history, and much beyond the limits of probable fiction. Every soldier sent against him joined his force. Where resistance seemed for a moment to be threatened, it was disarmed by the sound of his voice. The ascendant of a victorious leader over soldiers; the talent of moving armed multitudes by a word; the inextinguishable attachment of an army to him in whom glory is concentrated and embodied; were never before so brilliantly and tremendously exemplified. Civilized society was never before so terribly warned of the force of those military virtues, which are the greatest of civil vices. In twenty days he found himself quietly seated on the throne of France, without having spilled a drop of blood. The change had no resemblance to a revolution in a European country, where great bodies of men are interested in the preservation of authority, and where every body takes some interest for or against political mutation. It had nothing of the violence of popular revolt. It was a bloodless and orderly military sedition. In the levity with which authority was transferred, it bore some resemblance to an oriental revolution; but the total absence of those great characteristic features, the murder or imprisonment of princes, destroys the likeness. It is, in short, an event of which the scene could have been laid, by a romance writer bold enough to have imagined it, in no other time and country than France in the year 1815."*

Before the departure of the king, he issued a proclamation, declaring, that since, from the defection of part of the army, he could not defend his capital, he would proceed to some distance to collect forces, and would soon return into the midst of his people, to whom he would once more bring peace and happiness.† Of all the armies

of France, the household troops alone, amounting to about two hundred in number, accompanied their fugitive sovereign. Along the whole line of his retreat, which was directed first to Abbeville, and afterwards to Lisle, he was attended by the sympathies of the people, but in none of the numerous places on his route were the feelings in his favour sufficiently ardent to arouse his subjects to arms. At Ghent, to which he finally retired, he was almost daily joined by officers from France, and numbers of the most distinguished emigrants evinced their unalterable attachment, by again identifying their fate with their sovereign's. The Duchess d'Angouleme was at Bordeaux, where the same interest which had led to the surrender of that city twelve months before, warmly espoused the royal cause, and prepared for a vigorous resistance; but on the approach of General Clausel, a division arose among the inhabitants; and after some bloodshed, the duchess, who had displayed the character of a heroine, was obliged to quit the country, and on the 1st of April, she embarked on board an English frigate for Spain. The duke, her husband, less fortunate, had collected a body of partizans, and held possession for several days of Montpellier and Nismes; but on the 11th of April he was surrounded by the impe-

armed force who had sworn to defend it. We might avail ourselves of the faithful and patriotic dispositions of the immense majority of the inhabitants of Paris, to dispute the entrance into it of the rebels: but we shudder at the calamities of every description which a combat within its walls would bring upon the inhabitants.

"We retire with a few brave men, whom intrigue and perfidy will not succeed in detaching from their duties: and since we cannot defend our capital, we will proceed to some distance, to collect forces, and to seek at another point of the kingdom, not for subjects more loving and faithful than our good Parisians, but for Frenchmen more advantageously situated to declare themselves for the good cause.

"The existing crisis will subside into a calm. We have the soothing presentiment, that those misled soldiers, whose defection exposes our subjects to so many dangers, will soon discover their error, and will find, in our indulgence, and in our affection, the recompense of their return to their duty.

"We will soon return into the midst of this good people, to whom we shall once more bring peace and happiness.

[Then follows an ordinance, declaring the session of the chamber of peers and the chamber of deputies at an end, and convoking a new session to meet at the soonest possible period, in the place which the king shall point out as the provisional seat of his government.]

"Given at Paris the 19th of March, in the year of our Lord, 1815, and the 20th of our reign.

"By the King. (Signed) Louis.

"The Chancellor of France. (Countersigned) D'AMBRAY."

* Edinburgh Review.

† PROCLAMATION.

• Louis, by the grace of God, King of France and Navarre, to our trusty and well-beloved the peers of France, and the deputies of departments:—

"Divine Providence, who recalled us to the throne of our fathers, now permits that the throne should be shaken by the defection of a part of the

rial troops under General Gilly, and obliged to capitulate, on condition that the lives and property of his followers should be secured, and that safe convoy should be afforded him to Cette, whence he was to be left at liberty to embark either for England or Spain. General Grouchy, the military commander in Dauphiny, conceiving that General Gilly had exceeded his powers, declined to ratify this convention, till instructions were received from Paris; but on the following day a letter was despatched by the emperor, directing that the Duke of Angouleme should be conducted in safety to Cette, where he was embarked, having previously engaged to obtain the restitution of the crown diamonds, which had been conveyed from Paris, under the authority of a process verbal.*

In the west, the Duke of Bourbon, the most popular of all the French princes, with the exception of the Duke of Orleans, endeavoured to rouse the dormant spirit of the friends of loyalty in La Vendee, and vast numbers of the inhabitants ranged themselves under the royal banners; but it was discovered, in sufficient time to prevent the effusion of blood, that it was in vain to oppose these raw and undisciplined levies against the veteran troops of France; and the duke, consenting to accept safe conduct for himself and forty of his officers, proceeded to Nantes, whence he embarked for England.

After four months of deliberation, the representatives of the European powers assembled at Vienna had closed their sittings; and the sovereigns had announced their intended departure for their respective capitals, when the intelligence of the landing of Napoleon at Frejus renewed, rather than dissolved, the congress. The departure of the exile from Elba was known at Vienna on the 7th of March, but it was not till after four days of suspense and anxiety that his ultimate destination was ascertained. In this emergency, the congress was again assembled; and on the 13th of March, a declaration was published by that august body, by which it was declared, that "Napoleon Bonaparte," by thus breaking the convention which had established him in the island of Elba, had placed himself without the pale of civil and social relations, and had rendered himself liable to public vengeance as an enemy and disturber of the tranquillity of the world. It was further

declared, that the powers who had signed the treaty of Paris of the 30th of March, 1814, were resolved to maintain entire the dispositions sanctioned by that treaty, and that they would employ all their means, and unite all their efforts, to preserve the peace so happily concluded, and to provide against every attempt which should threaten to replunge the world into the disorders and miseries of revolutions.*

* DECLARATION.

"The powers who have signed the treaty of Paris, assembled at the congress of Vienna, being informed of the escape of Napoleon Bonaparte, and of his entrance into France with an armed force, owe it to their own dignity, and the interest of social order, to make a solemn declaration of the sentiments which this event has excited in them.

"By thus breaking the convention which had established him in the island of Elba, Bonaparte destroys the only legal title on which his existence depended; and, by appearing again in France, with projects of confusion and disorder, he has deprived himself of the protection of the law, and has manifested to the universe that there can be neither peace nor truce with him.

"The powers consequently declare, That Napoleon Bonaparte has placed himself without the pale of civil and social relations; and that, as an enemy and disturber of the tranquillity of the world, he has rendered himself liable to public vengeance.

"They declare at the same time, that, firmly resolved to maintain entire the treaty of Paris of the 30th of May, 1814, and the dispositions sanctioned by that treaty, and those which they have resolved on, or shall hereafter resolve on, to complete and to consolidate it, they will employ all their means and will unite all their efforts, that the general peace, the object of the wishes of Europe, and the constant purpose of their labours, may not again be troubled; and to provide against every attempt which shall threaten to replunge the world into the disorders and miseries of revolutions.

"And although entirely persuaded that all France, rallying round its legitimate sovereign, will immediately annihilate this last attempt of a criminal and impotent delirium, all the sovereigns of Europe, animated by the same sentiments, and guided by the same principles, declare, that if, contrary to all calculations, there should result from this event any real danger, they will be ready to give to the King of France, and to the French nation, or to any other government that shall be attacked, as soon as they shall be called upon, all the assistance requisite to restore public tranquillity, and to make a common cause against all those who should undertake to compromise it.

"The present declaration, inserted in the register of the congress assembled at Vienna on the 13th of March, 1815, shall be made public.

"Done and attested by the plenipotentiaries of the high powers who signed the treaty of Paris, Vienna, March 13, 1815."

Here follow the signatures in the alphabetical order of the courts:—

Austria	Prince Metternich
	Baron Wessenberg
France	Prince Talleyrand
	The Duke of Dalberg
	Latour du Pin

* The estimated amount of the crown jewels, was 13,834,046 francs; the regent diamond, alone valued at six millions, was among the missing property, none of which were returned to the Master of the Tuileries till the second restoration of the Bourbons.

The arrival of this declaration in Great Britain, produced a powerful sensation: on the one hand, it was hailed as a pledge and a most unequivocal avowal on the part of the allied powers of their determination to resist the re-establishment of Napoleon on the throne of France; and on the other, it was stigmatized as a document intemperate in its language, and calculated to sanction the horrible doctrine of assassination, disgracefully leaguering the stiletto of the bravo with the sword of the soldier.

In the British parliament, which was then assembled, the escape of Napoleon, and his arrival in Paris, was brought under discussion early in the month of April; and the conduct of ministers was severely censured; first, for having placed him in so insecure a situation as the island of Elba; and secondly, for having shown a reprehensible negligence in suffering him to escape, and replunge the nations of Europe into that war with which they were again menaced. The favourable terms granted to Napoleon by the treaty of Fontainebleau were justified by ministers on the ground, that at the period when that treaty was concluded, Napoleon was not in so hopeless a situation as had been represented in this country. He was returning towards Paris with the mass of his army when that capital surrendered, and was still at the head of a considerable number of troops prepared to act warmly in his support; and in fact, that the spirit and temper of the whole French army were such, that the allies could not, without the risk of a civil war, resist the claims put forth in favour of the deposed sovereign. With respect to the situation of Elba, the arrangements having been made before Lord Castlereagh, the British minister, arrived in France, he had no option. It was also stated, that by the treaty of Fontainebleau, the sovereign of Elba was considered independent, and if he thought proper to quit the island, the allies possessed no right to seize or arrest him, and had the whole British navy been present when he sailed, they could not have detained him without a violation of the

treaty.* The next point at issue regarded the policy or necessity of going to war for the purpose of again expelling Napoleon from the throne of France. On the one side, the present elevation of the emperor was considered as the act only of the military, not of the people, of France. The justice of the war against Bonaparte arose from his resumption of the French government in direct violation of a solemn treaty. He had returned to France when the allies were united in inclination and in means, and it was therefore wise to make an immediate effort to crush the mischief at once, and not to afford him time to reorganize his army and establish his former power. The alternative of war or a feverish state of peace, alone existed—a peace with a war establishment. Economy ought certainly to be considered in the present state of our finances, but as peace, with a peace establishment, was entirely out of the question, economy itself would prescribe the policy to seize the present moment, and, by striking a prompt and effectual blow, to bring the contest to a speedy conclusion. The war was entered upon from no motive of ambition, but solely for the general security of Europe. No wish existed to injure France, or to dictate a government to that nation. The re-establishment of the Bourbons was certainly an object every way desirable, but every nation had a right to choose its own government, and no foreign power ought to interfere with such a choice. The nations of Europe could say to France, not what government she should have, but what government she should not have. This distinction was clear and evident, and the right was manifest, as the conditions of peace had been more favourable on account of the establishment of a government whose character and good faith enabled Europe to look for repose.† No man could confide in the security of a peace made with Bonaparte. What country, during the last ten or twelve years, had sought peace or safety by treaty with him, that had not found itself visited by the highest aggravations of the very evils it had attempted to ward off? Even the very act which occasioned the present crisis, was one of the strongest examples of his faithlessness and ambition which his life had afforded, and neither age nor adversity seemed able to cure in him these vices. Louis was the victim of peace; the sacrifice of his good faith. It was because he was the friend of peace, that a soldier accustomed to rapine, and

* Speech of Lord Castlereagh in the house of commons, April 7, 1815.

† Lord Liverpool.

Great Britain, Wellington
Clancarty
Cathcart
Stewart

Portugal.....Count Pamella Saldonha Lobe

Prussia.....Prince Hardenberg
Baron Humboldt

Russia.....Count Rasumowsky
Count Staeckelberg
Count Nesselrode

Spain.....P. Gomez Labrador

Sweden.....Laemenhelm.

raised by their former chief to principalities and powers, carved out of the just rights of the people, were discontented, and desired no monarch but a general prepared to renew the work of spoliation.* Bonaparte was not the object of the choice of the French people; he only pretended to give them liberty to answer his own selfish purposes; no treaty would bind him; under him, all France was corrupted; and it was impossible to confirm in the heart of Europe a military domination, founded on a triumph over civil rights, without endangering the liberties of the world. To sanction a system founded on the violation of oaths, and the dethroning of sovereigns, would be a degradation to the honour of England; it would lower us in the estimation of surrounding nations; and when we ceased to be the first, we must be the last; when we descended from our exalted rank, we must become nothing.†

It was on the other hand contended, that the personal character of a sovereign was no just ground for war. The mere existence of an ambitious and warlike prince might suggest precautionary measures, but could not justify actual hostilities. Allowing that no change was to be looked for from the disposition of Bonaparte, was none to be expected from his policy! He was charged with the breach of the treaty of Fontainebleau, but had the allies themselves fulfilled their engagements towards him and towards his family? He was represented as not being supported by the people of France, yet had he made his way from the coast to the capital, a distance of upwards of five hundred miles, without a single arm being lifted against him. Was it not plain that he was the ruler of the French people's choice? Who ever heard of a single man invading a nation of thirty millions of people, and gaining the sovereignty of that nation against its will. There was not a man in France who did not see a new order of things arising under the Bourbons, and who did not fear that under their rule property was insecure.‡ The Marquis de Chabanes himself admitted, that only the clergy, the old nobility, and the emigrants were for Louis—the military, and that vast body of men, the possessors of national property, being inimical to him. It had been observed, that one half of the national debt of England had been incurred by curbing the ambition of the Bourbons, and the other half, by attempts to restore that family; and that debt, enormous as it is, must be still further increased to re-esta-

blish a race in whose behalf the people of France had shown themselves disinclined to shed a single drop of their blood. Defence was the system for England to pursue, and not offence. The power of France was already sufficiently curtailed. Her limits were fixed. If she stepped beyond those limits, she became the aggressor, and then, and not till then, could she be said to have forfeited her claim to peace.* It was the duty of this country to maintain the equilibrium of Europe; but it was not less her duty to protest against the principles of a war commenced upon the grounds of dictating to France who should be her ruler, as unjust, fraught with danger, and admitting of no alternative, but the utter destruction of Napoleon's power, or a humiliating abandonment of the objects of the war.†

In both houses of parliament, the decision was in favour of the prince-regent's message,‡ which gave rise to these debates: in the lords, the majority was one hundred and fifty-six to forty-four; and in the commons, three hundred and thirty-one to ninety-two.

When the subject of the ways and means by which the war was to be supported came under discussion, the house was informed, that the property tax, so recently repealed, must be renewed; and that in consequence of the stipulations of the treaties referred to in the message, pecuniary aid to the amount of five millions was to be advanced by this country, by way of subsidy to the three great powers, for the present year. By these treaties, Austria, Russia, and Prussia, were bound each to bring into the field 150,000 men, and England was to furnish a force of the same extent, or failing to do this, she was to make up her contingent in money, at the rate of twenty pounds per man for infantry, and

* Mr. Whitbread.

† Earl Grey.

‡ MESSAGE FROM THE PRINCE-REGENT.

Presented to Parliament, May 23, 1815.

“G. P. R.

“The prince-regent, acting in the name and on the behalf of his majesty, thinks it right to inform the houses of parliament, that in consequence of the events which have recently occurred in France, in direct contravention of the treaties signed at Paris in the course of last year, his royal highness has thought it necessary, in concert with his majesty's allies, to enter into such engagements against the common enemy, as may prevent the recurrence of a system which experience has shown to be incompatible with the peace and security of Europe. His royal highness has ordered copies of the treaties concluded with the allies to be laid before the house for its information; and he confidently relies on the support of his faithful commons, to enable him to fulfil the stipulations therein contracted, and to take such steps in conjunction with his allies, as may be indispensably necessary at this important crisis.”

* Lord Grenville.

† Mr. Grattan.

‡ Sir Francis Burdett.

thirty for cavalry. The allies, however, would not confine themselves to bringing into the field the mere number specified. Austria, exclusive of a force of one hundred and fifty thousand men employed in Italy, had armies to the same extent on the Upper Rhine, about to act against France. The Emperor of Russia had put in motion an army of two hundred and twenty-five thousand men, under Marshal Barclay de Tolly, which was now marching for the Rhine; and he had signified to the prince-regent that an additional force of one hundred and fifty thousand men, under General Wittgenstien, was assembled, and would forthwith march against France. Prussia, instead of the contingent she was bound to furnish by the treaty, had put in motion two hundred and thirty-six thousand men. The forces to be furnished by Bavaria, Wirtemberg, Baden, Saxony, Hanover, the Hanse Towns, and the smaller states of the Rhine, amounted to about one hundred and fifty thousand more; and to these were to be added the English army, under the Duke of Wellington, and the army of the King of the Netherlands, each fifty thousand. The result was, that not less than eleven hundred thousand men were now advancing to the frontiers of France. It was proposed to assist the minor states of Germany, by distributing among them that sum which would be due from England to complete her contingent; and thus supposing she could not augment her army above fifty thousand, which it was assumed would be the extent of her co-operation in men in the present campaign, the difference to be paid in aid of the exertions of Bavaria, Wirtemberg, and the other places, would be 2,500,000*l*.*

The treaty of the 25th of March, referred to by Lord Castlereagh, formed the recognised bond of union, by which the allied powers solemnly engaged to unite the resources of their respective states for the purpose of maintaining entire the conditions of the treaty of Paris, and the stipulations entered into conformable to the provisions of that treaty by the congress assembled at Vienna; to preserve them against all infringement, and particularly against the designs of Napoleon Bonaparte. For this purpose, they engaged, in the spirit of the declaration of the 13th of March, to direct in common, and with one accord, should the case require it, all their efforts against him, and against all who should already have joined his faction, or should hereafter join it, in order to force him to desist from his projects, and to render him unable to disturb the future tranquillity of Europe.

* Lord Castlereagh.

This treaty, which was executed at Vienna, on the 25th of March, by the plenipotentiaries of Austria, Russia, and Prussia, and by the Duke of Wellington on behalf of the British government, was transmitted to England without delay, and on the 8th of April received the ratification of the prince-regent, acting in the name and on behalf of his majesty; subject, however, to an explanatory declaration made by his royal highness, that his Britannic majesty was not to be understood as binding himself to prosecute the war, with a view to imposing upon France any particular government. In this explanation, the allied powers assembled at Vienna fully acquiesced, and Lord Clancarty, the British ambassador at that court, was commissioned to state to his government, "that however general the feelings of the allied sovereigns might be in favour of the restoration of the king, they had no desire to interfere with any legitimate right of the French people, nor should they seek to influence their proceedings in the choice of the Bourbons, or any other dynasty or form of government, more than might be essential to the safety and permanent tranquillity of the rest of Europe."

Napoleon, well aware of the approaching storm, sought to diminish its violence by pacific overtures, and one of his first acts on ascending the throne of France was to address a letter,* in his own handwriting, to the sovereigns of Europe, announce-

* LETTER OF NAPOLEON TO THE SOVEREIGNS OF EUROPE, ANNOUNCING HIS RESTORATION.

"Monsieur mon frère, vous aurez appris, dans le cours du mois dernier, mon retour sur les côtes de France, mon entrée à Paris, et le départ de la famille des Bourbons. La véritable nature de ces événements doit maintenant être connue de votre majesté. Ils sont l'ouvrage d'une irrésistible puissance, l'ouvrage de la volonté unanime d'une grande nation qui connaît ses devoirs et ses droits. La dynastie, que la force avait rendue au peuple Français, n'était plus faite pour lui: les Bourbons n'ont voulu s'associer ni à ses sentimens ni à ses mœurs; la France a dû se séparer d'eux. Sa voix appelait un libérateur: l'attente qui m'avait décidé au plus grand des sacrifices avait été trompée. Je suis venu, et du point où j'ai touché le rivage, l'amour de mes peuples m'a porté jusqu'au sein de ma capitale. Le premier besoin de mon cœur est de payer tant d'affection par le maintien d'une honorable tranquillité. Le rétablissement du trône impérial était nécessaire au bonheur des Français. Ma plus douce pensée est de le rendre en même temps utile à l'affermissement du repos de l'Europe. Assez de gloire a illustré tour-à-tour les drapeaux des diverses nations: les vicissitudes du sort ont assez fait succéder de grands revers à de grands succès. Une plus belle arène est aujourd'hui ouverte aux souverains, et je suis le premier à y descendre. Après avoir présenté au monde le spectacle de grands combats, il sera plus doux de ne connaître désormais d'autre rivalité que celle des avantages de la paix, d'autre lutte que la lutte sainte de la félicité des peuples. La France se plaît à proclamer avec franchise ce noble but de tous ses vœux. Jalouse de son indépendance, le principe invariable de sa politique sera le respect le plus absolu pour l'indépendance des autres nations; si tels sont, comme j'en ai l'heureuse confiance, les sentimens personnels de votre majesté, le calme général est assuré pour long-temps; et la jus-

ing his restoration to the imperial throne, and expressing his sincere desire to render that event subservient to the maintenance of the repose of the world.

The couriers charged with this document were not permitted to proceed to many of the courts, and returned to France with their despatches unopened. The English government, less repulsive, referred the overtures to the congress of Vienna; and the Emperor of Austria caused the letter transmitted to him to be opened in a full assembly of the congress. But the unanimous resolution was to leave this letter of Napoleon unnoticed and unanswered; and he, before whom princes had been accustomed to humble themselves, was not now

thought entitled to the common courtesy of civilized society.

The letter of Napoleon was speedily followed by a justificatory manifesto, put forth by the presidents of the council of state, and meant to repel the charges contained in the declaration of the allies, issued from Vienna on the 13th of March. The annals of diplomacy, it is said, has no parallel to this declaration, in which ministers, clothed in the most sacred public characters, recommend the assassination of the Emperor Napoleon. By the law of nations, a prince possessing the most inconsiderable territory or population, it is added, is entitled to the same respect as the strongest; and Napoleon, acknowledged as emperor and sovereign prince by all the powers, was no more than themselves under the jurisdiction of the congress of Vienna. As to the treaty of Fontainebleau, its violation is laid to the charge of those who impute that offence to Napoleon; and the emperor, his family, and the French nation, claim the right to urge the infraction of this treaty against the allied sovereigns, and the house of Bourbon. The instances of its violation are thus enumerated:—

1. The Empress Maria Louisa and her son were to obtain passports and an escort, to repair to the emperor; but contrary to the engagements of the allies, the husband and wife, father and son, were separated under painful circumstances; when the firmest mind has occasion to seek consolation and support in domestic affections.

2. The security of Napoleon, and of his imperial family, and their suite, was guaranteed (article 14 of the treaty) by all the powers; yet bands of assassins were organized in France under the eyes of the French government, and even by its orders, (as will soon be proved by the solemn proceedings against the *Sieur Demontbreuil*), for attacking the emperor, his brothers, and their wives. In default of the success hoped for from this branch of the plot, an insurrection was prepared at Orgon, on the emperor's route, in order that an attempt might be made on his life by some brigands. The *Sieur Brulart*, an associate of Georges, had been sent as governor to Corsica, in order to prepare and make sure of the crime; and, in fact, several detached assassins have attempted, in the isle of Elbe, to gain, by the murder of the emperor, the base reward which was promised them.

3. The duchies of Parma and Placentia were given in full property to Maria Louisa, for herself, her son, and her descendants. After a long refusal to put her in possession, the injustice was completed by an absolute spoliation, under the illusory pretext of an exchange, without valuation, proportion, or sovereignty, and without her consent. And the documents in the office for foreign affairs prove that it was on the solicitations, and by the intrigues of the Prince of Benevento, that Maria Louisa and her son were despoiled.

4. Eugene, the adopted son of Napoleon, was to have obtained a suitable establishment out of France, but he has had nothing.

tice, assise aux confins des divers états, suffira seule pour en garder les frontières.

"Je saisis avec empressement, &c. &c. &c."

(Signé)

"NAPOLÉON."

"Paris le 4 Avril, 1815."

TRANSLATION.

"Sire, my Brother,—You will have learnt, during the last month, my return to the court of France, my entrance into Paris, and the departure of the family of the Bourbons. The true nature of these events must now be made known to your majesty. They are the work of an irresistible power, the work of the unanimous will of a great nation who knows her duties and her rights. The dynasty which force had given to the French people, was no longer suited to them. The Bourbons would neither associate themselves to their sentiments nor their manners. It became the duty of France to separate herself from them. Her voice called for a deliverer. The expectation which had determined me to make the greatest sacrifices had been deceived. I am come, and from the point where I touched the shore, the love of my people conveyed me to the bosom of my capital. The first wish of my heart is to repay such affection by the maintenance of an honourable tranquillity. The restoration of the imperial throne was necessary to the happiness of the French. My sweetest thought is to render it at the same time useful to the consolidation of the repose of Europe. Glory enough has rendered by turns the standards of the different nations illustrious. The vicissitudes of fate have caused great success to be followed by great reverses. A finer arena is now opened to kings—and I am the first to descend into it. After having presented to the world the spectacle of great battles, it will be happier to know in future no other rivalry than that of the advantages of peace, no other contest than the sacred contest of the happiness of mankind. France rejoices in candidly proclaiming this noble end of all her wishes. Jealous of her independence, the invincible principle of her policy shall be the most absolute respect for the independence of other nations.

"If such are, as I have the pleasure to believe, the personal sentiments of your majesty, the general tranquillity is secured for a long season, and justice, seated on the confines of the different states, will be alone sufficient to guard their frontiers.

"I seize with eagerness, &c. &c. &c."

(Signed)

"NAPOLÉON."

"Paris, April 4, 1815."

5. The emperor had stipulated for the army the preservation of their rewards given them on Monte Napoleon. He had reserved to himself the power to recompense his faithful followers. Every thing has been taken away, and abused by the ministers of the Bourbons. M. Bresson, an agent from the army, was despatched to Vienna to assert their claims, but in vain.

6. The preservation of the property, moveable and immoveable, belonging to the emperor's family, was provided for, but all was robbed—in France by commissioned brigands, in Italy by the violence of the military chiefs.

7. Napoleon was to have received two millions, and his family two millions five hundred thousand francs per annum. The French government has constantly refused to discharge its engagements, and Napoleon would have soon been obliged to disband his faithful guards for want of the means of paying them, had he not found an honourable resource in the conduct of some bankers and merchants of Genoa and Italy, who advanced twelve millions which they had offered to him.

8. In fine, it was not without a cause that it was desirable by every means to remove from Napoleon the companions of his glory, the unshaken sureties of his safety and of his existence. The island of Elba was assured to him in full sovereignty, but the resolution of robbing him of it was, at the instigation of the Bourbons, fixed upon by the congress. Had not Providence prevented it, Europe would have seen an attempt made on the person and liberty of Napoleon, left hereafter at the mercy of his enemies, and transported, far from his friends and followers, either to St. Lucie, or St. Helena, which had been pointed out as his prison.

And when the allied powers, yielding to the imprudent wishes and the cruel instigations of the house of Bourbon, condescended to violate the solemn contract, on the faith of which Napoleon liberated the French nation from its oaths: when he himself, and all the members of his family, saw themselves menaced, attacked in their persons, in their properties, in their affections, in all the rights stipulated in their favour as princes, in those even secured by the laws to private citizens,—what was Napoleon to do?

Was he, after enduring so many injuries, supporting so many acts of injustice, to consent to the complete violation of the engagements entered into with him, and, resigning himself personally to the fate prepared for him, to abandon also his spouse, his son, his family, and his faithful servants, to their frightful destiny?

Such a resolution seems beyond the endurance of human nature; and yet Napoleon would have embraced it, if the peace and happiness of France had been the price of this new sacrifice. He would have devoted himself for the French people, from whom, as he will declare in the face of Europe, it is his glory to hold every thing; whose good shall be the object of all his endeavours, and to whom alone he will be answerable for his actions, and devote his life.*

It is much to be regretted, that this report contains so much truth. In several of the articles above enumerated, both the spirit and the letter of the treaty of Fontainebleau had been violated by the King of France and the allied sovereigns. The empress had been forcibly separated from

her husband; she had been deprived of the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla; the property of Napoleon and his family in France had been sequestered; the instalments of the stipulated pension had been withheld from him; and there is too much reason to suppose, though no public evidence exists of the fact, that it was in the contemplation of the congress to remove him from Elba, and consign him for life to that station, which ultimately awaited the hero and the victim of the French revolution.

The co-operation of Louis XVIII. in the efforts made by the allied powers to expel Napoleon from the throne, was confined principally to proclamations and ordinances, issued from his court at Ghent, to which place, not only several of the king's ministers, but also Marshal the Duke of Ragusa, and Marshal the Duke of Belluno, had repaired. Marshal Berthier, the Prince of Neufchatel and Wagram, had followed the fortune of the Bourbons; but the conflict of feeling, arising out of his attachment to his former master, and his sense of loyalty towards his present sovereign, had subdued his once vigorous mind, and on the 1st of June, he threw himself from a window of the palace, in the city of Bamberg, and was killed by the fall.*

The only hope of security afforded to Napoleon, lay in rallying round him the various political parties into which France

* MARSHAL ALEXANDER BERTHIER was long considered as the chief adviser and the bosom friend of Bonaparte. His family was respectable, being son of the governor of the war office, and he associated with his father in that employment before the revolution. At an early age, he was placed upon the staff of the French army, and served in this capacity in America with La Fayette, where he obtained the rank of colonel. In the first year of the French revolutionary war, he was appointed major-general of the national guard at Versailles, and served in succession in France, in Italy, and in Egypt, where he was distinguished alike for his valour and his moderation. During the consular government, he was appointed successor to Carnot in the war department; and on the elevation of Napoleon to the imperial purple, he was appointed marshal of the empire, great huntsman of France, and chief of the first cohorts of the legion of honour. Up to the date of the treaty of Paris he remained firmly attached to his imperial master and friend, and sent in his adhesion to the king, only when the standard of Napoleon no longer waved in France. On the day of his death, he had dined with his father-in-law, the King of Bavaria, when he had been complimented by the Russian general, Baron Sacken, on being among the few who had remained faithful to their sovereign, Louis XVIII. This remark was observed greatly to disconcert Berthier, who retired shortly after dinner to a room occupied by his children, in the third story from the ground, where, having dismissed the nurse, he precipitated himself from the window and met his fate.

* Report of the presidents of the council of state, dated Paris, April 15, 1815.

was divided; and for this purpose, his first care was to recognise the sovereignty of the people as the only source of legitimate power, and to select, as his confidential ministers, a number of the heads of the constitutional and republican party, who, having abandoned their Utopian notions of liberty, had become friendly to a limited monarchy. On the morning succeeding his arrival at Paris, the official organ of the new government announced the appointment of his serene highness, the prince, arch-chancellor of the empire,* to the great seals; the Duke of Gaeta,† to the finance department; the Duke of Bassano,‡ to the office of secretary of state; the Duke of Decres, to the marine and colonies; the Duke of Otranto,§ to the police; Count Molien, to the treasury; Marshal, the Prince of Eckmuhl,§ to the war department; the Duke of Rovigo,¶ to the inspection of the *gendarmerie*; Count de Bondy, to the department of the Seine; and the chancellor of state, M. Real, to the prefecture of the police. On the following day, M. Carnot was declared a count of the empire, for his gallant defence of Antwerp, and was also named, by another decree, minister of the interior; and the Duke of Vicenza** was subsequently named to the department of foreign affairs.

The same day on which the appointment of the officers of the new government was announced, Napoleon made his first public appearance in the capital, and reviewed his troops. On this occasion, all the soldiers in Paris were ordered to assemble in the Place du Carousal, and the emperor, having passed through the ranks, and noticed every soldier whose person he recollected, formed them into a square, and thus addressed them:—

"Soldiers! I arrived in France with six hundred men, because I calculated upon the love of the people and on the remembrance of the veteran soldiers! I was not deceived in my expectation.—Soldiers! I thank you. Glory like that which we are about to acquire, is every thing to the people, and to you! My glory is, that I have known and valued you!—Soldiers! the throne of the Bourbons was illegitimate, because it was built by the hands of strangers; because it was proscribed by the vow of the nation, declared in all our national assemblies: because, in short, it offered a guarantee only to the interests of a few men, whose arrogant pretensions were opposed to our rights.—Soldiers! the imperial throne only can secure the rights of the people, and above all, the first of our interests—our glory.—Soldiers! we are now to march to hunt from our territories these princes, auxiliaries to strangers; the nation will not only second us in our protestations, but will follow our impulse. The French people and myself calculate upon you. We will not inter-

fere with the affairs of foreign nations, but we to those who shall interfere with ours."

General Cambronne, and the officers of the guard of the battalion of the Isle of Elba, now stepped forward with the ancient eagles of the guard, and the emperor in conclusion said:—

"Soldiers! these are the officers of the battalion that have accompanied me in my misfortunes. Every man is my friend. They are dear to my heart! Every time I beheld them, they brought before my eyes the different regiments of the army, for among these six hundred brave fellows, are men from every regiment. They have recalled to my memory those glorious days of which even the memory is so dear, for they are all covered with honourable scars gained in memorable battles. In loving them, it was you, soldiers! the whole French army, that I loved. They bring you back your eagles. Let them serve you as a rallying point. In giving them to the guards, I gave them to the whole army. Treason and unfortunate events had covered them with a melancholy veil, but thanks to the French people, and to you! they now reappear resplendent in all their glory. Swear that they shall always be present wherever the interests of the country shall require them, and that traitors, and those who would wish to invade our territory, shall never endure their sight."

"We swear it," exclaimed all the soldiers with enthusiasm.

Addresses, which as we have already observed, are always at the command of power, pressed in upon the emperor from the council of state, the municipality of Paris, and other public bodies. To an address from his ministers he replied:—

"The sentiments you express are my own. All for the nation—all for France; that is my motto. Myself and my family, whom that great people have raised to the throne of France, and whom they have maintained there, notwithstanding political storms and vicissitudes, desire, deserve, and claim no other."

To the council of state he said:—

"Princes are the first citizens of the state. Their authority is more or less extended, according to the interests of the nations which they govern. The sovereignty itself is only hereditary, because the welfare of the people requires it. Departing from this principle, I know no legitimacy. I have renounced the idea of the grand empire, of which, during fifteen years, I had but founded the basis. Henceforth, the happiness and the consolidation of the French empire shall occupy all my thoughts."

Yet this is the man, who, only fifteen months before, had proudly exclaimed to the legislative assembly, "I alone am the representative of the people. The throne is myself. France needs me more than I need France."* Had he learned wisdom in the school of adversity? Had he now become the patriotic prince, who recognises the rights of the nations, and wishes to reign only by them and for them; who regulates his pretensions and his projects

* Cambaceres.

† Fouché.

‡ Savary.

† Gaudin.

§ Davoust.

** Caulincourt.

‡ Marat.

* See vol. ii. book iv. p. 307.

by the interests of his people, and the honour of his neighbours? Carnot declares, that he believed, and that he still believes, that the emperor returned from exile with the unfeigned desire of preserving peace, and governing paternally.* Others, judging of the future by the past, considered him as a chameleon, who assumes the colour of the moment; a serpent, concealing under beautiful scales a deadly poison; a flatterer, who promised because he was feeble—but let success crown his enterprise, and he would again trample on the liberties of France, and again cover all Europe with mourning. Which party reasoned justly, must now remain for ever a matter of conjecture. Time itself, the great developer of truth, will probably never give to this question a satisfactory solution.

Advices arrived at Paris on the 25th of March, that, except in the north, where the presence of the family of the Count de Lille (Louis XVIII.) repressed the public spirit, the tricoloured flag was replaced in the majority of the departments. The Duke of Belluno, who was marching to Paris with the troops of the second military division, had been obliged to quit his command, the soldiers having unanimously declared for the emperor; the third and fourth military divisions had likewise sent in their addresses, which were delivered to Napoleon on the parade on the 24th. The Duke of Albufera, and General Gerard, had witnessed and assisted in the enthusiasm of Alsace, Franche Comte, and Burgundy, so early as the 23d. Normandy and Brittany had restored the national standard.† On the 17th of April, eight-and-twenty days after the arrival of Napoleon in Paris, the news of the whole French territory being restored to tranquillity, under the imperial government, was announced by a salute of artillery, fired at one o'clock from all the batteries in every part of the empire. Up to that day, addresses had continued to pour in from all parts of the country, both from the municipal and military bodies; and even Marshal Augereau, the Duke of Castiglione, once more proclaimed his repentance, and swore allegiance to a man, "who, after sacrificing millions of victims to his cruel ambition, had not the heart to die like a soldier."‡

Three days after his arrival in Paris, Napoleon abrogated the censorship of the press, and removed those restrictions, which, by a narrow policy, the Bourbons

had deemed necessary to the maintenance of the stability of their throne. Another of the early decrees of the French emperor, was the abolition of the slave-trade—a measure in which every benevolent mind must exult. A third decree alleviated the regulations relative to the *droits réunis*, which, next to the conscription, were justly ranked amongst the greatest grievances imposed upon the people by Napoleon's former government. A system of national education, recommended by Carnot, and grounded upon the principles of Mr. Lancaster and Dr. Bell, next obtained imperial patronage; and a decree for the establishment of an experimental school of primary education at Paris, so organized as to serve as a model, and to become a normal school to form primary teachers, was promulgated from the palace of the Tuileries. The ministers, co-operating with the head of the imperial government, seemed anxious to obliterate for ever, the remembrance of that reign of terror which Napoleon, in the plenitude of his power, had exercised over France. The Duke of Otranto, in a circular letter for the government of the conduct of the prefects, dated the 31st of March, warned them against the excessive exertion of their authority; against the renewal of the police of attack instead of the police of observation; against a minute officious curiosity, destructive of social enjoyment; and against every kind of conduct which might make the police appear the sword, instead of the torch of justice.

But the attention of the French government was soon withdrawn from the internal policy to the foreign relations of that country. It was the interest of all parties in France, except the royalists, in the first instance to misrepresent the intentions of the allies; and for this purpose, England was held out as favourable to the escape of Napoleon from Elba, and Austria as about to sanction his usurpation, by permitting the return of the Empress Maria Louisa and the King of Rome. In conformity with this plan, the declaration issued at Vienna on the 13th of March, was concealed as long as possible from the French people. At length, however, when all hopes of peace had vanished, it became necessary to rouse and prepare the nation for war: and this was to be effected by impressing them with a persuasion, that Bonaparte had returned from Elba quite a new man; that the love of conquest and of military glory were completely banished from his mind; and that the allies, while they professed to be about to make war only upon Napoleon personally, had for their object the dismemberment of France, or at least, that it was their inten-

* *Exposé de la Conduite Politique de M. le Lieutenant-general Carnot.*

† *Moniteur*, March 25, 1815.

‡ See the proclamation of Marshal Augereau to his army, dated Valence, April 16, 1814, vol. ii. p. 324.

tion to impose upon her a sovereign contrary to the wishes of her people.

To accomplish this purpose, every measure was adopted by the existing government that was likely to have a favourable effect on the French nation. About the middle of April, a long and elaborate report was laid before the emperor, regarding the foreign relations of France. This report opened by admitting the alarming fact, that a confederacy was forming against France by the great powers of Europe; that this coalition was unjust, the reporter inferred from a retrospect of the march from Cannes to Paris; which, as he contended, proved, in a manner the most conclusive, the dislike, or at least the indifference, of the French nation to the Bourbons, and their attachment to Napoleon, whom they had thus chosen as the sovereign of their free and unbiased choice. The Duke of Vicenza, by whom the report was drawn up, next adverted to the annunciation made by the emperor to the sovereigns of Europe, of his resumption of the sovereignty of France, which was accompanied by a circular from the minister for foreign affairs containing a distinct and unequivocal overture on the part of the new government, to maintain the relations of peace conformable to the treaty concluded at Paris on the 30th of May, 1814. But instead of receiving these advances in the spirit in which they were made, the monarchs of Europe, contrary to the laws and usages of nations, and as if by common consent, interdicted all communication with France, and shut up the access to amicable accommodation. The report next proceeds to enumerate those acts of foreign governments which indicate hostile intentions. The message of the prince-regent to the British parliament is considered of this description; and in referring to this message, and the ground upon which it would be necessary to go to war with France, Caulincourt observes, that in 1815, England and her princes have quite forgotten the events of 1688. "In Austria, Russia, Prussia, all parts of Germany, in Italy, and in short, everywhere, there is a general arming." Having thus dwelt upon the hostile aspect of all Europe, the foreign minister proceeds to declare, that it is against France that these armaments are directed, though the allies name Bonaparte as alone in the way of peace: it could not be against the emperor, because he had offered them peace on terms the most favourable; it must be against the French people, since they, by receiving Bonaparte with such general good-will and affection, had in fact identified themselves with him. "To fight," says the report, "in order to re-es-

tablish the Bourbons once more, would be to declare war on the whole French population. If the people of France are attached to them, why did they not rally round them when Napoleon landed? Why did they not stop his progress? Why do the Bourbons now seek troops from Spain, and England, and Germany, and not from France herself, if France wishes their return?" The report in conclusion states, that in circumstances so important as those in which France was then placed—anxious for peace—having done nothing to provoke or justify war—and yet threatened with the almost immediate invasion of the country, it became absolutely necessary to prepare for the worst, and to take those measures which the preservation of her rights, the safety of her territories, and the defence of her national honour, ought to dictate to the French nation.

The note of preparation now sounded through all the departments of France. A decree passed on the 28th of March, but which was not promulgated till the 9th of April, recalled to their standards all the officers and soldiers of the army; and the minister of war, in a tone of impassioned eloquence, summoned his companions in arms to rally round their standards; to present to their enemies a frontier of brass; and to defend their country against those who sought to "regulate their national colours, to impose upon them sovereigns, and to dictate constitutions."

On his first landing in France, Napoleon had pledged himself to give to the nation a constitution agreeable to their wishes, and favourable to their liberties. This pledge he now hastened to redeem; and a commission, of which Bishop Gregoire and Benjamin de Constant were members, was appointed to draw up this document. It had been justly objected to Louis, that he had *given* a constitution to the French, and not *accepted* it from them; and Napoleon, after having explicitly acknowledged, that to the people alone belonged the right of choosing their own charter, trod in the footsteps of the former government, and *gave* his subjects a constitution in his turn. The French nation had imagined, that the *Champ de Mai* would have been convoked for some other purpose than to examine a list of votes, and that the representatives of a great nation would there have exercised the privilege of discussing with the sovereign the rights and privileges, and securing the welfare, of their constituents. It was also expected, that Napoleon would have recognised his former abdication, and left the choice of the dynasty, as well as the form of the government, to the free-will of the people.

This would have been an easy and a safe compliment to the French. His re-election would have been secured, and the people would have been enthusiastically and inseparably attached to a man, who, by this solemn act, had become the sovereign of their choice. But, by the *Acte Additionnel aux Constitutions de l'Empire*, Napoleon seemed to consider his old system of despotism as again in activity; and passing over his own abdication, and the reign of Louis, as if they had never happened, he was again emperor by the grace of God, after the fashion of the monarch, whose nineteen years of reign, he had himself so fairly derided. The constitutionalists thought they saw in the renewal of these pretensions the grave of all their hopes, and "public expectation was deceived to such a degree, that a cry of indignation was heard from one end of France to the other."* Carnot, still willing to rely on the promises of Bonaparte, finds an apology for his conduct in the exigencies of his situation, and urges in his behalf, though these dictatorial steps were not what might have been expected, after what he had promised, yet that he was precipitated into them by the external dangers with which the country was menaced.†

The new constitution of France, called, by a strange anomaly, "An Additional Act to the Constitutions of the Empire," assumed the former constitutions as the basis of the present charter, while it revealed the principal acts of those tyrannical systems. The following preamble, introduced by the usual formula, "Napoleon, by the grace of God, and the constitutions, Emperor of France, to all who are and shall be, health," justly describes the character of this document:—

"Since we were first called, now fifteen years past, by the wishes of France, to the government of the state, we have endeavoured to improve, at various periods, the constitutional forms, according to the wants and desires of the nation, and profiting by the lessons of experience. The constitutions of the empire have thus been formed from a series of acts which have been clothed with the approbation of the people. We then had for our object to organize a grand federate European system, which we had adopted as being conformable to the spirit of the age, and favourable to the progress of civilization. In order to complete this, and to give it all the extent and stability of which it was susceptible, we had postponed the establishment of many internal institutions, more especially those which were destined to protect the liberty of citizens. Henceforward, our aim will only be to augment the prosperity of France by consolidating public liberty. From

this results the necessity of many important modifications in the constitutions, *senatus consulta*, and other acts which govern this empire. For these reasons, wishing on one side, to preserve of the past what is good and salutary, and on the other, to render the constitutions of our empire in every thing conformable to the national wishes and wants, as well as to the state of peace which we desire to maintain with Europe, we have resolved to refer to the people a series of propositions tending to modify and improve the constitutional acts, to surround the rights of citizens with all their safeguards, to give the representative system all its extension, to invest the intermediate corps with desirable importance and power; in short, to combine the highest point of political liberty, and of individual safety, with the strength and concentration necessary to cause foreign powers to respect the independence of the French people, and the dignity of our crown. Consequently, the following articles, forming a supplementary act to the constitutions of the empire, shall be submitted to the free and solemn acceptance of all the citizens throughout the whole of France."

The *acte additionnel* consists of five titles, and of sixty-seven articles, by the first of which it is provided, that the legislative power should be exercised by the emperor and two chambers; the first chamber, called the chamber of peers, is declared to be hereditary, the emperor to appoint its members, and the number to be unlimited. The second chamber, called the chamber of representatives, to be chosen by the people, and to consist of six hundred and twenty-nine members, indefinitely re-eligible; a new election to take place every five years; its members to receive for travelling expenses, and during the session, the pay decreed by the constituent assembly. The sittings to be public. The emperor's ministers to sit and debate, but to have no vote unless they are peers, or elected by the people. The emperor may prorogue, adjourn, or dissolve the chambers. The government to propose laws; the chambers may amend them.

Under the second title, which relates to electoral colleges, and the mode of election, few alterations are made in the original constitution, except that manufacturing and commercial industry and property have awarded to them special representatives.

The third title relates to taxation. The general direct tax, whether in land or moveables, is voted only for one year; indirect taxes may be voted for several. No tax can be levied, no loan made, nor any levy of men ordered for the army, but in virtue of a law. All propositions on these subjects must be made to the chamber of representatives.

The fourth title relates to ministers and their responsibility. Every act of government is to be countersigned by a minister. The ministers are made responsible for acts of government, as well as for the execution of the laws; every minister and every commandant of an armed force, by land or by sea, may be accused by the chamber of deputies, and tried by their peers, for having compromised the safety or honour of the nation.

Title five regards the judicial power. All judges receive their appointments from the emperor; but they are irremovable, and for life. The institution of juries is continued; the discussions on criminal trials are to be public; military offences alone are to be tried by military tribunals. The right of pardon is lodged in the crown.

The sixth and last title relates to the rights of citizens. Frenchmen are equal in the eyes of the

* Official note of the Duke of Otranto, presented to the ministers of the allied powers, August 8, 1815.

† *Exposé de la Conduite Politique de M. le Lieutenant-général Carnot.*

law, whether to contributions, to taxes, and public burdens, or for admission to civil and military employments. No one can be withdrawn from the judges appointed to him by law. No one can be prosecuted, arrested, detained, or exiled, but in cases provided by law, and according to the prescribed forms. Liberty of worship is guaranteed to all. All property, possessed or acquired in virtue of the laws, and all debts of the state, are inviolable. Every citizen has the right of printing and publishing his thoughts, on signing them with his own name, without any previous censorship, and subject only to legal responsibility, in a trial by jury, after the publication. The right of petitioning is secured to all the citizens of the state.

The first part of the 67th article was considered as retaliatory upon the declaration of the allies of the 13th of March, and breathes a vindictive spirit, unworthy of the constitution of which it forms a part. It is in these words:—"The French people moreover declare, that in the delegation which they have made and do make of their powers, it is not meant, and does not mean, to give a right to propose the reinstatement of the Bourbons, or any prince of that family, on the throne, even in case of the extinction of the imperial dynasty; or the right of re-establishing either the ancient feudal nobility, or the feudal and seigniorial rights or tithes, or any privileged or predominant religion; nor the power to alter the irrevocability of the sale of the national domains. All propositions on that subject are formally interdicted both to the government, the chambers, and the citizens."

This constitution, though formed by men of cool heads and rational and sober views of government, was by no means free from objections. The interdict against all propositions on the subject of the recall of the Bourbons, was absurd and nugatory; but, setting aside some minor objections, there was in this document much to approve. It was calculated to secure to the French as much freedom as they were capable of enjoying. It granted to the people liberty without licentiousness, and to the prince power without despotism.

The promulgation of the *acte additionnel* took place on the 23d of April, and every Frenchman of mature age was invited to inscribe his vote for or against it, in registers which were opened in every town and district of the empire. These votes were to be collected, and the grand result published at the *Champ de Mai*, which was appointed to be held on the 26th of May.

In the age of Charlemagne, a monarch whom Napoleon claimed as his prototype, and in the reigns of other early French sovereigns, assemblies of deputies from the people had taken place, sometimes once, and sometimes twice a year. The place near Paris, where these deputies assembled, still retained the name of the *Champ de Mars*, from the month in which the meetings generally took place, and, like the *Campus Martius* at Rome, had for ages been appropriated to the review of troops, and to horse and foot races on pub-

lic festivals. In the middle of the eighteenth century, Pepin transferred the general assemblies of the nation to the month of May, and after that period the scene of these assemblies was styled indifferently the *Champ de Mars* or the *Champ de Mars*. Splendid preparations were made for the approaching ceremony, but the slow arrival of the deputations from the electoral colleges, and other unforeseen circumstances, delayed the meeting till the 1st of June. No effort was spared to render the spectacles solemn and imposing; in the hyperbolic language of the official organ, "every thing that could interest and elevate the soul—the prayers of religion—the compact of a great people with their sovereign—France, represented by the selection of her citizens, agriculturalists, merchants, magistrates, and warriors, collected around the throne—an immense population covered the *Champ de Mars*, and joined in vows for the great object of that magnificent ceremony—all excited the most ardent enthusiasm of which the most memorable epochs have left us the recollection."

A throne was erected for the emperor in front of the military school, and in the centre of a vast pentagonal semicircular enclosure, two-thirds of which formed, on the right and left, grand amphitheatres, in which fifteen thousand persons were seated. The other third, in front of the throne, was open. An altar was erected in the middle, and beyond it, at a distance of two hundred yards, was placed another throne, which commanded the whole *Champ de Mars*. Eighty-seven banners, bearing the names of the departments of France, decorated the rotunda. The imperial eagles, surrounded with garlands, were planted in the vacant space, and the national colours mingled with the banners of the departments. At twelve o'clock, a discharge of cannon announced the departure of the emperor from the Tuileries; and shortly afterwards, the commandant of Paris, Count Hulin, and his staff, with the heralds at arms, approached, and passed down the line formed by the troops, which were drawn up on each side, along the whole length of the plain. The commandant was followed by fourteen state carriages, each drawn by six horses, the last of which contained the three imperial princes—Joseph, Jerome, and Lucien Bonaparte. The imperial carriage, drawn by eight horses, each led by a groom, and attended by two marshals of the empire on each side, then presented itself; and Napoleon was seen through the glass panels, in the full costume of his imperial office. At one o'clock, the emperor, amidst a mass of his nobles and princes, appeared at the apartments of

the military school, when the whole assembly arose with a shout, the artillery still thundering from the battery. All were uncovered, except Napoleon, who wore his Spanish black bonnet, shaded with plumes, looped with a large diamond in front; and his mantle of purple velvet embroidered with gold, and lined with ermine. The officers of the crown took their station in the rear, the ministers of state surrounded the emperor, and the generals were ranged on each side of the throne. The electors sat under the rotunda; the grand national authorities pressed to the tribunes in front, and three hundred thousand spectators occupied the other parts of the field, or surrounded the enclosure. The Archbishop of Tours, and the Cardinal Cambaceres, with four bishops and assistants, ascended the tribune of the altar, and celebrated mass. The central deputation from the electors of the empire, amounting to about five hundred, chosen by a selection from all the colleges, then advanced to the foot of the throne, and the advocate Dubouys d'Angers, the organ of the deputation, addressed the emperor in a speech expressive of the devotion of a "faithful, energetic, and generous nation to an heroic leader."

At the close of this speech, the arch-chancellor rose, and proclaimed by the herald-at-arms, in the name of the emperor, "that the additional act to the constitutions of the empire had been accepted by the French people."* A table was then placed in front of the throne, and at a quarter past two o'clock, the emperor gave to the additional act the sanction of his signature. Being again seated on the throne, he uncovered himself for a moment, and spoke as follows:—

"Gentlemen, electors of colleges, of departments and arrondissements!—

"Gentlemen, deputies from the army and navy to the *Champ de Mai*!—

"Emperor, consul, soldier! I hold every thing from the people. In prosperity, in adversity, in the field of battle, in council, on the throne, in exile, France has been the rule and constant object of my thoughts and actions. Like the King of Athens, I sacrificed myself for my people, in the hope of witnessing the realization of the promise given to guarantee to France her national integrity, her honours, and her rights.

"Indignant on beholding those sacred rights, acquired by twenty-five years of victory, slighted and lost for ever; the cry of insulted French honour, and the wishes of the nation, have brought

me back to that throne which is dear to me, because it is the *palladium* of the independence, of the honour, and the rights of the people. Frenchmen! in my progress amidst the public joy, through the different provinces of the empire to my capital, I had every reason to reckon upon a long peace. Nations are bound by the treaties concluded by their governments, whatever they may be. My thoughts were then wholly engaged with the means of founding our liberty on a constitution conformable to the wishes and the interests of the people. I convoked the *Champ de Mai*.

"I was soon apprized that the princes who have violated all principles, who have shocked the public opinion, and the dearest interests of so many nations, design to make war upon us. They meditate the increase of the kingdom of the Netherlands; they would give it for barriers all our northern frontier fortresses, and would make up the quarrels which still divide them, by sharing among themselves Lorraine and Alsace. It was necessary to prepare for war.

"However, before personally exposing myself to the risks of battles, my first care was to give without delay a constitution to the nation. The people have accepted the act which I presented to them. Frenchmen! when we shall have repelled these unjust aggressions, and Europe shall be convinced of what is due to the rights and independence of twenty-eight millions of Frenchmen, a solemn law, enacted according to the forms prescribed by the constitutional act, shall combine the different provisions of our constitutions that are now scattered.

"Frenchmen! you are about to return into your departments. Tell the citizens that circumstances are arduous!—that with union, energy, and perseverance, we shall come off victorious from this struggle of a great people against their oppressors; that future generations will severely scrutinize our conduct; and that a nation has lost all, when it has lost its independence. Tell them that the foreign kings whom I either raised to the throne, or who are indebted to me for the preservation of their crowns; who all, in the time of my prosperity, courted my alliance, and the protection of the French people; are now aiming their blows at my person. If I had not seen that it is against the country that they are really directed, I would place at their mercy this life, against which they manifested such animosity. But tell the citizens also, that while the French shall retain for me the sentiments of love of which they give me so many proofs, this rage of our enemies will be impotent.

"Frenchmen! my will is that of the people; my rights are their rights; my honour, my glory, my happiness, can never be distinct from the honour, the glory, and the happiness of France."

The prolonged cries of *Vive l'Empereur! Vive Marie Louise! Vive la Nation!* for some time interrupted the ceremony; but when the popular fervour had expended itself, the grand almoner approached the throne, and kneeling, presented the gospels to the emperor, who took the oath in the following terms:—"I swear to observe the constitutions of the empire, and to cause them to be observed." The arch-chancellor then advanced to the throne, and swore "obedience to the constitutions and to the emperor," and the words *Nous le jurons*—we swear it, were appointed to be

* The number of votes in favour of the constitution were 1,268,357; the negatives amounted to 4207; the army (for every armed citizen of France had the privilege of a vote) gave in 222,000 names for, and 320 against, the act; and the navy about 22,000 affirmatives, and 275 negatives; exclusive of eleven departments, and some of the regiments, which had not sent in their registers.

said by all the assembly; but not being perfect in their part, this portion of the ceremony was either wholly omitted, or at least only partially performed.

Te Deum was next sung, and the steps to the throne being cleared, the eagles from the wings, borne by the ministers of the interior, of war, and of the marine, pressed forward into the centre of the area, forming one long dazzling mass of gold, from the tribune of the altar to the foot of the throne. Napoleon, with an animation in his manner and countenance which gave to the ceremony of presentation of the eagles a superior interest to any other event of this national assembly, threw off his imperial mantle, and, leaping from the throne, advanced to meet his eagles. The waving sword and beating drum commanded silence, and taking the standards in his hand, he returned them to the three ministers, and thus addressed them:—

"Soldiers of the national guard of the empire—Soldiers of the land and sea forces, I intrust to you the imperial eagle of the national colours; you will swear to defend it at the expense of your blood against the enemies of the country and of the throne! You swear that it shall always be your rallying sign!—You swear it!"

The concluding sentence was delivered in a tone that pierced the immense assembly, and was answered by the exclamation of the troops—"We swear it."

"The drums beat, and shortly afterwards the emperor, still in his short crimson tunic, accompanied by all his marshals and dignitaries, and lost to the sight of the spectators," from one of whom we quote,* "in the blaze of uniforms, and eagles and banners, descended the steps, traversed the area, passed through the opening of the theatre by the altar, and crossing between files of soldiers, mounted the platform in the open plain. He seated himself on his throne, surrounded by his marshal and court, who occupied the steps on each of the four sides of the structure. The scene was more magnificent than any pen can describe. The monarch on this open throne, which seemed a glittering pyramid of eagles, and arms, and military, crowned by his own white plumes—an immense plain, as it were, of soldiers, flanked with multitudes so innumerable that the sloping banks on each side presented but one mass of heads—the man—the occasion—all conspired to surprise the mind into a most unqualified, unphilosophical admiration of the whole spectacle; which was not diminished when the bayonets, and cuirasses, and helmets, flashing to the extent of the

view, and the flags of the lancers fluttering, and the music bursting from the plain, announced that the whole scene was in motion." In the midst of all this splendour, the emperor, in his character of colonel of the national guards of Paris, and of the imperial guard, then proceeded to present the eagles to the presidents of the departments, and the six arrondissements, and to the chiefs of his guard. The national guards "swore never to suffer the capital to be again polluted by the presence of a foreign army;" and the imperial guard, "to exceed their former prowess, and to die rather than let foreigners dictate laws to their country." The whole army, amounting to fifty thousand, of which twenty-seven thousand were national guards, now filed before the throne, with their eagles, in admirable order; and at four o'clock the procession left the amphitheatre in nearly the same order in which it had arrived, passing between a line of spectators the whole length of the *Champ de Mars*. The departure, like the entry, was announced by the batteries of the military school, and the bridge of Jena.

Such was the *Champ de Mai*. As a spectacle, nothing could be more splendid and interesting; but as a national assembly, it is scarcely possible to imagine any thing more puerile. It was the assembly of the registration of votes, and of the presentation of colours; but it as little resembled the fields of March and May, at which assembled the warlike estates of Charlemagne and his successors, as it resembled the memorable federation of 1790, when the same plain was thronged by deputations from all parts of the kingdom, collected to celebrate and seal the triumph of the people.

On the day which intervened between the *fête* of the *Champ de Mai* and the meeting of the chambers, the peers, to the number of one hundred and sixteen, of whom nearly one half were general officers, were named by the emperor.

The chambers met on the 3d of June; the peers at the Luxembourg, and the deputies at the palace of the legislative body. M. Thibeaudeau, and M. Valence, were chosen secretaries of the chamber of peers, who, together with the President Cambaceres, and the Count Sieyes and Roderer, were named members of the commission for the internal regulation of the assembly. The representatives met at nine o'clock in the morning, and proceeded, by ballot, to the choice of the *bureau*, consisting of the president, the vice-presidents, and the secretaries. The decision of the chamber on this point was sufficiently indicative of its character; Lanjuinais, a

* Letters from an Englishman resident in Paris during the last reign of the Emperor Napoleon.

egulator, who voted against conferring the imperial title on Bonaparte, and who was one of the most active members of opposition in the late house of peers, was chosen president by a large majority. Flauguergues, an eloquent senator, celebrated for his boldness in the legislative assembly of 1813, was the second on the list; and La Fayette, who had resisted the earliest importunities of the emperor to accept the dignity of the peerage, held the next rank in the scale of suffrages. The preference given to Lanjuinais was grounded upon his known firmness and invincible integrity, which rendered him a faithful and fit channel of communication between the representatives of the people and the monarch. The same motives influenced the assembly in the selection of the four vice-presidents, of whom Flauguergues was first chosen, Dupont the second, La Fayette the third, and General Grenier the fourth; all of them men distinguished for their independence of either the court of Louis or Napoleon.

The interval between the 3d and the 7th of June, was occupied in those matters of form and arrangement essential to the proper regulation of popular assemblies. It soon became evident, that the representatives of France, freely chosen, were determined to submit to no dictator; and their watchful jealousy over the liberties of their country gave to the proceedings of the chambers a sternness of manner, and an impatience of control, which the deference due to the head of the state was scarcely sufficient to repress. Four days after the meeting of the chambers, the emperor proceeded in state to the hall of the representatives, when the members of the two chambers having taken the oath of obedience to the constitution, and fidelity to his majesty, the session was opened by the following speech from the throne:—

"Messieurs of the chamber of peers, and Messieurs of the chamber of representatives."

"For three months past, circumstances, and the confidence of the people, have invested me with unlimited power. At this moment, the most anxious wish of my heart is accomplished. I have commenced a constitutional monarchy. Men are too feeble to secure the future; legal institutions alone fix the destinies of nations. Monarchy is necessary to France, to guarantee the liberty, the independence, and the rights of the people. Our constitutions are scattered; one of our most important occupations will be to consolidate them into one body, and arrange them in one simple system. This labour will recommend the present epoch to the gratitude of future generations. I am anxious that France should enjoy all possible liberty; I say possible, because anarchy always resolves itself into absolute government.

"A formidable coalition of kings threatens our independence; their armies are approaching our frontiers. The Melpomene frigate has been at-

tacked and taken in the Mediterranean, after a sanguinary action with an English vessel of seventy-four guns. Blood has been shed in the time of peace. Our enemies rely upon our internal divisions. They excite and foment civil war. Risings have taken place. Communications are held with Ghent, as with Coblenz in 1792. Legislative measures are indispensable. I place unreserved confidence in your patriotism, your wisdom, and your attachment to my person.

"The liberty of the press is inherent in the existing constitution. No change can be made in that respect, without altering the whole of our political system; but some restrictions are necessary, more especially in the actual state of the nation. I recommend this important subject to your serious consideration.

"My ministers will acquaint you with the situation of our affairs. The finances would be in a satisfactory state, but for the increased expenditure rendered requisite by existing circumstances. Nevertheless, all might be met, if the receipts comprised in the budget could all be realized within the year; my minister will direct your attention to the means of arriving at this result.

"It is possible that the first duty of a prince may soon call me, at the head of the children of the nation, to combat for the country. The army and myself will do our duty. Do you, peers and representatives! give the nation the example of confidence, energy, and patriotism: and, like the senate of the great people of antiquity, resolve to die rather than survive the dishonour and degradation of France. The sacred cause of the country shall triumph."

While the address, in reply to the emperor's speech, was under discussion, fresh evidence was given of that laudable watchfulness with which the new parliament had determined to guard themselves from every suspicion of undue deference and adulation towards the constitutional monarch. On the day after the opening of the session, a proposal was made by Felix Lepelletier, to decree in the address the title of *Saviour of his Country* to Napoleon, in imitation of the title of *Louis The Desired*, given by his senators to the French king. This unpopular proposal, grounded upon so inauspicious a model, was received in all parts of the house with tumultuous cries for the order of the day; and M. Dupin, mounting the tribune, exclaimed, "We are here to counsel, not to flatter our emperor; would you suffer the poisoned breath of adulation to find its way already within these walls? If we anticipate events, what means will be reserved by which we shall demonstrate our gratitude at the moment when the emperor *shall* have saved the country?" The president having put Lepelletier's proposal to the vote, the whole assembly arose to pass to the order of the day.

Four days elapsed, before the addresses of the chambers in answer to the speech of the emperor were completely prepared. That of the peers expressed sentiments honourable to the independence of that body; and while they promised not to be

depressed by adversity, they added, that their constitutions guaranteed to all Europe, that the French government could not be carried away by the seductions of victory. To this latter sentiment, Napoleon replied, in the very opening of his answer, and sufficiently evinced his feeling of the censure it conveyed on his former conduct, when he said—"The struggle in which we are engaged, is serious. The seduction of prosperity is not the danger which menaces us at this moment. It is under the caudine forks that our enemies would now force us to pass."

The address of the deputies was conceived in the same spirit of firmness and moderation; and, at the same time that it expressed their determination to make the establishment of a free constitution their first care, and declared, that the will even of a victorious prince would be impotent in

the endeavour to draw the nation beyond the limits necessary for its defence, it declared, that they were ready to co-operate to the utmost with the monarch of their choice, in every effort for maintaining the liberty, the honour, and the dignity of France.

To these declarations, Napoleon replied, that he recognised with satisfaction his own sentiments in those expressed by the deputies; and added, "I depart this night to place myself at the head of the army." The expression—"I depart this night," thrilled through the whole assembly. Already, the army had marched to the frontier, and the moment now approached when the fate of Europe was to be decided, in a battle more tremendous in its immediate effects, and more important in its ultimate consequences, than any engagement of modern times.

CHAPTER VII.

BELGIC CAMPAIGN OF 1815:—Europe again in arms—Plan of the Campaign formed by the Allies—Marshal Blücher's Proclamation to his Army on taking the Field—Napoleon's Objects and Means—His Proclamation—Sudden Commencement of Hostilities—Passage of the Sambre by Napoleon on the 15th of June—Battles of Quatre Bras and of Ligny—Fleurus on the 16th—Retreat of the Allied Armies under the Duke of Wellington and Marshal Blücher on the 17th—Advance of the French—British Position—French Position—Battle of Waterloo on the 18th—Furious Attacks made by the French on the Right, the Centre, and the Left of the British Positions—Progress of the Engagement—The British Centre carried—The French repulsed—Advance of the Prussians on the Right of the French Position—Last desperate Effort made by the French Army—Repulsed—Simultaneous Advance of the whole of the British Forces—Entire Overthrow of the Enemy—Pursuit of the Fugitives by the Prussians under Marshal Blücher—Dreadful Slaughter—Complete Dispersion of the French Army—Marshal Blücher's Official Letter to the Governor of Berlin—British Official Account of the Battle of Waterloo—French Bulletin of the Campaign—Prussian Proclamation—Honours and Privileges conferred on the British Army.

THE combined armies of Europe, stretching from the North Sea to the Adriatic Gulf, and from the Rhine to the Oder, were all again in motion; France being the point of concentration, and the overthrow of Napoleon's throne the ultimate object of all this military array. Murat, the brother-in-law, and the only ally of the emperor, had already fallen, and that part of the army of Austria which had been employed in expelling the King of Naples from his kingdom, was left at liberty to advance towards the French frontier, on the side of Italy, for the purpose of co-operating in that mighty effort which appeared too stupendous for human resistance. The army of France, by which alone the power of Bonaparte was to be supported, consisted of eight hundred and fifty thousand men, of whom three hundred and seventy-five thousand were regulars, including the forty thousand imperial guards.*

On the side of the allies, eleven hundred thousand regular troops, flushed with the victorious result of the preceding campaign, and supported by the exchequers of England, Austria, Russia, Prussia, and Holland, the states of Italy, and the minor powers of Germany, had already taken the field. A frontier, of the extent of a thousand British miles, lay before them; and a royalist army, under the command of La Roche Jaqueline, was again in a state of activity in La Vendée. As a counterpoise to this vast disparity of force, Bonaparte entertained hopes that by sudden and vigorous efforts he should be enabled to destroy his adversaries in detail, or if the country should be invaded, to rouse the same spirit of enthusiasm against the enemy which displayed itself in the year 1793.

Bonaparte was desirous to aim a decisive blow at the most enterprising of the invading armies. He knew Blücher, and had heard of Wellington; he therefore

* Exposition of the state of the empire by the minister Carnot, dated June 14, 1815.

resolved to move against those generals, while he opposed walls and fortified places to the more slow and cautious advance of the Austrian general, Schwarzenberg, and trusted that distance might render ineffectual the progress of the Russians.

According to this general system, Paris, under the direction of General Haxo, was, on the northern side, placed in a complete state of defence, by a double line of fortifications, so that, if the first were forced, the defenders might retire within the second, instead of being compelled, as in the preceding year, to quit the heights, and fall back upon the city. Montmartre was very strongly fortified. The southern part of the city, on the opposite side of the Seine, was covered only with a few field-works; time, and the open character of the ground, permitting no more: but the Seine itself was relied on as a barrier, having proved such in 1814.

On the frontiers, similar precautions were observed. Intrenchments were formed in the five principal passes of the Vosgesian mountains; and all the natural passes and strong-holds of Lorraine were put in the best possible state of defence. The posts on the inner line were strengthened with the greatest care. The fine military position under the walls of Lyons, was improved with great expense and labour. A *tête-de-pont* was erected at Brotteau; a drawbridge and barricade protected the suburb la Guillotière; redoubts were erected between the Saône and Rhine, and upon the heights of Pierre-En-cise and the Quarter of Saint John. Guise, Vitry, Soissons, Chateau, Thierry, Langres, and all the towns capable of any defence, were rendered as strong as posts, palisades, redoubts, and field-works, could make them. The Russian armies, though pressing fast forward, were not as yet arrived upon the line of operations; and Napoleon doubtless trusted that these impediments, in front of the Austrian line, would arrest any hasty advance on their part, since the well-known tactics of that school declare against leaving in their rear, fortresses and towns possessed by the enemy, however insignificant or slightly garrisoned, or however completely they might be masked.

According to the first plan of the allies, three armies were to penetrate into France at one and the same time, independent of each other, but tending towards Paris, the common centre—the army of the upper Rhine, under Prince Schwarzenberg—the army of the lower Rhine, under Field-marshal Blücher—and the army of the Netherlands, under the Duke of Wellington. The Russian armies, under Marshal

Barclay de Tolly and General Wittgenstein, which could not arrive till a later period, were to form the reserve, and the Austrian army in Italy was destined to press into the south of France immediately after the completion of the conquest of that peninsula. The speedy conclusion of the campaign in Italy induced the Duke of Wellington strenuously to urge the union of the two armies of the Lower Rhine and the Netherlands, each to remain under their respective commanders, and neither of them to be subordinate. The unparalleled exertions of the Prussian government, enabled the allies to make the alterations recommended with so much earnestness by the Duke of Wellington, and before the end of June, a force was accumulated by that power, amounting to two hundred and thirty thousand men,* by which the interval was filled up between the army of the Upper Rhine and that of the Netherlands. This army was divided into seven corps, four of which formed the army of the Lower Rhine—the 1st, under Lieutenant-general Ziethen, stationed at Fleurus; the 2d, under Lieutenant-general Count Bulow, between Liège and Hannut; the 3d, under Lieutenant-general Borstel, at Binch; and the 4th, under Lieutenant-general Thielman, at Namur; the four corps forming an army of 120,000 men, under the chief command of Field-marshal Blücher. On placing himself at the head of his troops, the illustrious veteran issued the following proclamation from his head-quarters at Liège:—

“COMRADES! His majesty the king has been pleased to confide to me the chief command of the army. I receive this favour with most lively gratitude. I am rejoiced to see you again—to find you on the field of honour prepared for a new contest, full of new hopes. It is given to us again to combat for the great cause—for general peace. I congratulate you upon it. The course of glory is again open to you. An opportunity offers to increase, by new deeds, the military renown which you have already acquired. Placed at your head, I doubt not of certain and glorious success. Show me, in this new struggle, the confidence you placed in me during the last, and I am convinced that you will gloriously extend the fame of your brilliant deeds in arms.”

The Duke of Wellington had joined his troops in the month of April, and established his head-quarters at Brussels, in the neighbourhood of which city his army was so disposed that it might be concentrated in twenty-four hours, and directed on any point of the French frontiers. The first corps, commanded by the Prince of Orange, occupied Enghien, Braine-le-

* Life and Campaigns of Field-marshal Prince Blücher, by General Gneisenau, Quarter-master general of the Prussian Army.

Comte, and Nivelles, and consisted of the first and third British divisions, under Generals Cooke and Alten; the first and second Hanoverian divisions; and the second and third Belgic divisions. The second corps, commanded by Lord Hill, included the second and fourth British divisions, under Generals Clinton and Hinuber; the third and sixth Hanoverian, and the first Belgic divisions, were established at Ath, Oudenarde, and Grammont. The reserve, stationed at Brussels and Ghent, comprised the fifth and sixth British divisions, under Generals Pieton and Cole, and the fourth, fifth, and seventh Hanoverian divisions; the cavalry occupying Grammont and Ninove. Of this force, thirty-eight thousand were British; the German legion consisted of eight thousand men; the Hanoverian troops comprised fourteen thousand five hundred; and the Belgians, Brunswickers, and Nassau troops amounted to twenty-two thousand; and making an aggregate of eighty-two thousand five hundred men. These British troops, however, were not the veteran soldiers who had served under the Duke of Wellington in the peninsular war; the flower of which had been despatched upon the American expedition. The regiments were mostly second battalions, or those which had been lately filled up with new recruits.

No part of Napoleon's political life, marked as it has always been by the most rapid and extraordinary promptitude in military preparations, affords such a display of activity, as was manifested during the hundred days which formed the duration of his second reign. Amidst all his political pursuits, he was never for an instant diverted from his military preparations. Cannons, muskets, and arms of every description, were forged and issued from the manufactories and arsenals with incredible celerity. The old corps were recruited; the regular army, which on his return from Elba consisted only of one hundred and seventy-five thousand men, was swelled to three hundred and seventy-five thousand;* new levies were instituted under the various names of free-corps, *federes*, and volunteers; the martial spirit of France was again roused to hope and energy; and the whole kingdom seemed transformed at once into an immense camp, of which Napoleon was the spring and the leader. One large army defied towards Belgium, where the neighbourhood of the English and the Prussian troops excited alarm; other armies were assembled at Alsace, in Lorraine, in Franche Comte, at the foot of the Alps, and on the confines of the Pyrenees.

* Carnot's Exposition, June 14, 1815.

But it was in Belgium where the decisive blow was to be struck; and quitting Paris early in the morning of the 12th of June, attended by Marshal Soult, his major-general, Napoleon passed Laon on the 13th, and on the 14th presented himself at the head of a formidable army on the old battle-field of Europe.

The French army, already in the highest order, was still further augmented in number and equipments. The marches and combinations of the various corps d'armee were marked in a distinguished manner by that high military talent which planned Napoleon's most fortunate campaigns. In the same day, and almost at the same hour, three armies—the army of Laon, headed by the emperor in person; the army of the Ardennes, commanded by General Vandamme; and the army of the Moselle, under the orders of General Girard; having broken up from the different cantonments, attained by a simultaneous movement, a united alignment upon the frontiers of Belgium. The troops, thus combined, composed five corps of infantry, commanded by Lieutenant-generals d'Erlon, Reille, Vandamme, Girard, and the Count de Lobau. The cavalry were divided into four corps, commanded by the Generals Pajol, Excelmans, Milhaud, and Kellerman, the whole under the orders of Marshal Grouchy. The deficiency of artillery was chiefly apprehended; the allies had, in 1814, carried off most of the French field trains; but by incredible exertions, the loss was more than supplied; for besides the usual train attached to separate corps, each division of the army had a park of reserve, and the imperial guard, in particular, had a train of guns, consisting almost entirely of new pieces, and many of them bearing the republican inscriptions of *Liberte, Egalite, Fraternite*. The army of the north possessed in all more than three hundred guns, a quantity which was considered rather beyond the usual proportion. The cavalry was another species of force in which Bonaparte was supposed to be peculiarly weak; but a finer body of horse never took the field. Their number exceeded twenty thousand, of which the lancers were distinguished by their address, activity, and ferocity; and the cuirassiers, of whom it is stated that there were nine regiments, by the excellence of their appointments and the superior power of their horses.* The infantry were principally

* The French cuirass forms a kind of coat-of-mail, consisting of a thorax or breastplate, made pigeon-breasted, and joined by clasps to the backplate, like the ancient armour. Those of the soldiers are of iron highly polished, and those of the officers of brass inlaid with steel, and are both proof against a musket-ball if it strikes upon them.

veteran troops. The *elite* of the army consisted of the imperial guards, who were at least twenty thousand strong. The other corps of infantry, all of whom were animated with the most unbounded confidence in themselves and their general, amounted, including the artillery, to one hundred and ten thousand men, which, with the guards and cavalry, formed an aggregate of one hundred and fifty thousand soldiers, completely armed and equipped, and amply supplied with all the munitions of war.

The anniversary of the battles of Marengo and Friedland afforded a proper occasion to renew that charm, or *prestige*, as Napoleon himself was wont to call it, which once attached to his name and fortune, and on the 14th of June the emperor issued from Avesnes the following proclamation to his army:—

GENERAL ORDER.

Avesnes, June 14, 1815.

"SOLDIERS! This day is the anniversary of Marengo and of Friedland, which twice decided the destiny of Europe. Then, as after Austerlitz, as after Wagram, we were too generous! We believed in the protestations and in the oaths of princes whom we left on the throne! Now, however, coalesced among themselves, they would destroy the independence and the most sacred rights of France. They have commenced the most unjust aggressions. Let us march, then, to meet them. Are they and we no longer the same men? Soldiers, at Jena, against these same Prussians, now so arrogant, you were one against three, and at Montmirail one against six! Let those among you who have been prisoners of the English, detail to you the hulks, and the frightful miseries which they suffered! The Saxons, the Belgians, the Hanoverians, the soldiers of the confederation of the Rhine, lament that they are compelled to lend their arms to the cause of princes, the enemies of justice and of the rights of all nations; they know that this coalition is insatiable! After having devoured twelve millions of Poles, twelve millions of Italians, one million of Saxons, six millions of Belgians, it must devour the states of the second rank of Germany. The madmen! a moment of prosperity blinds them. The oppression and humiliation of the French people are beyond their power. If they enter France, they will there find their tomb. Soldiers! we have forced marches to make, battles to fight, dangers to encounter; but, with steadiness, victory will be ours—the rights, the honour, the happiness of the country will be reconquered! To every Frenchman, who has a heart, the moment is arrived to conquer or perish.

(Signed) "NAPOLEON."

This proclamation was received by the soldiers with transports of joy. The en-

in an inclined direction. To this armour, is added a helmet, with cheek-pieces; and the weapons of offence used by the cuirassiers are a long straight broadsword and pistols, but no carbine. In close action, they are protected from the sabres of their antagonists by their armour, except the stroke falls on their neck or limbs, but the shape and weight of the cuirass necessarily impedes the motion of their arms, and renders them far inferior to the British in the dexterous use of the sabre.

thusiasm of the French army was at its highest pitch: at daybreak, on the morning of Thursday the 15th, the corps were put in motion on the banks of the Sambre to invade Belgium, with the hope of surprising the Prussian army in its cantonments, and cutting off the communication between Prince Blucher and the Duke of Wellington. The second corps, under General Reille, commenced the attack upon the Prussian posts near Thuin, and General Ziethen, finding himself overpowered by superior numbers, was repulsed as far as Marchiennes-au-Pont. In their retreat, the Prussians suffered considerable loss from the charges of cavalry made upon their squares of infantry, and the French troops, after forcing the passage of the Sambre, advanced towards the village of Gosselies, in order to intercept the Prussian garrison of Charleroi, should it attempt a retreat in that direction. About mid-day, Napoleon entered Charleroi, and the Prussians, surprised by the suddenness of the attack, retreated precipitately upon Fleurus, where their army was concentrated. Napoleon's squadron of service charged several times in the course of the day upon the routed Prussian infantry; and in one of these charges General Letort, colonel of the French guard, was mortally wounded. The result of these various engagements was decidedly in favour of the French. According to their telegraphic bulletin, fifteen hundred prisoners were made, six pieces of cannon captured, and four Prussian regiments destroyed with comparatively little loss. However this may be, the passage of the Sambre was carried, Charleroi was gained, with its magazines, and the campaign was opened with that *éclat*, which has its inspiring influence upon military bodies, but on none so much as on the armies of France. Napoleon, with his usual policy, profited by these early successes; the most exaggerated statements were published; the prisoners were collected and marched into France on the routes by which the corps in the rear were advancing; and the sight of the captives served to inflame the French soldiers, who, with shouts of "*Vive l'Empereur*," were hastening forward to share in the glory of their comrades.

On the night of the 15th, the news arrived at Brussels that hostilities had commenced. The Duke of Wellington, who was clearly taken by surprise, was sitting after dinner, with a party of officers, when the despatches from Marshal Blucher were presented to him. On the same night, the Duchess of Richmond gave a ball at Brussels, at which the Duke of Brunswick, and Lord Uxbridge, with many others of

the British officers were present; and the Duke of Wellington, considering the first intimation as merely relating to an affair of posts, after giving orders that the troops should hold themselves in readiness, had joined the assembly. At midnight, a second messenger arrived, with intelligence that Charleroi was taken, that the French had advanced to Fleurus, and that a general engagement on the following day seemed inevitable. In the midst of the festivities at the Duke of Richmond's, the bugle sounded, and the drum beat to arms. The officers hastened to place themselves at the head of their troops, and many of them received their death wounds on the approaching day in their ball-room dresses. In less than an hour, the troops began to assemble in the park. The artillery, the cavalry, and the wagon train, were all in motion; and at sunrise the march began, each regiment quitting the parade with three cheers, while the inhabitants of Brussels crowded their line of march, and followed them with their blessings.

The Duke of Wellington, attended by his staff and some squadrons of light horse, proceeded on the gallop to Les Quatre Bras, where the roads from Charleroi to Brussels, and from Nivelles to Namur, intersect each other, and give this name to a farm lying between Genappe and Gosselies. Sir Thomas Picton, who had arrived from England on that very night, was seen at the head of his division, mounted upon his charger, with his reconnoitring-glass slung across his shoulder, and gayly accosting his friends as he rode through the streets of Brussels, never to return. The position of Les Quatre Bras was of considerable importance, and was the point by which the Prince of Orange, co-operating with a corps under Prince de Weimar, had kept up the communication from Nivelles and Brussels with Marshal Blücher's army. The Prussians were at this time posted on the heights between Bry and Sombref, and occupied with a large force the two villages of St. Amand and Ligny, in the front of those places. At three o'clock in the morning, the columns of the French army, which were still on the right side of the Sambre, were put in motion, and after effecting their passage, the whole army marched forward. The command of the left wing, composed of the first and second corps of infantry, and four divisions of cavalry under General Kellerman, was conferred on Marshal Ney, who had arrived only on the preceding day at head-quarters, and, in obedience to his orders, had marched upon Gosselies and Frasnes, towards Brussels. The centre, composed of the third and fourth corps, having the sixth

corps and the guard in reserve, constituted the main body of the French army, and was directed upon Ligny-sous-Fleurus, by the emperor in person; and Marshal Grouchy, with the horse of Pajol and some battalions of infantry, commanded on the right, and manœuvred towards the village of Sombref, upon the route to Namur.

During the morning, there had been much skirmishing in the vicinity of Les Quatre Bras, and about three o'clock in the afternoon Marshal Ney commenced a vigorous attack upon the British position at that place. The Brunswick corps and the fifth division had happily arrived, and maintained the position with the most signal intrepidity, under the Prince of Orange, the Duke of Brunswick, Sir Thomas Picton, Sir James Kempt, and Sir Denis Pack. Early in the engagement, a corps of Belgians was ordered to advance, with the 42d Highland regiment, to support a detachment which was briskly pushed by the French. From some cause, the two battalions were separated, when a column of French lancers, who were lying in ambush, concealed by some hedges, and high standing corn, suddenly rushed upon them. Colonel Macara, perceiving the danger to which the troops were exposed, ordered his regiment to form into a square; but, in performing this evolution, two companies were left out, when the lancers charged upon them with desperate fury, and, in a moment, overwhelmed and literally annihilated them. Encouraged by this success, the French troops charged on the square, and though repulsed with loss, they succeeded in cutting down great numbers of the Highlanders, amongst whom was their brave colonel. Again and again, these charges were repeated, but not a man thought of retreating; the gallant Scots stood like adamant; and it was not until their regiment was reduced to a tenth part of its original number, that the enemy was put to flight. The Prince of Orange, impelled by the ardour of the fight, advanced into the ranks of the enemy, and was made prisoner; but a battalion of Belgians, seeing his danger, rushed to his relief, and in a moment rescued him from the enemy. "There, my brave fellows," said the prince, taking off the insignia of his order and throwing it amongst them, "take it, you have all deserved it." This mark of affection his soldiers were not slow to return; in a moment the star was fixed to the top of their colours, and they all swore to defend this sacred deposit, or to perish. This oath was speedily ratified; numbers of them fell while pronouncing it.

The Duke of Brunswick, who had en-

tered the campaign with a spirit almost chivalrous, and had determined to avenge the death of his father, led to the charge his celebrated "Black Brunswickers," so called from the mourning which they wore for his father. The duke, in the ardour of the battle, rashly exposed himself amidst the fire of small arms, and in this situation he was struck by a musket-ball, which, passing through his bridle hand, entered his liver, and numbered him with the dead. Sir Thomas Picton, though more fortunate than the duke, received a wound in the early part of the day, but it was not till after his death that his wound, so heroically concealed, and dressed only by himself with a piece of torn handkerchief, was discovered. Colonel Cameron, who had so often distinguished himself in Spain, fell while leading the 92d regiment to charge a body of cavalry, and many other regretted names were read on the bloody list; but if it was a day of sorrow, it was also a day of triumph. Repeated as were the enemy's attacks with large bodies of infantry and cavalry, they were all repulsed; and the successive arrival of Generals Alten, Cooke, Maitland, and Byng, enabled the Duke of Wellington to maintain his ground against the superior force with which he was assailed. In a battle so warmly contested, the loss on each side must have been considerable, and we accordingly find that the killed, wounded, and missing, in the British army, amounted to 3018;* while the loss of the French is stated at 4200.†

In the heat of the battle, and when the enthusiasm of the allies had attained the highest pitch, Marshal Ney sent orders for the first corps of infantry, which he had stationed in reserve at Frasnes, to march to the front at the *pas-de-charge*, and to throw themselves upon the ranks of the British; but what was his astonishment to learn, that the emperor, who was engaged with the Prussians at the same moment in front of the village of Ligny, had disposed of this powerful reserve without informing him of the circumstance, as well as of the division of Girard, of the second corps, and that instead of eight divisions of infantry, he had actually left under his command only three! Confounded by this intelligence, Marshal Ney was obliged to renounce all hopes of victory, and to call forth the utmost efforts of his troops even to maintain his position. Thus, twenty-five or thirty thousand men were paralyzed, and idly paraded, during the whole of the battle, from the right to the left, and the left to the right, without firing a shot.

No immediate and decisive advantage resulted to the British from the battle of Les Quatre Bras, but a great deliverance had been achieved. The opportunity for striking a decisive blow against the English, before their army was completely assembled, had, by the "false movement" and "bad arrangements" of Napoleon, passed unimproved. "By what fatality," says Marshal Ney, "did the emperor, instead of leading his forces against Lord Wellington, who would have been attacked unawares, and could not have resisted, consider this attack (on Les Quatre Bras) as secondary? How did the emperor, after the passage of the Sambre, conceive it possible to fight two battles on the same day? It was to oppose forces twice as many as our's, and to do what military men who were witness to it can scarcely yet comprehend. Instead of this, had he left a corps of observation to watch the Prussians, and marched with his most powerful masses to support me, the English army had undoubtedly been demolished between Les Quatre Bras and Genappe; and this position, which separated the two allied armies, being once in our power, would have opened for the emperor an opportunity of advancing to the right of the Prussians, and of crushing them in their turn."* However well founded Marshal Ney's censure may be, and his authority upon such a subject is not to be contemned, it is very improbable that all the results he imagines would have flowed from his plan of operations. The Duke of Wellington was not in the habit of permitting his army to be demolished; nor was Marshal Blücher a commander to be held in check by a corps of observation, whilst his allies were seriously engaged within the range of his operations. The British commander-in-chief has observed, with that ingenuousness which forms a leading characteristic in his transcendent military career, "that when other generals commit an error, their army is lost by it, and they are sure to be beaten; but that when he gets into a scrape, his army always gets him out of it;" and it is more than probable that his army would have extricated him from that danger of demolition which the Prince of Moskwa apprehends awaited him, had Bonaparte directed his principal force against the British, instead of the Prussian army. It may also be urged in favour of the plan pursued by Napoleon, that he obtained on the 16th a signal, though not a decisive victory over the Prussian army.

When Bonaparte moved with his centre

* London Gazette.

† French Bulletin.

* Report of the Prince of Moskwa to the Duke of Otranto, dated Paris, June 26th, 1815.

and right wing upon Blucher, he certainly conceived that he had left Marshal Ney a more easy task than his own; and that the marshal would find no difficulty in pushing his way into the vicinity of Brussels, before the English army could be concentrated in sufficient force to arrest his progress. To himself, he reserved the task of coping with Marshal Blucher, hoping, by his overthrow, to cut off all communications between the Prussian and British armies, and to compel each to seek safety in isolated and unconnected movements. On advancing to the Prussian position, Marshal Blucher was found posted with his right in the village of St. Amand, his centre at Ligny-sous-Fleurus, and his left at Sombref. In this strong position, the Prussian commander had assembled three corps of his army, amounting to eighty thousand men; the fourth corps, under General Bulow, being in distant cantonments between Liege and Hannut, had not yet arrived at the point of concentration. The force of the assailants is stated in the Prussian despatches at one hundred and thirty thousand; but as Ney had at least thirty thousand in active service, and a still larger number in reserve, it is probable that the troops under Bonaparte's immediate command in the battle of Ligny, did not exceed in number the force of his adversary; and the courage and animosity of the two armies was, like their strength, equal. Napoleon, having reconnoitred the strength and position of the enemy, resolved on an immediate attack; and while his left, under General Vandamme, marched upon St. Amand, General Girard, at the head of the centre, advanced to Ligny, and Marshal Grouchy, with the right wing, presented himself in front of Sombref.

The engagement commenced at three o'clock in the afternoon, by a furious cannonade, under cover of which the third corps of the French army, commanded by Vandamme, attacked the village of St. Amand at the point of the bayonet, and, notwithstanding the most determined resistance, succeeded in carrying the village. This village, which formed the key of the right wing of the Prussian position, the most desperate efforts were made to recover; and Marshal Blucher, placing himself at the head of a battalion, impelled his forces upon the French ranks with so much vigour and success, that one end of the village was again occupied by the Prussians. At this moment, Bonaparte despatched his orders for the advance of the first corps, by which the efforts of Marshal Ney were paralyzed, and the left wing of the French army exposed to the most im-

minent danger; but before the arrival of the reserve, the French had established themselves so firmly in the church and the burial-ground, that all the efforts of the Prussians to dislodge them proved unavailing.

It was now five o'clock in the afternoon; the battle had become general; but the principal efforts of the combatants were directed against Ligny. Here, a murderous scene commenced, which for fury and inveteracy had never been equalled in any of the former contests between the French and the Prussians. Each soldier appeared to be avenging his own personal quarrel: the hatred between the two nations was of the most deadly kind; and neither party seemed disposed either to give or to ask quarter. The terrain of action was confined to a very narrow space; fresh troops were on both sides continually brought into the field; and for four hours two hundred pieces of cannon were directed from each side against the village, which was on fire at one and the same time in several places. The possession of the heights of St. Haye, which had been carried by storm three times, and remained in possession of the Prussians, seemed to give a favourable turn to their affairs; but the general fortune of the day was evidently in favour of Napoleon. The issue, however, seemed to depend on the arrival of a reinforcement of English troops, or on the junction of the corps under General Bulow. But in this emergency, news was brought that the British division, destined to support Marshal Blucher, was violently attacked by the French army under Marshal Ney, and the arrival of General Bulow was invoked in vain. The danger became every hour more urgent; the Prussian commander-in-chief repeatedly led his divisions into the fire, but he had not a single corps in reserve, and neither the gallantry of the troops, nor the personal bravery and example of the intrepid Blucher, could much longer maintain the contest against the skill, enterprise, and devotion of the enemy. About eight o'clock in the evening, the French had become masters of the villages of St. Amand and Ligny. But the Prussians still preserved a strong position in the rear of a ravine which separates the village of Ligny from the height of the mill of Bussi. Napoleon, from the commencement of the battle, had been manoeuvring in such a way as to give him the power, at the proper moment, to direct a superior force beyond the ravine. This moment had now arrived; and eight battalions of the guard, formed into one formidable column, supported by four squadrons of cavalry, two regiments of cuirassiers.

and the horse-grenadiers of the guard, traversed the village of Ligny at the *pas-charge*. Advancing into the ravine, they began to ascend the heights, under a dreadful fire of grape and musketry from the Prussians. This murderous discharge they sustained with great gallantry, and on reaching the Prussian line, the impression made upon the masses of which it consisted was so tremendous, that the field was, in an instant, covered with slain, and the centre being broken, the communication between the wings became endangered.

At this crisis of the battle, the gallant Blücher had nearly closed his long and illustrious career. The field-marshal had himself headed an unsuccessful charge against the French cavalry, and, while the enemy was in vigorous pursuit, a musket-ball struck the veteran's horse, which instead of being stopped by his wound, began to gallop more furiously, and did not stop till he fell down dead. Stunned by the violence of the fall, Marshal Blücher lay entangled under his charger, and the enemy's cuirassiers, following up their advantage, passed over him without observing the prostrate commander. His only attendant was an adjutant in his own army, who, with an honourable self-devotion, had alighted to share his fate. In the mean time, the Prussian cavalry had rallied, and having repulsed the French, became in their turn the pursuers. Still, the Prussian general was lying on the ground, and was again passed, by both his own troops and the enemy, without being recognised. The danger was imminent; "but," says General Gneisenau, "Heaven watched over him:" he was disengaged from the dead animal, and immediately mounted the horse of a trooper.

Night put an end to the sanguinary battle of Ligny. The French became masters of the field; but the Prussians effected their retreat in good order, and formed again at Tilly, a distance not exceeding half a league from the scene of operations. The loss in both armies was extremely severe: according to the French accounts, the Prussians had fifteen thousand men put *hors de combat*; and on the same authority it is stated, that their own loss did not exceed three thousand men in killed and wounded.

Marshal Blücher, in his precipitate retreat, left fifteen pieces of cannon in the hands of the enemy, and the whole number of pieces captured on the 16th, are stated, in the French bulletin, to amount to forty. During the night, the villages of Bry and Sombref remained in possession of the Prussians under General Thielman; but at the dawn of the following

morning this corps commenced its retreat by the route of Gembloux, where it was joined by General Bulow's division; and in the course of the 17th, the whole of the Prussian army was concentrated in the neighbourhood of Wavre.

The French exaggerated their advantages with a license more than poetic. Marshal Soult, Napoleon's lieutenant, in a despatch to the Prince of Eckmühl, the French minister at war, did not scruple to announce, "that the emperor had succeeded in separating the line of the allies." "Wellington and Blücher," he adds, "saved themselves with difficulty: the effect was theatrical—in an instant the firing ceased, and the enemy was routed in all directions." Another despatch, published with great pomp in the French official paper, said, "There are upon the field of battle eight enemies to one Frenchman! Their loss is said to be fifty thousand men! The cannonade was like that of the battle of Moskwa. Whole bands of prisoners are taken; they do not know what is become of their commanders. The rout is complete on this side, and I hope we shall not so soon hear again of the Prussians, if they should ever be able to rally again. As for the English, we shall see, now the emperor is here, what will become of them."

Napoleon now cherished the hope that the great object of his first movement was effected, and that he had completely succeeded in separating the English and Prussian armies, by cutting off their communication. Under this persuasion, he marched on the morning of the 17th towards Quatre Bras, after leaving the third and fourth corps, with the cavalry of General Pajol, under the orders of Marshal Grouchy, to follow the retreating Prussian army.

The retreat of Marshal Blücher demanded a corresponding movement on the part of Lord Wellington, and at ten o'clock in the morning of Saturday, the 17th, the British army retired from the farm of Quatre Bras upon the forest of Soignies, by the route of Genappe. The Duke of Wellington had scarcely commenced his march, when the masses of the enemy began to appear. The French cuirassiers and lancers formed the advanced-guard, and pressed closely upon the rear of the British column. The rain, which fell in torrents, had rendered the roads almost impassable, and the open country could not be traversed even by the cavalry. From this circumstance, the enemy was unable to harass the flanks of the retiring army, and forced to confine all their efforts to the centre, which proceeded on the high road. The Duke of Wellington, on passing Genappe, expressed his surprise that he had

been allowed to move through that narrow defile unharassed by the attacks of the enemy, and surmised that Napoleon did not command in person the pursuing divisions of the French army; but in this conjecture the British commander was mistaken, and it was found that the apparent want of activity was to be imputed to the heavy loss sustained on the 16th, to the tempestuous state of the weather, and to the impracticability of the roads. Lord Uxbridge, to whom was confided the duty of covering the rear of the British army, finding his cavalry much pressed by the French lancers, resolved to attack the advancing squadrons as they issued from the pass at Genappe. This attack, which was most gallantly led by the 7th hussars, was received by the French cavalry with distinguished firmness, and the hussars were repulsed with loss. Animated by the native valour of Britons, the attack was again renewed, but the massive columns of the enemy remained unbroken. The heavy household troops were now ordered to charge, and to strike only at the limbs of their adversaries. Dismayed by this novel mode of attack, and unable to withstand the resistless torrent, the lancers turned their horses, and the British troops were permitted to continue their retreat, without further molestation, to the entrance of the forest of Soignies, three miles in front of Waterloo.

At five o'clock in the afternoon, the English army arrived at its destination, and the Duke of Wellington, having made his arrangements for the night, established his head-quarters at a petty inn in the small village, on whose name he was destined to confer imperishable renown. The duke had travelled through this part of the country at a time when there was no appearance that hostilities would be soon renewed, and seeing every thing with the eye of a soldier, had observed, that were he ever to fight a battle for the defence of Brussels, Waterloo was the ground which he would choose as the scene of operations. At Brussels, which city had been thrown into extreme consternation, by some runaway Belgic cavalry, who had passed through the town on the morning of the 17th, proclaiming that the French army was in close pursuit, the alarm and despondency of the inhabitants was heightened by the intelligence that the Duke of Wellington had fallen back on Waterloo. A retrograde movement bears with it so many symptoms of defeat, and it is so often either the consequence or the prelude of an overthrow, that the inhabitants of a large city, where every thing is at stake, may well be excused for giving way to those feelings from which the

British army itself was not altogether free. The French, on the contrary, glowed with the most sanguine expectations. No one suffered himself to believe that the English would halt, till they reached their vessels, and Napoleon himself calculated confidently upon holding, on the following day, one of his Sunday reviews in the magnificent square of the Place Royale at Brussels.

On the arrival of the Duke of Wellington in his position at Waterloo, a messenger was despatched by his lordship to Marshal Blücher, to inform him that the duke was resolved to accept battle on the following day, if the Prussians could support him with two of their corps. The answer of Blücher was highly characteristic—he promised not only to support the duke with two corps, but with his whole army; adding, that if Napoleon did not choose to attack them, the allies should unite their whole force and attack him. The French, whose force was gradually coming up during the evening, occupied a ridge nearly opposite to the position of the English army, and while Napoleon established his head-quarters at the farm of Oaillon, near Planchenoit, a village in the rear of his position, the bivouacs of his numerous army covered the declivity of the hill, and rose to its summit.

The night of the 17th was dreadful; the rain fell incessantly and in torrents; the soldiers, in their open bivouacs, were up to their knees in mud; and many of them, particularly the officers, who had advanced from Brussels in their ball-room dress, worn out by the fatigues they had encountered, stretched themselves on this cheerless bed to rise no more. Few places could be found sufficiently free from mud to admit of a fire being lighted, and the pelting of the storm, even in those situations, instantly extinguished the flame. The interval usually appropriated to rest was not lost by the British troops. In the course of the night, time was found to cleanse their arms, distribute ammunition, and make the necessary preparations for the approaching conflict.

It was the general fear in the French army that the English would disappear during the night, and when the slow and gloomy dawn of the morning of the 18th exhibited them still in possession of the opposite heights, Napoleon could not suppress his satisfaction, but exclaimed, while he stretched his arms towards their position, *Ah! je les tiens donc ces Anglois!** The adverse armies were now preparing for battle. For the first time, the two ge-

* Ah! these English, I have them at last.

nerals, the most renowned of their age and nations, were opposed to each other. The previous reputation which each of them had acquired; the rivalry which existed between them; and the almost uniform success which had attended their different systems of tactics, powerfully excited them to call into exercise all the genius of their almost inexhaustible minds. But glory, however stimulating to a military commander, was by no means their principal object. The approaching engagement was not one of those battles that might be lost or won without any material influence upon surrounding nations. The fate of Europe depended upon the result of this day. The stake was immense; one of the chiefs fought to preserve a diadem, and the other, to restore the tranquillity of an agitated world.

The tactic of Napoleon was simple but grand. It resembled that which, adopted by the greatest of our naval commanders, had raised the renown of the British navy to the summit of glory. The whole weight of his army was usually directed against one point, either where his opponent appeared to be the most weak, or where success must be followed not merely by the discomfiture, but by the demolition of the foe. Regiments, divisions, nay whole armies, were hazarded without hesitation, to accomplish his favourite object. When one body retired in confusion, another was immediately ordered to occupy its place. "Forward! Forward!" was the general reply to every intelligence of repulse or disaster; and candour demands the acknowledgment, that his calculations were usually correct, and his efforts crowned with success.

The system of the Duke of Wellington was altogether the reverse. Never was any general more sparing of the blood of his soldiers. He usually awaited the attack of his adversary. No temporary or partial success could allure him to compromise the safety of his army; but his keen and eagle eye detected the first error of the enemy, and with a promptitude as characteristic as his previous coolness and immobility, he availed himself of the critical moment, and usually secured the fortune of the day.

The field of the battle of Waterloo, with the aid of the accompanying plan, is capable of a very lucid description. The ground occupied by the two armies was the smallest in extent of front, compared with the number engaged, of any field of battle in the recollection of military men. The English line did not exceed a mile and a half in length; and the French line

not more than two miles; and to this circumstance must in part be attributed the unparalleled loss which each party sustained. The forest of Soignies, says a Belgic traveller, from whom we quote, is an immense wood composed of beech trees, growing unusually close together, and is intersected by a long broad road, which upon issuing from the forest, reaches the small village of Waterloo, at a distance of twelve miles from Brussels. Beyond this point, the wood assumes a more straggled and dispersed appearance, till it reaches a ridge called Mount St. Jean, from a farm-house situated upon the Brussels road, where the trees disappear, and the country becomes quite open. Along this eminence, the British forces were formed into two lines. The second line, which consisted chiefly of Lord Hill's corps, lay behind the brow of the hill, and was in some degree sheltered from the enemy's fire. The first line consisting of the *élite* of the infantry, under the Prince of Orange, occupied the crest of the ridge, and was on the left partly defended by a long hedge and ditch, which running in a straight line from the hamlet of Mount St. Jean towards the village of Ohain, gives name to two farm-houses, La Haye Sainte and Ter la Haye. The ground at Ter la Haye becomes woody and broken, and formed a strong point at which to terminate the left of the British line. A road runs from Ter la Haye to Ohain, and the woody passes of St. Lambert, through which the Duke of Wellington kept up a communication by his left, with the Prussian army at Wavre. The centre of the British army occupied the village of Mount St. Jean, in the middle of the ridge, just where the great causeway from Brussels divides into two roads, one of which branches off to Nivelles, and the other continues the straight road to Charleroi. A strong advanced post of Hanoverian sharpshooters occupied the house and farm-yard of the holy hedge, as the name La Haye Sainte imports, situated in advance upon the Charleroi road, and just at the bottom of the hill. The right of the British army, extending along the same eminence, occupied and protected the Nivelles road as far as the enclosures of Hougomont, or more properly Goumont, and turning rather backwards, rested its extreme right upon a deep ravine at Brain la Lende. The ground in front of the British position formed a gentle declivity into a valley, nearly half a mile in breadth, which lay between the two armies, and at that time bore a tall and strong crop of corn.

The whole British position formed a

kind of curve, the centre of which was nearest to the enemy, and the extremities, particularly on the right, drawn considerably backward.

The French position ran along an eminence parallel to the British lines, at a distance of from twelve to fourteen hundred yards, and the opposing hills were each of them lined with three hundred pieces of artillery. Early in the morning of the 18th, numerous bodies of French cavalry began to occupy the ridge of La Belle Alliance. At nine o'clock, the rain had somewhat abated, and the 1st corps was at that hour put in motion, and placed opposite the centre of the British position, with the left on the road to Brussels. The second corps, resting its right upon the same road, and its left upon a small wood in front of Hougomont, was placed within cannon-shot of the English army. The 6th corps, with the cavalry of General D'Aumont, under the order of Count Lobau, was destined to proceed in the rear of the right, to oppose a Prussian corps, which, having escaped Marshal Grouchy, threatened to fall upon the French right flank; and the cuirassiers and the guards were in reserve behind the eminence, and upon the heights of La Belle Alliance.*

The force of the two armies has been variously stated; according to the French accounts, the English army consisted of eighty thousand men, and the Prussian corps, on the left of the British position, of fifteen thousand; the allied force was therefore more than ninety thousand, and the French less numerous.* Marshal Blücher says—"The English army was about eighty thousand strong, and the enemy had about one hundred and thirty thousand."† The Duke of Wellington, with his usual caution, makes no statement of numbers—it is to the results mainly that he directs his attention. From a paper endorsed "Enumeration of some corps of the army," in the handwriting of a French officer, found in Bonaparte's portfolio, taken at Genappe after the battle, it appears that the French corps which fought at Waterloo, did not exceed eighty thousand.‡ It is pretty clear, that, after making the proper deduction for the loss in the battle of Quatre Bras, the aggregate amount of the miscellaneous force brought this day into the field by the Duke of Wellington, including British, Belgian, Hanoverian, and Brunswickers, did not amount to more than seventy thousand men.§

* French Bulletin. † Prussian official Report.

‡ See No. 11. of Napoleon's Portfolio, published at Brussels.

§ The Duke of Wellington's force was divided into two *corps d'armées*, under the orders of Gene-

"The French force on the field," says Sir Walter Scott, "consisted probably of about seventy-five thousand men. The English army did not exceed that number, at the highest computation. Each army was commanded by the chief, under whom they had offered to defy the world. So far, the forces were equal. But the French had the very great advantage of being trained and experienced soldiers of the same nation, whereas the English, in the Duke of Wellington's army, did not exceed 35,000; and, although the German legion were veteran troops, the other soldiers under his command were those of the German contingents, lately levied, unaccustomed to act together, and in some instances suspected to be lukewarm in the cause in which they were engaged; so that it would have been imprudent to trust more to their assistance and co-operation than could possibly be avoided. According to Bonaparte's mode of calculating, allowing one Frenchman to stand as equal to one Englishman, and one Englishman or Frenchman against two of any other nation, the inequality of force on the Duke of Wellington's side, was very considerable."

The plans of these two great generals were extremely simple. The object of the Duke of Wellington was to maintain his line of defence, until the arrival of the Prussians should give him a decided superiority of force. They were expected about eleven or twelve o'clock; but the extreme badness of the roads, owing to the violence of the storm, detained them several hours later.

Napoleon's scheme was equally plain and decided. He trusted, by his usual rapidity of attack, to break and destroy the British army before the Prussians should arrive upon the field; after which, he calculated on having an opportunity of destroying the Prussians, by attacking them on their march through the broken ground interposed between them and the British. In these expecta-

ral the Prince of Orange, and Lieutenant-general Lord Hill, under whom the infantry was commanded by

LIEUTENANT-GENERALS Sir Thomas Picton, Sir Henry Clinton, and Baron Sir C. Alten.

MAJOR-GENERALS Sir H. de Hübner, Sir James Kemp, Sir Colin Halkett, Sir Denis Pack, George Cooke, Peregrine Maitland, Frederick Adam, Sir John Byng, and Sir John Lambert.

The cavalry was commanded by Lieutenant-general the earl of Uxbridge, and under him by

MAJOR-GENERALS Lord Edward Somerset, the Honourable Sir William Ponsonby, Count Sir William Dornberg, Sir Colquhoun Grant, Sir R. Hussey Vivian, and Sir John Omney Vandeleur.

The artillery was under the command of Colonel Sir George Adam Wood, and the engineers under Colonel Smyth.

ions, he was the more confident, as he relieved Gronchy's force, detached on the 7th in pursuit of Blücher, was sufficient to retard, if not altogether to check the march of the Prussians. His grounds for entertaining this latter opinion, were, as we shall hereafter show, too hastily adopted.

A little before midday, the battle commenced by the almost simultaneous advance of three entire French *corps d'armée*, on the right, left, and centre of the British lines. The Prussian corps under Bülow, struggling with the defiles of St. Lambert, were urging forward their course towards the scene of action, and the cheering cry of "Keep your ground, brave English, till we come up," was addressed on every hand to a British officer of engineers, who had been despatched early in the morning by Lord Wellington, to inform the Prussian commander that an engagement had become inevitable. Both the rival commanders were in full view of the field when the battle began, and remained upon it all day, without retiring for a moment. Napoleon's first post was a high temporary observatory, constructed some weeks before, by order of the King of the Netherlands, as a point of observation for the persons employed in making a trigonometrical survey of the country; but his principal station, during the day, was a small elevation in front of the farm of La Belle Alliance, and on the left hand side of the road leading to Brussels. Soult, Ney, and other officers of distinction, commanded under him, but he issued all orders, and received all reports in person. The well-chosen station of the Duke of Wellington formed the precise centre of the British line, near the top of Mount St. Jean, under a tree, on the Brussels road, which commanded a full view of the intermediate plain, and of the whole of the enemy's force upon the adverse slope, and from which every movement made or threatened, could, with the aid of his acromatic telescope, be distinctly seen. Here, the British commander, dressed in a blue regimental rock-coat, and wearing a plain cocked hat, kept his post during the whole day, except when engaged in confirming the unconquerable spirit of his gallant countrymen, or in leading them on to that final charge, which decided the fate of nations.

The two points of the greatest importance in the British lines were, the chateau of Hougomont, with its wood and garden in front of the right; and the farm of La Haye Sainte in front of the left. Hougomont in particular was the *point d'appui*, or key, of the Duke of Wellington's position, and here three companies of General Byng's brigade of guards, under

Lord Saltoun, were placed, while the gardens and woods were lined with Nassau troops as sharpshooters. The attack on the right was made by a division of the second corps of the French army, under Jerome Bonaparte, and such was its fury and impetuosity, that the Nassau troops abandoned their post at Hougomont in dismay. The French forced their way to the very gates of the court-yard; but there they were received by the guards with so close and well-directed a fire, that they retired in confusion, or were charged with the bayonet, and repeatedly repulsed. In less than half an hour, fifteen hundred men perished in the orchard alone, which did not exceed four acres in extent. A station of so much importance was to be obtained if possible at any price, and fresh reinforcements were sent in succession to this scene of carnage. At length, the house and out-buildings took fire; but even amidst the flames the combat continued with unabating fury. In one of the out-buildings, the wounded of both armies, who had in this place sought a temporary refuge, perished by the most horrible of deaths. In vain, their shrieks reached the ears of the conflicting armies. The combatants were too fiercely engaged to lend them any assistance, and it was soon impossible to extricate them from the devouring element. The house and offices were now reduced to mere shells, and the post of Hougomont being in some degree insulated, and its defenders no longer in close communication with the British army, the French cavalry were enabled to pour round it in great strength. Here, as in the other parts of the field, the British forces were, during this memorable action, drawn up in squares, each regiment forming a separate square by itself, not quite solid, but nearly so, the men being drawn up several files deep. The distance between these masses afforded space enough to draw up the battalions in line, when they should be ordered to deploy, and the regiments were posted, with reference to each other, much like the alternate squares upon a chess-board.—It was, of course, impossible for a squadron of cavalry to push between two of these squares, without exposing themselves to the danger of being at once assailed by a fire in front from that square which was in the rear, and on both flanks from those between which it had moved forward. These dangers were far from repressing the courage of the French, who pushed forward in defiance of every obstacle, and in their furious onset seemed to unsettle the firm earth over which they galloped; but as often as they advanced to the lines, they were

driven back with the bayonet, and although these efforts were repeated during the whole day, such was the constancy of the troops to which the defence of Hougoumont was confided, that the ruins of the chateau never for a moment passed into the hands of the enemy.

The attack upon Hougoumont was accompanied by a heavy fire from more than two hundred pieces of artillery upon the whole British line; and under cover of this fire, repeated attacks were made. Columns of French infantry and cavalry, preceded by formidable artillery, advancing from every point, ascended the eminence on which the British were posted, and precipitated themselves on their squares. In vain, the French artillery mowed down whole ranks of their enemies. The chasms were instantly filled, and not a foot of ground was lost. "What brave troops!" exclaimed Napoleon to his staff; "it is a pity to destroy them; but I shall beat them after all." The principal masses of the 6th corps of the French were at this moment directed on the left of the British position, where were posted the divisions of Generals Picton and Kempt. The object of Napoleon in this attack, was to turn the left of the allies, and, by separating them from the Prussians, to cut off the retreat of the Duke of Wellington in the direction of Ter la Haye. Nothing could be more tremendous than the mode of attack; it was headed by artillery, which discharged showers of iron grape-shot, each bullet larger than a walnut. It was a battle, on the part of the French, of cavalry and cannon; and at the head of their columns were the iron-cased cuirassiers, in complete mail, upon which the musket-balls were heard to ring, as they glanced off without injuring or even stunning the wearer. The 42d, 79th, and 92d Highlanders, supported by the 1st and 28th regiments, met this phalanx without dismay, and displayed all the gallantry by which they had been distinguished in the battle of the 16th. The advancing column marched on amidst the destructive fire of the British artillery, and gained the height, determined to carry the position. Already, some of the foreign corps posted at this point had given way, and it required all the skill of the British commander, and all the courage and discipline of his soldiers, to withstand the shock.* The Duke of Wellington, who happened to be in this part of the field at the moment, moved up a body of British troops to a kind of natural embrazure, formed by a hedge and sank in front of the line. Sir Thomas

Picton, without waiting for the attack, formed his division into solid squares, and advanced to the charge. The Royals, the Greys, the Enniskillens, co-operating in this bold manœuvre, wheeled upon the flanks of the advancing column; and the French, after suffering immense loss, were driven into the plain. It was at this moment, that Sir Thomas Picton fell gloriously, while leading his troops to the charge. The enemy, confounded at finding their masses met in such a manner, fired, and retreated; when a musket-ball struck the right temple of the British general, went through the brain, and was retained only by the skin on the opposite side of the skull. In the death of Sir Thomas Picton, the British service lost an officer of distinguished merit, who had served his country for five-and-forty years with a zeal and devotion which age could not damp, and whose skill and gallantry had been displayed in the American Archipelago, in the marshes of Holland, and the peninsula of Spain and Portugal.

It was in this part of the field, but at a more advanced period of the battle, that the mild, yet intrepid Sir William Ponsonby fell, leading on his men to victory. In order to check the destructive attacks, made by the Polish lancers against the British infantry, he led his brigade into the heat of the battle, and a more brilliant and successful charge was never witnessed. Two thousand prisoners served to announce his success; but the impetuous valour of two of his regiments having hurried him too far in the pursuit, he entered a newly-ploughed field, and being badly mounted, his horse sunk in the mire, and was incapable of extricating himself. At this instant, a body of lancers approached him at full speed; and Sir William, anticipating his fate, took out a picture and his watch, and was in the act of consigning them to his aide-de-camp, to be delivered to his wife, when the lancers came up, and terminated the career both of the general and his attendant. His body was found soon afterwards, pierced with not less than seven wounds. But he did not fall unavenged; before the close of the day, the Polish lancers were almost annihilated; and two of those imperial eagles, on which were emblazoned the names of Austerlitz, Jena, Eylau, Friedland, and Wagram, and which had been presented to the 49th and the 105th regiments only seventeen days before, at the *Champ de Mai*, fell into the hands of the British. The struggle for the eagles was maintained principally by the 92d regiment, who broke into the centre of the French column with the bayonet, and the

* General Alava.

moment they had pierced the line, the Scotch Greys dashed in to their support, both regiments greeting each other with the exhilarating cry of "Scotland for ever." By the effort which followed, the enemy's column to a man was put to the sword or made prisoners; and the Greys, charging through the second line, took the eagles. The emperor, surrounded by his staff, and attended by the trembling farmer Lacoste,* witnessed the recoil of his best troops, and felt himself constrained, in spite of himself, repeatedly to mutter compliments to his spirit, rapidity, and steadiness of the British cavalry:—"These English fight admirably," said he to Soult, "but they must give way."—"No, sire," was the reply, "they prefer being cut to pieces." The Scotch Greys especially struck him, and he often repeated—*Regardez ces chevaux gris!*—Observe those grey horses!

The attacks on the right and left of the British line having failed, Napoleon now directed his efforts against the centre. La Haye Sainte was a point as important to be carried as Ter la Haye, and inferior only to Hougomont. If the enemy succeeded here, he indulged the hope that the line would be broken, and the communication with Brussels cut off. Both parties felt the importance of this position, and nobly

exerted themselves, the French to carry, and the British to defend it. Perpetual reinforcements occupied the places of the weakened battalions, and for more than an hour the contest was maintained with doubtful and equal success. While the contest still hung in suspense, it was discovered that the ammunition of the detachment of the legion which occupied La Haye Sainte, was expended, and that the enemy had occupied the only communication with that place. But even in this extremity, the German legion scorned to surrender; they defended themselves desperately with the bayonet; nor was the position carried till its defenders had ceased to breathe. Napoleon, with his characteristic promptitude, seized the advantage which now presented itself, and pressing on with immense masses of infantry and cavalry, redoubled his attacks against the exposed centre. The first battalions that he encountered, overwhelmed by superior numbers, gave way; and the emperor, deeming the fortune of the day no longer doubtful, despatched couriers to Paris, with the intelligence that the day was won. An awful crisis had now arisen; and had Napoleon brought up his reserves of infantry, or waited till the British squares had been thrown into confusion by the tremendous fire of artillery which he was enabled to direct against them from the position he had conquered, it might have been impossible for the unrivalled skill even of the Duke of Wellington to retrieve the disaster. But the impetuosity of the French troops was not to be restrained by the caution of their general; and "by a movement of impatience," says the French bulletin, "so frequent in the military annals of France, and which has been so often fatal to them, the cavalry of reserve, having perceived a retrograde movement made by the English to shelter themselves from the batteries, from which they suffered so much, crowded the heights of Mount St. Jean, and charged the infantry. This movement, which, made in time, and supported by the reserves, might have decided the day, being made in an isolated manner, and before affairs on the right were terminated, became fatal." "Having no means of countermanding it," it is added, "the British showed many masses of cavalry and infantry, and the two divisions of cuirassiers being engaged, all the French cavalry ran at the same moment to support their comrades. There, for three hours, numerous charges were made, which enabled the French troops to penetrate several squares, and to take six standards of the light infantry—an advantage out of propor-

* Early in the morning of Sunday, the 18th of June, Jean Baptiste Lacoste, the tenant of the farm of La Belle Alliance, was called upon by three French officers, who, after having ascertained that he was well acquainted with the country, sent him to Bonaparte, to serve as a guide. On his arrival at the French head-quarters, he was placed on a horse immediately between Napoleon and his first aide-de-camp, his saddle being tied to the saddle of a trooper behind him, that he might not escape, as a former man employed in the same capacity had done. During the whole day, he remained in attendance upon the emperor, and did not quit him till he had repassed the Sambre. The narrative of this man, if less interesting than might have been expected from the station he occupied, is nevertheless curious, and bears evident marks of authenticity. Observing how the chasms in the British troops were filled up the instant they were made by the French artillery, Napoleon, he says, exclaimed—"Quelles vives troupes! comme ils travaillent! tres-bien!"—"What brave troops! how they do go through their work! admirable! admirable indeed!" During the battle, the emperor held a map of the scene of action in his left hand, and seemed intent upon his military command all the day, incessantly taking snuff from his waistcoat-pocket in large inches. This was all the refreshment he took for fourteen hours. Seeing Lacoste flinch at the howler of shot, he said—"Don't stir, my friend; a shot will kill you equally in the back as in front, or wound you more disgracefully." The emperor's dress consisted of a gray surtout, with a green uniform coat, and in honour of his party's badge, a violet coloured waistcoat and pantaloons.

tion with the loss which their cavalry experienced by the grape-shot and musket firing.”*

During this part of the conflict, the cuirassiers and lancers rushed on at the head of their columns, and precipitated themselves on the British squares. A few battalions, who were slow or awkward in their evolutions, were in a moment cut to pieces; but wherever the squares were formed, the enemy could make no impression. In vain, with unexampled courage and self-devotion, the French cavalry walked their horses round the British squares, and dashed at the slightest opening; in vain, when they arrived within a short distance, a few of them rushed on, and would have nobly sacrificed themselves, by receiving the fire of their adversaries, while the main body waited to charge on the British ere they could reload their pieces, or fill up the chasm. The troops, with a steadiness to which no language can do justice, did not pull a single trigger, but continued to present a barrier of steel against the advance of the main body of the enemy. Other squadrons of cavalry penetrated between the squares, and desperately charged on the position occupied by the Duke of Wellington and his staff. It was evidently their object to signalize themselves by the death or capture of the British commander. Even his personal escort was compelled to be continually on the alert, and was frequently engaged with the most enterprising of the advancing columns. The cavalry took a distinguished part in the action. They fiercely engaged the cuirassiers, lancers, and chasseurs, who had penetrated the line, and the battle was bravely contested man to man. Notwithstanding the most undaunted exertions on the part of the Earl

of Uxbridge, seconded by those of the other cavalry officers of the British army the light cavalry were found to suffer severely in their unequal encounter with the ponderous and sword-proof cuirassiers. Even the German legion, so distinguished for discipline and courage during the peninsular conflicts, were found unequal in the field of Waterloo to the shock of the French cavalry. But no sooner had Sir John Elley asked and obtained permission to bring up the heavy brigade, consisting of the Life Guards, the Oxford Blues, and the Scotch Greys, than a charge was made which overwhelmed all resistance. The armour of the cuirassiers, the weight of their squadrons, and the power of their horses, united, proved altogether unable to withstand the shock of the heavy brigade; they were literally ridden down upon the field; and, in the homely but emphatic language of one of the Life Guards men, “hundreds of them were unhorsed, and cracked like lobster shells in their shells.” Others were forced headlong over a sort of quarry or gravel pit, where they rolled a confused and undistinguished mass of men and horses, exposed to the galling fire of the 95th, which being poured closely in upon them, soon put a period to their struggles.

Napoleon, perceiving the error that had been committed, in the “movement of impatience,” brought forward the whole centre of his infantry, to assist, and, if possible, to disengage his cavalry. A close column of French pressed forward, with irresistible vigour, and marched on to carry the village of Mount St. Jean, in the rear of the British position. The Duke of Wellington felt the critical situation in which his army was placed, and presenting himself wherever the danger was most imminent, led on in person several successive charges, exclaiming repeatedly—“We must not be beat; what would they say in England?” When any of the squares appeared to falter, he threw himself into the midst of them, and the consciousness of the treasure committed to their care rendered them firm as the rock, against which the spray beats harmlessly. By the constancy of his troops, he succeeded in arresting the further progress of the enemy, and snatched from them that advantage which they had gained. The enemy, in their turn, now began to retreat; the farm of La Haye Sainte was retaken, and the combatants again occupied the situation which they had held at the commencement of the attack on the British centre, with this difference only, that the French troops had established themselves

* French Official Account of the battle of Waterloo, dated Paris, June 21, 1815.—“The French authors have pretended,” says Sir Walter Scott, “that squares were broken, and colours taken; but this assertion, by the united testimony of every British officer present, is a positive untruth. This was not, however, the fault of the cuirassiers, who displayed an almost frantic valour. They rallied again and again, and returned to the onset, till the British could recognise even the faces of individuals among their enemies. Some rode close up to the bayonets, fired their pistols, and cut with their swords, with reckless and useless valour. Some stood at gaze, and were destroyed by the musketry and artillery. Some squadrons, passing through the intervals of the first line, charged the squares of Belgians posted there, with as little success. At length, the cuirassiers suffered so severely on every hand, that they were compelled to abandon the attempt, which they had made with such intrepid and desperate courage. In this unheard-of struggle, the greater part of the French heavy cavalry were absolutely destroyed.”

on a small mount on the left of the road from Brussels to Charleroi, and never quit it till the grand advance of the British army at the close of the engagement.

It was with the greatest difficulty, the duke could restrain the impetuosity of his troops; and in visiting the different stations he was often received with shouts of impatience. The gallant 95th in particular, wearied with the iron cases and the iron grape-shot, requested to be led on: "Not yet, not yet, my brave fellows!" was the duke's reply; "be firm a little longer."

The attacks on the right, the left, and the centre, now described, formed a fair specimen of the reiterated contests till four o'clock in the afternoon. At that hour, a new series of attacks commenced along the whole extent of the British line, but principally upon the centre, sometimes with infantry, at others with cavalry, and frequently with both united; while three hundred pieces of artillery on each side vomited forth their death dispensing charges. Terrible as the slaughter was, it would have been yet more dreadful, had not the shells, owing to the wetness of the ground, frequently buried themselves in the earth, and when they exploded, produced no other effect than that of casting up a tremendous mountain of mud.

The Duke of Wellington had placed his best troops in the first line; already, they had suffered severely, and it was found that the quality of those brought up to support them was in some instances unequal to the duty they were required to discharge. A Belgian regiment, which had given way on entering the first line, was again brought to its post by the duke in person; but no sooner had they crossed the ridge of the hill, and again become exposed to the storm of balls and shells, from which they had before retreated, than they once more marched to the right about, and left their general to find in a Brunswick regiment more steady and resolute followers. In another part of the field, the Hanoverian hussars of Cumberland, as they were called, a corps distinguished by their high plumes, and the other embellishments of continental military foppery, were ordered to avail themselves of an opportunity that presented itself to charge the French cavalry; but instead of making the proposed advance, they retreated, and took up a position behind the hamlet of St. Jean.*

These instances were by no means characteristic of the general conduct of the Hanoverian or Belgian troops, by both of whom the fight was in other parts of the field gallantly sustained; but they may serve to show that the duke could not repose implicit confidence in the raw troops and militia of whom his second line was chiefly composed, and will still more highly exalt that prudence which induced him to restrain the ardour of his troops, till the arrival of the Prussians. The invitation held out to a Belgic corps by the French troops, and conveyed in the cry "Brave Belgians, come over, and join your old comrades!" was rejected with disdain.

It was now five o'clock, and still the Prussians, so long expected, and so ardently wished for, had not yet arrived. The British reserves were all in action; their loss was already severe in the extreme; and the brave Scotch division was reduced to one-third its number. The sixth division, still less fortunate, because less actively engaged, had been almost destroyed without firing a gun; and patient endurance, though still as necessary as ever, began to find its limit. The spirits of the soldiers drooped; they scorned the thoughts of a retreat; and were eager to be led against the enemy; but thus to stand as targets for the French columns to direct their fire against was more than they could much longer endure. An indifference to life was fast spreading through the ranks; and the penetrating mind of the commander became a prey to the most anxious suspense. Success was more than doubtful. Another hour, without the appearance of Blücher, might render defeat inevitable. Still the Duke of Wellington was cool and collected, and while he looked at his watch with a frequency and intentness that sufficiently indicated the anxiety he felt for the arrival of his allies, he continued firm at his post. "All who heard him issue orders took confidence from his quick and decisive intellect; and

accountably, he said, escaped the commander-in-chief, that his regiment were all gentlemen. This diverting response was carried back to the Duke of Wellington, who despatched the messenger again to say, that if the gentlemen would take post upon an eminence, which he pointed out in the rear, they would have an excellent view of the battle; and he would leave the choice of a proper time entirely to their own sagacity and discretion, in which he had the fullest confidence! The colonel, not perceiving the sarcasm conveyed by the messenger, actually thanked the aide-de-camp for this distinguished post of honour, and followed by his gallant train, was out of danger in a moment.—*Simpson's Visit to Flanders.*

* The colonel of this regiment, when ordered to advance, urged the enemy's strength—their numbers—and the consideration, which had un-

all who saw him caught metal from his undaunted composure." At this juncture, an aide-de-camp came with the information that the fifth division was almost destroyed, and that it was utterly impossible that they could longer maintain their ground against the murderous attacks to which they were exposed: "I cannot help it," said the duke, "they must keep their ground. They and I, and every Englishman in the field, must die on the spot, rather than give way. Would to God, that night or Blucher were come!"

The duke's personal staff, who had shared so many glories and dangers by the side of their commander, fell around him in rapid succession. The Prince of Nassau, one of his aides-de-camp, received two balls. The gallant General de Lancy was struck by a spent ball, while animating and leading back to the charge a battalion of Hanoverians, who had got into confusion, and exclaimed as he fell—"Leave me to die; my wound is mortal; attend to the duke; and do not waste that time on me which may be usefully employed in assisting others." These orders were too promptly obeyed; and, when, on the following morning, the bloody field was traversed, he was found yet living, and to the satisfaction and joy of his friends, hopes, fallacious ones, alas! were entertained of his recovery. He was removed to the village of Waterloo; and Lady de Lancy, who had arrived at Brussels a week before the battle, had the sad consolation to attend her dying husband, who expired six days after the battle—a martyr probably to his own generous disinterestedness. The same, but a more sudden, and consequently more enviable fate, awaited Lieutenant-colonel the Honourable Sir Alexander Gordon; while earnestly and affectionately remonstrating with the duke on the too free exposure of his invaluable life, he was struck by a musket-ball, which closed his career, by the side of his beloved commander. Colonel Ferrier, of the first life-guards, had led his regiment to the charge not less than eleven times, and several of these charges were made after his head had been laid open by the cut of a sabre; still unsubdued, he made a final effort; it was his last; he sunk in the bloom of life among the slain. Lieutenant-colonel Canning likewise now closed his career of glory. In his capacity of aide-de-camp to the duke, he had been sent with some important orders to a distant part of the line, and on his return was struck by a grape-shot on the breast. As he fell, his friend, Lord March, hastened to his assistance; the colonel with difficulty raised himself up,

and even in his last moments, sensible only to that enthusiastic regard for his commander which the Duke of Wellington so well knew how to inspire, eagerly inquired "Is the duke yet safe?"—"He is, my friend," was the reply. A smile of joy played round the lips of the dying hero—"God bless him!" he exclaimed, and then seizing the hand of the young nobleman, he feelingly added, "And God bless you," and expired. About this period of the battle, the Prince of Orange, while rallying some of his troops, who had shrunk from the impetuous attacks of the enemy, received a musket-ball in his arm which lodged in his shoulder, and obliged him to quit the field.

The frequency and impetuosity of the enemy's attacks were now redoubled; and the French, like the English commander fought with "infinite skill, perseverance and bravery." Although no credit is to be given to the accounts of the desperation with which he sought every danger, and his apparently firm determination to die on the field, yet he evinced much personal courage, and was always collected, and in full possession of the ample resources of his own capacious mind. The more the obstacles to his success multiplied, the more determined he became. He was indignant at these unforeseen difficulties; and far from hesitating to expose an army whose confidence in him knew no bounds, he continually sent forward fresh troops, with orders to charge with the bayonet, and to carry every thing before them. He was frequently told that at various points the battle was against him, and that his troops began to waver; but there was no wavering in his purpose—"Forward, forward!" was his only reply: a general sent his aide-de-camp to inform him that he found himself in a position which he could not maintain, owing to the dreadful fire of a battery, and to ask what he should do to support himself against this artillery? "Seize upon it," said Napoleon, and turned his back upon the aide-de-camp.*

An officer now approached with the intelligence that the Prussians were advancing in the rear of the right wing of the French army; but Napoleon appeared to be incredulous; he furiously dismissed the messenger, and affirmed that it was the corps of the French Marshal Grouchy, and that the success of the day was now certain and complete. It was now seven o'clock in the evening, and General Labedoyere was despatched by the emperor to Marshal Ney on the left, to inform him that Marshal

* Relation par un Témoin Oculaire.

Grouchy had arrived on the right of the French army, and attacked the left of the English and Prussians united. This general officer, in riding along the lines, spread the intelligence among the soldiers, whose courage and devotion remained unshaken, and who gave new proofs of them at that moment, in spite of the fatigue which they had experienced. But what was the astonishment, not to say indignation, of the French army, when they learned that so far from Marshal Grouchy having arrived to support them, between forty and fifty thousand Prussians, under General Bulow, had attacked the extreme right of the army.* Whether Napoleon was deceived with regard to the time when Marshal Grouchy could support him, or whether the march of the marshal was retarded by the efforts of the enemy, longer than was calculated upon, the fact is, that at the time when his arrival was announced to the French army, he was only at Wavre, upon the Dyle, which to us, says Marshal Ney, was the same as if he had been a hundred leagues from the field of battle.

The delayed arrival of the Prussians, which had occasioned to the commander of the English army so much anxiety, was to be attributed to no want of energy on the part of the generals. The passage of the Dyle over a narrow bridge had retarded their advance, and the deep defiles of St. Lambert, combined with the badness of the roads, had rendered it almost impossible to reach the scene of action before the fate of the day was decided. The point chosen to issue from the defiles was selected with admirable skill. It was at first proposed to advance above Fritchmont, but the intelligent peasant selected for the guide of the Prussians objected to this proposal, and urged the propriety of descending lower down the vale towards Planchenoit, and more in the rear of the French reserves, for then, said he, we shall take them all. The moment at which these reinforcements arrived was most critical; and one shudders to think that the fortune of such a day should so much depend on the knowledge and fidelity of a single peasant. Had he guided the Prussian corps wrong; had he led them into a neighbouring narrow way impassable to cannon; or had General Bulow's army come up one hour later, the enemy's 6th corps, stationed on the right, to watch the advance of the Prussians, might have been brought to assist their final operation against the British centre, and consequences, fatal perhaps to the whole campaign, might have ensued.

In the mean time, the French troops of the 6th corps, under General Count Lobau, had repulsed the advanced guard of the Prussians, and driven them again into the woods. Animated by this success, and fully aware of the exigency of his situation, Napoleon determined to make one of those grand efforts by which he had so frequently snatched victory from the hands of his enemies. Notwithstanding the perseverance with which he had renewed his attacks upon the English positions, and the vast number of his best troops that had already fallen, he had still in reserve four regiments of the middle guard, who, remaining on the heights of La Belle Alliance, or covered by the hill, had never yet come into the battle. On the approach of night, Napoleon determined to devote this proved and faithful reserve, and putting himself at their head, to make one last and desperate effort to force the left centre of the British army at La Haye Sainte. For this purpose, he left the more distant point of observation, which he had for some time occupied upon the heights in the rear of the line, and descending from the hill, placed himself in the midst of the highway fronting Mount St. Jean, within a quarter of a mile of the British line. The banks, which rise high on each side of the road, protected him from such balls as did not come in a direct line, but it does not appear that he was protected by any ravine in front. Here he harangued his troops while they defiled before him. He reminded them how often he had relied on their valour in cases of emergency, and told them that he had never relied upon it in vain. The enemy's cavalry and infantry, he said, were almost annihilated, and could offer no effectual resistance; their artillery, it was true, was still numerous and formidable, but this force must give way before the point of the bayonet. This animating address he concluded by pointing to the causeway in front, and exclaiming—"That, gentlemen, is the road to Brussels!" The prodigious shouts of *Vive l'Empereur*, with which the guards answered this appeal, led the Duke of Wellington and the troops under his command to expect an instant renewal of the attack, with Napoleon as their leader; the troops however advanced under the command of Marshal Ney, and the emperor, in failing to take the personal command of his guards, whom he destined to try the last cast of his fortune, disappointed both his friends and his enemies.

The imperial guard, rallying in their progress such of the broken cavalry and infantry of the line as yet maintained the combat, advanced dauntlessly, and a momentary pause took place in the British

* The Prince of Muskwa's letter to the Duke of Otranto, dated Paris, June 26, 1815.

fire. But no sooner did the head of the French columns present themselves within the range of the British artillery, than an enflading fire opened upon them with an effect so tremendous as to present the appearance of a large body of men advancing perpetually from the hollow way without ever gaining ground on the plain. Enthusiasm, however, joined to the impulse communicated from the rear, at length carried the whole of the attacking force into the plain. A body of Brunswickers at first attempted to oppose them; but after an ineffectual resistance, they were defeated with immense slaughter. The French troops had now penetrated within the British lines; and it seemed impossible for the duke to rally a sufficient force to arrest their progress. They carried every thing before them, and once more in this strange and eventful battle, victory inclined to the side of Napoleon: "In this state of affairs," says the French bulletin, "the battle was gained; we occupied all the positions which the enemy occupied at the outset of the battle. . . . After eight hours' fire, and charges of infantry and cavalry, all the army saw with joy the battle gained, and the field of battle in our power."^{*}

But the English, it appears, did not know when they were beaten. Immediately in the rear, was the Duke of Wellington, riding backwards and forwards, and, like the genius of the storm, directing its thunders; and on the brow of the hill, immediately in front of the French advancing columns, a regiment of British guards had been ordered to lie down, to shelter themselves from the enemy's fire. The imperial guards still advanced; and had approached within a hundred yards, when the duke suddenly exclaimed—"Up, guards, and at them." In an instant, the guards sprung upon their feet, and assumed the offensive. The unexpected appearance of this fine body of men, startled the French battalions, and they suddenly paused; but immediately recovering themselves, they advanced still more rapidly, and at a given signal their artillery filed off to the right and left. They approached within twenty yards of their opponents, and were in the act of dashing upon them with the bayonet, when a volley was poured upon them by the British, now formed in line four ranks deep, which literally threw the enemy back with the shock. A second volley heightened their confusion; and before they had time to deploy or to manœuvre, the British cheered, and rushed furiously

upon them with the point of the bayonet, but not one of the French guards stopped to cross bayonets with the household troops of the rival nation. Napoleon witnessed the recoil with the same clearness as the English general, but with feelings how different! He wished to rally the fugitives, and lead them in person to another effort; but Bertrand and Drouet threw themselves before him, and representing how much the safety of France and of the army depended upon his life, besought him to forbear. Napoleon suffered himself to be persuaded; and seeing that all was lost, fell back to his former station.

The main body of the Prussians had already arrived—Marshal Blücher by Ohain, and General Bulow in the direction of Planchenoit. As the Prussian commander-in-chief pressed forward upon the enemy, intelligence was brought him that the corps which he had left at Wavre, under General Thielman, was pressed by a superior force, under Marshal Grouchy, and that they could with difficulty maintain their position. This news made little impression upon the veteran—it was at Waterloo, and not at Wavre, that the battle must be decided, and the advancing columns continued, under this impression, to urge on their forward movements. The countenance of the Duke of Wellington, now brightened into a smile; his watch, so long held in his hand to mark the progress of time, while he invoked the arrival of night or of the Prussians, was restored to his pocket; and he exclaimed, exultingly, "There goes old Blücher at last; we shall beat them yet."

"The decisive moment had arrived. The duke now ordered the whole line to move forward; nothing could be more beautiful. The sun, which had hitherto been veiled, at this instant shed upon the allies his departing rays, as if to smile upon the efforts they were making, and to bless them with success."^{*} The centre of the advancing army, led on by the Duke of Wellington in person,† proceeded in line to the decisive charge, while the flank regiments were formed into hollow squares, in order to repel any attacks that might be made by the enemy's cavalry. Nothing could resist the impetuosity of the attack. The French fought with bravery and desperation; but their first line was speedily penetrated; the second afforded little more resistance, and complete confusion and rout ensued. Cries of "All is lost," issued

* French Official Account of the battle of the 18th, dated Paris, June 21st, 1815.

* See Plate.

† General Alva's Despatch to the Spanish Secretary of State.

from all parts of the French army. "The soldiers," says the French bulletin, "pretend that on many points, ill-disposed persons cried out, *Sauve qui peut*—'Let him save himself who can.' However this might be, a complete panic at once spread itself through the whole field of battle, and the greatest disorder prevailed on the line of communication; soldiers, cannoniers, caissons, all pressed to this point." Enormous masses of infantry, supported by an immense cavalry, fell upon them in every direction, and summoned the guard to surrender. "The guard never surrender—they die!" was the heroic reply, while they slowly retreated inch by inch. Quarter that was rejected could not be given; and the carnage terminated only with resistance. The enemy was thus forced from his position on the heights, leaving behind him one hundred and fifty pieces of cannon, which fell into the hands of the English.

While these events were passing in the centre, the Prussian columns continued to advance. The whole of the 4th corps, and part of the 2d, under General Pirch, had successively come up. The French troops fought with desperate fury; some uncertainty was, however, perceived in their movements, and it was observed that several pieces of cannon were retreating. At this moment, the first columns of the corps of General Ziethen arrived on the points of attack, near the village of Smouhen, on the enemy's right flank, and instantly charged. The vigour of this charge could not be withstood. The enemy's right wing was broken in three places; they abandoned their position; and the Prussian troops, rushing forward at the *pas-de-charge*, completed their overthrow.* According to the French official account, their whole army was now nothing but a mass of confusion; all the soldiers, of all arms, were mixed *pele mele*, and it was utterly impossible to rally a single corps. Perceiving that all was lost, and "that his personal position was likely to be encircled by the British cavalry, Napoleon exclaimed to Bertrand—'*Il faut que nous nous sauvons*'—'We must save ourselves.' He then retreated with his staff about forty yards along the road, and halted about twenty yards from La Belle Alliance, where putting the glass to his eye, he saw the Scotch Greys intermingled with, and furiously cutting the French troops to pieces. This sight brought from him the exclamation—'*Qu'ils sont terribles ces chevaux gris!*'—'How terrible are those gray horses!'—'*Il faut nous depecher; nous depecher*'—

'We must hasten; we must hasten;' and the emperor and his suite galloped off the field."†

Night had now come on, and the Duke of Wellington and Marshal Blucher met in the dark at Belle Alliance, and embraced each other with transport. At the request of Marshal Blucher, the pursuit of the retreating army was consigned to the Prussians, and while the exhausted English were preparing their bivouacs, their gallant allies made a momentary pause to greet them with their favourite air of "God save the King," which was returned with three hearty cheers, combining the mingled feelings of gratitude and exultation.

The tremendous scenes of the day were surpassed by the horrors of the night. Marshal Blucher assembled all the superior officers of his army, and gave orders to send the last man and the last horse in pursuit of the enemy. The sun had long gone down, but no friendly darkness sheltered the fugitives; an unclouded moon, near her full, lighted the pursuers to their prey. The causeway between Waterloo and Genappe, is described as presenting the appearance of an immense shipwreck; it was covered with innumerable cannon, caissons, carriages, baggage, and arms, forming one vast and almost impenetrable chaos. No rallying point had been given to the French army; and it was now impossible to cause any command to be heard. Fear exaggerated the horrors of the fugitives; and the night, without being dark, considerably augmented the general disorder. Even Marshal Ney, the second in command, was alone, totally ignorant of what had become of the emperor, and altogether incapable of arresting a single soldier to oppose the progress of the victors.† The Prussians continued the pursuit during the whole night, and revenge itself was satiated with the blood of the panic-struck victims. It may be pleaded, not as a justification, but as an explanation of the ferocious joy with which the Prussians followed and destroyed the retreating army, that a mutual and deadly hatred animated the Prussians and the French, and the sanguinary scenes of Ligny, were amply atoned in the streets of Genappe.

The last stand made by the wreck of the French army, was at Genappe. Bonaparte effected his escape through this town before midnight; and the fugitives, who had intrenched themselves with cannon, and overturned carriages, awaited the

* Lacoste's Narrative.

† Letter from Marshal Ney to the Duke of Otranto.

* Marshal Blucher's Official Report.

approach of the Prussians with symptoms of reviving resolution. The progress of the Prussian troops was, for a moment, arrested by a brisk fire of musketry: some cannon-shot, however, followed by a loud *hurrah*, served to renew the panic, and to put the town in possession of the assailants. Here, among other equipages, the carriage of Napoleon, containing his papers, but not his person, was captured by Major Von Kohler; and his hat, sword, and casket of treasure, well stored with Napoleons, enhanced the value of the prize.* His travelling library, consisting of nearly eight hundred volumes, in six chests, was also taken, and among the books were found French translations of Homer and Ossian, the Bible, and the *Pucelle* of Voltaire!

The Brunswick cavalry, though they had borne their full share in all the fatigues of the day, asked and obtained permission to join in the pursuit. The destruction on the field of battle had not, in their estimation, sufficiently compensated for the death of their beloved leader. They now eagerly headed the chase, and their savage ferocity knew no bounds: not a man whom they could sacrifice to the *manes* of their prince was spared. As they charged through Genappe, the French general Duchesne, who commanded the rear-guard of the French army, was standing at the gate of an inn, when one of the Brunswick black hussars, perceiving that he was a superior officer, rode up to him, and instantly cut him down, exclaiming, "The duke fell the day before yesterday, and thou also shalt bite the dust." In some of the villages, the officers repeatedly attempted to rally the troops, and to maintain themselves under the protection

of the houses; but an inexplicable panic had seized on every heart, and they, whose bravery had, a few hours before, excited the warmest admiration of their enemies were now incapable of the least resistance. The beat of the drums or the sound of the trumpet of the Prussians, appalled the stoutest of their number, and they either fled, or threw themselves into the houses, where they were cut down or made prisoners.

Early in the morning of the 19th of June, Marshal Blücher's head-quarters were established at Genappe, and thence he addressed a letter to the governor of Berlin, announcing "the most complete victory ever obtained."*

At break of day, the feeble wreck of the French army began to arrive at Charleroi and Marchienne, where they eagerly pressed on to repossess the Sambre. Four days before, they had proudly traversed these places as conquerors, through which they now stole fearfully, as if dreading to be recognised, or to find an avenging enemy in the peaceable inhabitant. The most melancholy part of the cavalcade was the long column of wounded, who clung to each other as if they sought consolation or protection in the contemplation of the common misery. Some of them crept slowly along on foot; others were mounted on horses which they had forcibly taken from the wagons that had been abandoned at every step of the road. They were pale, feeble, and covered with the bloody linen which they had hastily bound around their streaming wounds. As they approached the bridge of Charleroi, the horrors of the passage of the Beresina were renewed.† The road, which had previously been completely filled with the strangely mingled columns of the retreating army, here becomes suddenly contracted. Horsemen, infantry, and carriages, rushed on, contend-

* This vehicle was afterwards brought over to England, and exhibited for many months at the London Museum. In this favourite carriage Napoleon travelled to Moscow, and afterwards to Dresden. After the campaign of Paris it bore him to the shores of the Mediterranean, and was shipped with him for Elba. On his return from that island, he made in this, his moving palace, his triumphant journey to Paris, and in it he was conveyed to the field of Waterloo. But the Prussian bulletin is in error, when it states, that Napoleon had just quitted the carriage at the time it was taken—he had, in fact, never entered it after the battle. The captured carriage is one of the most perfect specimens of elegance and convenience that can well be imagined—though only of the ordinary size, it is a complete bed-room, dressing-room, dining-room, kitchen, and offices. Packed up in the most compact way are whole services of china, with knives, forks, spoons, and decanters, with a dressing-case, containing all the articles for the toilet. A complete wardrobe, bedstead, bed and mattresses, afforded their respective accommodations; and all so arranged as to present themselves in an instant, without incommoding the traveller.

* LETTER FROM MARSHAL BLÜCHER TO
GENERAL VON KALKREUTH.

"I have to inform your excellency, that, in conjunction with the British army under the Duke of Wellington, I yesterday gained the most complete victory over Napoleon Bonaparte that ever was obtained. The battle took place in the neighbourhood of a few houses, situated on the road from hence to Brussels, called *La Belle Alliance*; and a better name cannot well be given to this important day. The whole French army is in a state of perfect dissolution, and an extraordinary number of guns have been taken. Time will not permit me to state more particulars to your excellency. The details shall follow, and I only beg you to impart this news immediately to the loyal citizens of Berlin.

"BLÜCHER."

"Head-quarters, Genappe, June 19,
half-past five o'clock, A. M."

† See vol. ii. book iv. p. 237.

ing who should cross first; the stronger unfeelingly thrust aside or threw down the weaker, and too often drew their sabres or their bayonets on those who offered any resistance. Numbers fell under the wheels of the wagons or artillery, and at length the heaps of dead bodies, continually increasing, choked up the road, and formed an almost insurmountable obstacle against the advance of the rear. At this dreadful moment, the enemy appeared, and the confusion was redoubled. Some hastily cut the traces of their horses, and springing upon them abandoned their carriages, forcing their way through the crowd. Others turned off at the foot of the bridge, and driving furiously along the banks of the Sambre, sought for a passage, and at length, madly plunging in, were swept away by the torrent. Those of the French who had escaped from the field, and who had been able to continue their flight without much impediment, did not expect to be so closely pursued. Worn out with fatigue, and fainting from want of food, they halted at some of the villages, to recruit their exhausted powers. But they had scarcely tasted their repast, when crowds of fugitives precipitated themselves upon them, exclaiming that the Prussians were coming. The blast of the trumpet too soon confirmed the intelligence, and they were driven from one bivouac to another, till the victors were glutted with slaughter, or they were unable longer to continue the pursuit from mere fatigue.*

A little beyond Charleroi, two roads present themselves, one of which conducts to Avesnes, the other to Philippeville. Napoleon, confident of victory, had fixed no rallying point in case of retreat. No general was at hand to direct their route, and the army divided as chance or inclination determined. The most numerous division took the road by which they had advanced, and marched upon Avesnes, while the others moved upon Philippeville. Many fugitives threw themselves into the adjacent woods, with no other design than to avoid the enemy's cavalry; and thus the army became gradually dispersed, and at length nearly disappeared. Thousands of soldiers, wandering about in uncertainty, and quitting the woods in crowds, spread themselves over the country, and raised a general alarm. The unfortunate inhabitants were plunged into despair, to find themselves at once a prey to an army let loose from all the restraints of discipline, and to an implacable enemy, rendered still more ferocious by a dear-

bought victory. Everywhere, the fortresses hastily closed their gates, from fear of surprise, and refused admittance even to their own unfortunate countrymen, who were in consequence obliged to seek for quarters in the neighbouring hamlets, where they committed every kind of excess.*

Napoleon, in the mean time, passed through Charleroi in the night of the 18th, and, surrounded by a few of his staff, halted about three leagues beyond that city. In the bivouac at this place, pitched upon a grass-plot, a fire was kindled, and refreshments prepared, of which he partook, being the first food he had taken for fourteen hours.† On his departure from that place, his guide was dismissed, with the trifling present of a Napoleon d'or for his services, and the emperor and his suite, directing their course to the French capital, took the route of Philippeville, Rocroi, and Mezieres. Marshal Grouchy, who on the morning of the 18th, had forced the passage of the Dyle at Wavre, was advancing on the rear of General Bulow, to co-operate with the French army at Waterloo; but on hearing of the disaster at that place, he retreated to Namur, and by this retrograde movement had the good fortune to preserve his corps from the general overthrow.

While the Prussian field-marshal was employed in pursuing the flying enemy, the Duke of Wellington slowly led his army over the field of battle. The thunders of the artillery, and the clangour of clashing weapons, wielded by combatants engaged in mortal fight, were heard no more. All was hushed and silent, except where the moans of the wounded, or the agonizing shrieks of the dying, burst upon the ear. The moon, riding in unveiled majesty, shed a pale and mournful light on the horrors of the scene. When the duke contemplated the piles of dead which were heaped on every side, and reflected how many hearts even the joyful news of this brilliant but sanguinary victory would sadden; the sternness of the hero was absorbed in the feelings of the man, and he burst into tears. The glory of a victory so dearly bought, afforded him no consolation; and nothing but a persuasion that the sacrifices of this day would be crowned with the attainment of the first object of his ambition, alleviated his sorrow for the losses the country and the service had sustained.

The British troops, though worn out with fatigue, disdained to indulge in the repose which nature so much required, till they

* Boyce's Narrative.

* Relation par un Témoin Oculaire.

† Lacoste's Narrative.

had sought out their wounded companions, bound up their wounds, and despatched numbers of them to the hospitals at Brussels and Antwerp.* Nor was their humanity

* LIST OF BRITISH REGIMENTS.

Under the command of Field-marshal the Duke of Wellington, on Sunday, June 18th, 1815; exhibiting their total loss from the 16th to the 26th of June, 1815, extracted from official returns:—

	OFFICERS.			RANK AND FILE.			
	Killed.	Wounded.	Missing.	Killed.	Wounded.	Missing.	Total.
General staff, . . .	12	46	3				61
1st Life Guards, . . .	2	4		24	49	4	83
2d Life Guards, . . .	1	1		16	40	97	156
Royal H. G. Blues, . . .	1	4	1	19	61	20	106
1st Dragoon Guards, . . .	3	4	4	40	100	124	275
2d Dragoon Guards, . . .							
1st, or Royal Drag., . . .	4	9	1	86	88	9	197
2d, or R. N. B. Drag., . . .	6	8		96	89		199
6th Dragoons, . . .	1	6	1	72	111	27	217
7th Hussars, . . .	7	3		62	109	15	196
10th Hussars, . . .	2	6		20	40	26	94
11th Light Dragoons, . . .	2	5		10	34	26	76
12th Light Dragoons, . . .	2	3		45	61		111
13th Light Dragoons, . . .	1	9		11	69	19	109
15th Hussars, . . .	2	3		21	48	5	79
16th Light Dragoons, . . .	2	4		8	18		32
18th Hussars, . . .	2	2		13	72	17	104
23d Light Dragoons, . . .	5	1		14	26	33	79
1st Light D. K. G. L., . . .	3	11		30	99	10	153
2d ditto, . . .	2	4		19	54	3	82
1st Hussars, ditto, . . .	1	1		1	5	3	10
2d Hussars, ditto, . . .							
3d ditto, ditto, . . .	4	8		40	79		130
Royal Artillery, . . .	5	26		62	228	10	361
Ditto, K. G. L., . . .							
Royal Engineers, . . .	2						2
Royal Staff Corps, . . .	2						2
Royal Sappers & M., . . .	1			2			3
1st Foot Guards, . . .							
2d Battalion, . . .	3	9		73	363		438
3d Battalion, . . .	4	12		101	487		604
2d Cold. Regiment, . . .	1	7		54	242	4	308
3d F. G. 2d Batt., . . .	3	9		39	196		240
1st F. (R. S.) 3d Batt., . . .	8	26		33	296		362
4th Foot, 1st Batt., . . .	9			12	113		134
2d Battalion, . . .							
7th Foot, 1st Batt., . . .				7	26		36
14th Foot, 3d Batt., . . .		3					
23d Foot, . . .	5	6		13	80		104
25th Foot, 2d Batt., . . .							
27th Foot, 1st Batt., . . .	2	13		103	360		478
28th Foot, ditto, . . .	1	19		29	203		262
29th Foot, 1st Batt., . . .							
30th Foot, ditto, . . .	6	14		51	181	27	279
32d Foot, . . .	1	30		49	280		370
33d ditto, . . .	5	17		49	162	58	291
35th ditto, . . .				1			1
37th ditto, 2d Batt., . . .							
40th ditto, 1st Batt., . . .	2	10		30	169	18	219
42d Foot, 1st Batt., . . .	3	21		47	266		337
44th ditto, 2d Batt., . . .	2	18		14	151	17	202
51st ditto, . . .		2		11	29		42
52d ditto 1st Batt., . . .	1	8		16	174		199
54th ditto, . . .				2	2		4
59th ditto, . . .				2			2
60th ditto, 2d Batt., . . .	4	7		51	163	15	240
71st Foot, 1st Batt., . . .	1	14		24	160	3	202
73d Foot, 2d Batt., . . .	6	16		54	219	41	336
78th ditto, 2d Batt., . . .							
79th ditto, 1st Batt., . . .	3	27	1	57	390	1	479
81st Foot, 2d Batt., . . .							
91st Foot, . . .	2			1	6		9
92d ditto, . . .	4	27		49	322		402
96th, 1st Battalion, . . .	2	15		28	175		220
2d ditto, . . .		14		34	178	20	246
3d ditto, . . .		4		3	36	7	50
13th Veteran Batt., . . .							
1st L. In. B. K. G. L., . . .	4	9		37	82	13	146
2d ditto, ditto, . . .	3	9	1	40	120	29	202
1st Line Batt. K. G. L., . . .	1	6		22	69	17	115

confined to their own countrymen; even those who had so lately thirsted for their blood—those by whose ranks they had been thinned, shared in their tenderness. In the left wing alone, more than five hundred Frenchmen were indebted for their lives to the generosity and compassion of the British soldiers. On every part of the field, the troops were seen diligently employed in constructing litters, and carefully conveying both friends and foes to the huts they had erected for their comfort, where their hunger and thirst were supplied out of the little stock of their generous benefactors. In many places, a still more interesting scene was presented: the wounded soldiers, after their own injuries had been attended to, were seen carefully and tenderly staunching the wounds of their conquered enemies, many of whom afterwards found an asylum in the hospitals at Antwerp.*

	OFFICERS.			RANK AND FILE.			
	Killed.	Wounded.	Missing.	Killed.	Wounded.	Missing.	Total.
2d Line Batt. K. G. L., . . .	1	2		18	79	7	107
3d ditto, ditto, . . .	1	5		17	93	31	147
4th ditto, ditto, . . .	1	7		13	77	15	113
5th ditto, ditto, . . .	2	3		36	47	74	162
8th ditto, ditto, . . .	3	4		44	80	16	147
THE DUTCH LOSS, . . .	27	115		2068	1936		4126

THE PRUSSIAN DO. VIZ.							
1st C. Jun. 15 to July 3, . . .	38	200	27	2418	5322	6434	14439
2d C. June 15 to 23, . . .	29	151	7	1280	3915	2234	7616
3d C. Jun. 15 to July 3, . . .	16	107	2	834	2636	1129	4734
4th C. June 15 to 23, . . .	23	148	6	1132	3671	1174	6363

Total Prussian Loss, . . .							33132
Total loss of the Allied Armies during the campaign.							
BRITISH, . . .							11,116
HANOVERIAN, . . .							2,960
DUTCH, . . .							4,136
PRUSSIAN, . . .							33,132
Grand Total . . .							51,344

Exclusive of the Brunswick loss, of which no returns have been exhibited.

* The inextinguishable zeal of the French soldiery towards their emperor, here assumed a character bordering on romance. Far from considering themselves as wantonly sacrificed, and afterwards basely deserted at Waterloo, the resources of their fertile imaginations were exhausted, in order to express their profound attachment to their fallen chief. One man, whose wounds rendered the loss of his arm necessary, tossed his amputated limb in the air, with the exclamation of *Vive l'Empereur*. Another, at the moment of preparation to take off his leg, declared that there was one thing that would cure him on the spot, and save his limb and the operator's trouble. When asked to explain this strange remark, he said—"a sight of the emperor!" The indispensable amputation did not save his life; he died under the surgeon's hands; and his last words, while steadfastly looking on his own blood, consisted in a declaration that he would cheerfully shed the last drop in his veins for the great Napoleon! A singularly wild, and almost poetic fancy, was the

The murderous charges at the close of the battle had been fatal to many of the British officers. Sir Francis d'Oyly, of the first-foot guards, fell in the very last charge to which his regiment was led, and at the moment when the broken battalions of the enemy were preparing to quit the field. Colonel Fitzgerald, of the second regiment of life-guards, fell nearly at the same moment, while he was cheering his men to the pursuit of the foe. Almost the last shot that was fired upon the British, wounded the gallant Earl of Uxbridge—Paget, as Napoleon called him, and which name was familiar to the ears of his countrymen during the peninsular war. He had personally led every charge of cavalry, and was not wounded until almost all danger had ceased. The chair is yet shown in the farm of La Belle Alliance in which his lordship sat and endured the amputation of his right leg without a single groan or contortion of countenance, exclaiming in the midst of the operation—"Who would not lose a leg for such a victory?"

The total loss of the British and Hanoverian troops in the allied army, in the battle of Waterloo, was stated on official authority, to amount to 10,676* men in killed, wounded, and missing; the Prussians lost, on the same day, from five to six thousand men; and the loss of the French was incalculable. In the chamber of peers, on the 22d of June, Marshal Ney stated, that so fatal had been the campaign, that the Duke of Dalmatia, on whom the command of the fugitive army devolved after Napoleon quitted Flanders, could not rally sixty thousand, including the corps under Marshal Grouchy; so that, in the brief campaign of a week, ninety thousand men were lost to the French army; and of this number, at least sixty thousand were killed, wounded, or prisoners, among the latter of whom were Count Lobau and General Cambronne. To add to this enormous disaster, three hundred pieces of cannon were captured from the vanquished, and the whole *materiel* of their army fell into the hands of the allies.

Never did France, in her brightest days, send into the field a nobler army than that which fought at Waterloo. It was an army of veterans, whom many years of service had accustomed to all the evolutions of the field, and rendered expert, fearless, and, in their own estimation, invincible. This

army was under the command of a general in the enjoyment of the most unbounded confidence of his legions, who had vanquished and overrun every state in continental Europe; and who had shown, by the events of the last four days, that his eagles, lately checked in their flight, were once more triumphantly expanding their wings, and promising again to soar to the pinnacle of glory. Against this formidable phalanx, the British general had to oppose an army inferior in numbers; somewhat dispirited at the retreat of the former day, and a little in awe of those who had two days before conquered, though not subdued the most celebrated general of northern Europe. The courage and impetuosity of the French had never been exceeded. Charges more desperate and persevering, modern warfare had not witnessed. Napoleon had studied the character of the French nation profoundly, and his system of warfare, though exposed to the censures which always await the unfortunate, was best suited to their peculiar energies, and was the truest proof of his genius. The French soldiers are capable only of active courage; daring, impetuous, enthusiastic, they brave every danger, and surmount every obstacle, when their energies are called into full activity. But of passive courage they are incapable; and when cool, determined resolution is necessary, the hopes reposed in them are generally disappointed.

On this principle, Napoleon adopted his *en avant* system of tactics. The brilliant success which attended his career, until rendered insane by ambition, is a proof that he had calculated justly. Never were these national characteristics more decisively shown, than at the battle of Waterloo. While the French were employed in a succession of desperate charges, their courage seemed invincible: at the voice of their commander, they returned again and again to the charge, with undiminished alacrity; and, at the very close of the day, the last and desperate attack of the guards was accompanied with loud and rapturous shouts of *Vive l'Empereur!* But when the English, in their turn, became the assailants, the scene was suddenly and completely changed: they, whose bravery had excited the warmest applause of their enemies, sunk to the level of poltroons. Their first line was easily broken, the second offered no effectual resistance, and the whole army abandoned itself to a flight more disorderly and disgraceful than any which the annals of ancient or modern warfare record.

In both active and passive courage, the allies, under a British commander, show-

form in which a third displayed his enthusiasm: he was undergoing, with great steadiness, the operation of the extraction of a ball from his left side, when, in the moment of his greatest suffering, he exclaimed—"An inch deeper, and you'll find the emperor!"—*Simpson's Visit to Flanders.*

* London Gazette, July 8th, 1815.

ed themselves decidedly superior to the French. The tremendous and murderous charges of the foe were received by the British with a courage that never faltered. Though their ranks were thinned, and their squares diminished, they still presented a stern and unbroken front. Although, at the close of the day, some of their battalions were nearly annihilated, and the soldiers began to murmur, and almost to despair, yet they did not disgrace their character or their cause. It was not the murmur of fear, or the depression of cowardice. It was the complaint which protracted inactivity produced; the irresistible and intolerable pain that arose from the long repression of their energies. They murmured, not because they were forbidden to retreat before a superior and impetuous foe, but because they were restrained from rushing upon him, and convincing him what British valour could do as well as suffer. The moment the duke ordered the general charge, every bosom swelled with enthusiasm, and one universal shout proclaimed their exultation. Though enfeebled by a desperate and protracted contest, their strength and activity were in an instant restored:—they pressed on to the attack, and the day was their own. They had withstood, without confusion or fear, innumerable charges of the enemy, but the first general charge which they were permitted to make, drove the French in disorder from the field.

This splendid victory was not more owing to the unequalled bravery of the troops, than to the skill, the gallantry, and the firmness of their illustrious commander. In all the great achievements which he had hitherto performed, he had never maintained so arduous a struggle, he had never gained so complete and glorious a triumph. There was no species of heroism or of military science that could adorn a field of battle, which was not displayed by the Duke of Wellington on this memorable day. Wherever danger was most imminent, there he was uniformly present. "To see a commander of his eminence," said one of our distinguished statesmen, who scorned the language of adulation, "throw himself into a hollow square of infantry as a secure refuge, till the rage and torrent of the attack was passed, and that not once only, but twice or thrice in the course of the battle, proved that his confidence was placed, not in any particular corps, but in the whole army. In that mutual confidence, lay the power and strength of the troops. The duke knew that he was safe when he thus trusted himself to the fidelity and valour of his men; and they knew and felt that the sacred charge thus con-

fided to them could never be wrested from their hands."* In this "agony of his fame," his staff rapidly fell around him; every one, except the Spanish General Alava, suffered in his life or his limbs; yet the duke continued fearlessly to expose himself in the very thickest of the fire, and how he escaped unhurt, that Power can alone tell, who vouchsafed to the allied armies the issue of this pre-eminent contest.

Often in the day, he was urged by the officers, and wherever he appeared he was entreated by the men, to lead them against the enemy. "Not yet, not yet," so frequently repeated by their general, served to restrain the impatience of his troops till the decisive moment; and it does infinite credit to his discretion and penetration, that not even the partial successes which attended the operations of several periods of the day, could tempt him to depart from the prudent and well-digested plan on which he had determined to act. Had he assumed offensive operations before the arrival of the main body of the Prussians, he could scarcely have hoped to have beaten the superior numbers and veteran troops to whom he was opposed; or, had he been victorious, all that he could have effected, inferior as he was in cavalry, would have been to have compelled the French to a hasty but orderly retreat. Merely to have repulsed the French army, would have been to little purpose. It was necessary to strike a decisive blow, and the Duke of Wellington anxiously awaited the favourable moment. He felt all the tortures of suspense, but despair was always far from him. At length, the thunder of General Bulow's artillery was heard on the left: a violent and convulsive struggle ensued: symptoms of indecision began to show themselves in the enemy's ranks. The system of defence was instantly abandoned by the British commander: the restraint, so long imposed upon the impetuous valour of his troops, was withdrawn: the whole line was led on to the charge, and the decisive blow was struck. All the consequences were produced, which the sagacious mind of Wellington had predicted. The campaign was terminated, the throne of Napoleon tottered to its fall, and the peace of Europe, excepting only the forms, was again re-established.

The glory of the Duke of Wellington had now reached its summit. Even Napoleon had acknowledged that the duke was the *second* captain of the age, and on the field of Waterloo he established his

* Speech of Mr. Whitbread, in the house of commons, on the grant to the Duke of Wellington June 23d, 1815.

claim to the title of *le vainqueur du vainqueur de la terre*. If any thing could add to the lustre of his fame, it was the singular modesty with which, in his official despatches, the glorious and important events of the day were related;* and his

* LONDON GAZETTE EXTRAORDINARY.

Downing-street, June 22d, 1815.

Major the Honourable H. Percy arrived late last night with a despatch from Field-marshal the Duke of Wellington, K. G. to Earl Bathurst, his majesty's principal secretary of state for the war department, of which the following is a copy:—

Waterloo, June 19th, 1815.

My Lord,—Bonaparte having collected the 1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, and 6th corps of the French army, and the Imperial Guards, and nearly all the cavalry, on the Sambre, between that river and the Meuse, between the 10th and the 14th of the month, advanced on the 15th, and attacked the Prussian posts at Thuin and Lobez, on the Sambre, at daylight in the morning.

I did not hear of these events till the evening of the 15th, and I immediately ordered the troops to prepare to march; and afterwards to march to their left, as soon as I had intelligence from other quarters to prove that the enemy's movement upon Charleroi was the real attack.

The enemy drove the Prussian posts from the Sambre on that day; and General Zieten, who commanded the corps which had been at Charleroi, retired upon Fleurus; and Marshal Prince Blücher concentrated the Prussian army upon Sombref, holding the villages in front of his position of St. Amand and Ligny.

The enemy continued his march along the road from Charleroi towards Brussels, and on the same evening the 15th, attacked a brigade of the army of the Netherlands, under Prince De Weimar, posted at Frasne, and forced it back to the farmhouse on the same road, called Les Quatre Bras.

The Prince of Orange immediately reinforced this brigade with another of the same division, under General Perponcher, and, in the morning early, regained part of the ground which had been lost, so as to have the command of the communication leading from Nivelles and Brussels, with Marshal Blücher's position.

In the mean time, I had directed the whole army to march upon Les Quatre Bras, and the 5th division, under Lieut.-general Sir Thomas Picton, arrived at about half-past two in the day, followed by the corps of troops under the Duke of Brunswick, and afterwards by the contingent of Nassau.

At this time, the enemy commenced an attack upon Prince Blücher with his whole force, excepting the 1st and 2d corps; and a corps of cavalry under General Kellerman, with which he attacked our post at Les Quatre Bras.

The Prussian army maintained their position with their usual gallantry and perseverance, against a great disparity of numbers, as the 4th corps of their army, under General Bulow, had not joined, and I was not able to assist them as I wished, as I was attacked myself, and the troops, the cavalry in particular, which had a long distance to march, had not arrived.

We maintained our position also, and completely defeated and repulsed all the enemy's attempts to get possession of it. The enemy repeatedly attacked us with a large body of infantry and cavalry, supported by a numerous and powerful artillery; he made several charges with the cavalry upon our infantry, but all were repulsed in

private letters are distinguished by that characteristic modesty and candour which run through his official communications. In a letter to his mother, written after the battle, speaking of Napoleon, he says:—"He did his duty—he fought the battle

the steadiest manner. In this affair, his royal highness the Prince of Orange, the Duke of Brunswick, and Lieut.-general Sir Thomas Picton, and Major-general Sir James Kempt, and Sir Denis Pack, who were engaged from the commencement of the enemy's attack, highly distinguished themselves, as well as Lieut.-general Charles Baron Alten, Major-general Sir C. Halket, Lieut.-general Cooke, and Major-generals Maitland and Byng, as they successively arrived. The troops of the 5th division, and those of the Brunswick corps, were long and severely engaged, and conducted themselves with the utmost gallantry. I must particularly mention the 26th, 42d, 79th, 92d regiments, and the battalion of Hanoverians.

Our loss was great, as your lordship will perceive by the enclosed return; and I have particularly to regret his serene highness the Duke of Brunswick, who fell, fighting gallantly at the head of his troops.

Although Marshal Blücher had maintained his position at Sombref, he still found himself much weakened by the severity of the contest in which he had been engaged; and as the 4th corps had not arrived, he determined to fall back, and concentrated his army upon Wavre, and he marched in the night after the action was over.

This movement of the marshal's rendered necessary a corresponding one on my part; and I retired from the farm of Quatre Bras upon Genappe, and thence upon Waterloo the next morning, the 17th, at ten o'clock.

The enemy made no effort to pursue Marshal Blücher. On the contrary, a patrol which I sent to Sombref, in the morning, found all quiet, and the enemy's videttes fell back as the patrol advanced. Neither did he attempt to molest our march to the rear, although made in the middle of the day, excepting by following with a large body of cavalry (brought from his right) the cavalry under the Earl of Uxbridge.

This gave Lord Uxbridge an opportunity of charging them with the 1st Life Guards, upon their debouche from the village of Genappe, upon which occasion his lordship has declared himself to be well satisfied with that regiment.

The position which I took up in front of Waterloo, crossed the high roads from Charleroi and Nivelles, and had its right thrown back to a ravine near Merke Braine, which was occupied, and its left extended to a height above the hamlet Ter la Haye, which was likewise occupied. In front of the right centre, and near the Nivelles road, we occupied the house and garden of Hougoumont, which covered the return of that flank; and, in front of the left centre, we occupied the farm of La Haye Sainte. By our left, we communicated with Marshal Prince Blücher, at Wavre, through Ohain; and the marshal had promised me, that in case we should be attacked, he would support me with one or more corps, as might be necessary.

The enemy collected his army, with the exception of the third corps, which had been sent to observe Marshal Blücher, on a range of heights in our front, in the course of the night of the 17th, and yesterday morning; and at about ten o'clock he commenced a furious attack upon our post at Hougoumont. I had occupied that post with a

with infinite skill, perseverance, and bravery; and this I do not state from any personal motive of claiming merit to myself, for the victory is to be ascribed to the su-

perior physical force and constancy of British soldiers." In the same spirit of honourable frankness, he says, in a letter to his brother, the Hon. Wellesley Pole,—

detachment from General Byng's brigade of guards, which was in position in its rear; and it was for some time under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Macdonald, and afterwards of Colonel Home; and I am happy to add, that it was maintained, throughout the day, with the utmost gallantry, by these brave troops, notwithstanding the repeated efforts of large bodies of the enemy to obtain possession of it.

This attack upon the right of our centre, was accompanied by a very heavy cannonade upon our whole line, which was destined to support the repeated attacks of cavalry and infantry, occasionally mixed, but sometimes separate, which were made upon it. In one of these, the enemy carried the farm-house of La Haye Sainte, as the detachment of the light battalion of the legion which occupied it had expended all its ammunition, and the enemy occupied the only communication there was with them.

The enemy repeatedly charged our infantry with his cavalry; but these attacks were uniformly unsuccessful, and they afforded opportunities to our cavalry to charge, in one of which, Lord E. Somerset's brigade, Life Guards, Royal Horse Guards, and 1st Dragoon Guards, highly distinguished themselves; as did that of Major-general Sir W. Ponsonby, having taken many prisoners and an eagle.

These attacks were repeated till about seven in the evening, when the enemy made a desperate effort with the cavalry and infantry, supported by the fire of artillery, to force our left centre, near the farm of La Haye Sainte, which, after a severe contest, was defeated; and having observed that the troops retired from this attack in great confusion, and that the march of General Bulow's corps by Frichermont upon Planchenoit and La Belle Alliance, had begun to take effect; and as I could perceive the fire of his cannon, and as Marshal Prince Blücher had joined in person, with a corps of his army, to the left of our line, by Ohain, I determined to attack the enemy, and immediately advanced the whole line of infantry, supported by the cavalry and artillery. The attack succeeded in every point; the enemy was forced from his position on the heights, and fled in the utmost confusion, leaving behind him, as far as I could judge, one hundred and fifty pieces of cannon, with their ammunition, which fell into our hands.

I continued the pursuit till long after dark, and then discontinued it only on account of the fatigue of our troops, who had been engaged during twelve hours, and because I found myself on the same road with Marshal Blücher, who assured me of his intention to follow the enemy throughout the night; he has sent me word this morning, that he had taken sixty pieces of cannon belonging to the imperial guard, and several carriages, baggage, &c. belonging to Bonaparte, in Genappe. I propose to move, this morning, upon Nivelles, and not to discontinue my operations.

Your lordship will observe, that such a desperate action could not be fought, and such advantages could not be gained, without great loss; and, I am sorry to add, that ours has been immense. In Lieutenant-general Sir Thomas Picton, his majesty has sustained the loss of an officer who was frequently distinguished himself in his service; and he fell, gloriously leading his division

to a charge with bayonets, by which one of the most serious attacks made by the enemy on our position was defeated.

The Earl of Uxbridge, after having successfully got through this arduous day, received a wound, by almost the last shot fired, which will, I am afraid, deprive his majesty for some time of his services.

His royal highness the Prince of Orange distinguished himself by his gallantry and conduct, till he received a wound from a musket-ball through the shoulder, which obliged him to quit the field.

It gives me the greatest satisfaction to assure your lordship, that the army never, upon any occasion, conducted itself better. The division of guards, under Lieutenant-general Cooke, who is severely wounded, Major-general Maitland, and Major-general Byng, set an example which was followed by all; and there is no officer, nor description of troops, that did not behave well.

I must, however, particularly mention, for his royal highness's approbation, Lieutenant-general Sir H. Clinton, Major-general Adam, Lieutenant-general Charles Baron Alten, severely wounded; Major-general Sir Colin Halket, severely wounded; Colonel Ompteda, Colonel Mitchele, commanding a brigade of the 4th division; Major-generals Sir James Kempt, and Sir Denis Pack, Major-general Lambert, Major-general Lord E. Somerset, Major-general Sir W. Ponsonby, Major-general Sir C. Grant, and Major-general Sir H. Vivian, Major-general Sir O. Vandeleur, Major-general Count Dornberg. I am also particularly indebted to General Lord Hill, for his assistance and conduct upon this, as upon all former occasions.

The artillery and engineer departments were conducted much to my satisfaction by Colonel Sir G. Wood, and Colonel Smyth; and I had every reason to be satisfied with the conduct of the adjutant-general, Major-general Barnes, who was wounded, and of the quarter-master-general, Colonel Delancy, who was killed by a cannon shot in the middle of the action. This officer is a serious loss to his majesty's service, and to me at this moment. I was likewise much indebted to the assistance of Lieutenant-colonel Lord Fitzroy Somerset, who was severely wounded, and of the officers composing my personal staff, who have suffered severely in this action. Lieutenant-colonel the Honourable Sir Alexander Gordon, who has died of his wounds, was a most promising officer, and is a serious loss to his majesty's service.

General Kruse, of the Nassau service, likewise conducted himself much to my satisfaction, as did General Trip, commanding the heavy brigade of cavalry, and General Vanhope, commanding a brigade of infantry of the king of the Netherlands.

General Pozzo di Borgo, General Baron Vincent, General Muffling and General Alava, were in the field during the action, and rendered me every assistance in their power. Baron Vincent is wounded, but I hope not severely; and General Pozzo di Borgo received a contusion. I should not do justice to my feelings, or to Marshal Blücher and the Prussian army, if I did not attribute the successful result of this arduous day, to the cordial and timely assistance received from them. The operation

"I never fought so hard for victory, and never, from the gallantry of the enemy, was so near being beaten." The force of this observation will be felt from a perusal of the enemy's bulletin.*

of General Bulow upon the enemy's flank, was a most decisive one; and, even if I had not found myself in a situation to make the attack, which produced the final result, it would have forced the enemy to retire, if his attacks should have failed, and would have prevented him from taking advantage of them, if they should unfortunately have succeeded.

I send, with this despatch, two eagles, taken by the troops in this action, which Major Percy will have the honour of laying at the feet of his royal highness—I beg leave to recommend him to your lordship's protection. I have the honour, &c.

(Signed)

WELLINGTON.

P. S. Since writing the above, I have received a report, that Major-general Sir W. Ponsenby is killed; and, in announcing this intelligence to your lordship, I have to add the expression of my grief for the fate of an officer, who had already rendered very brilliant and important services, and who was an ornament to his profession.

2d P. S. I have not yet got the returns of killed and wounded, but I enclose a list of officers killed and wounded on the two days, as far as the same can be made out, without the returns; and I am very happy to add, that Colonel Delancy is not dead, and that strong hopes of his recovery are entertained.

* FRENCH OFFICIAL ACCOUNT OF THE
BELGIC CAMPAIGN.

POSITION OF THE FRENCH ARMY.

Charleroi, June 16th, 1815.

On the 14th, the army was placed in the following order:—The imperial head-quarters at Beaumont. The first corps, commanded by General Count d'Erlon, was at Solre-sur-Sambre. The second corps, commanded by General Reille, was at Ham-sur-Heure. The third corps, commanded by General Vandamme, was on the right of Beaumont. The fourth corps, commanded by General Girard, was arriving at Philippeville.

On the 15th, at three in the morning, General Reille attacked the enemy, and advanced upon Marchiennes-au-Pont. He had several engagements, in which his cavalry charged a Prussian battalion, and made three hundred prisoners. At one o'clock in the morning, the emperor was at Jamignan-sur-Heure. General d'Aumont's division of light cavalry sabred two Prussian battalions, and made four hundred prisoners. General Pajol entered Charleroi at noon. The sappers and the marines of the guard were with the van, to repair the bridges. They penetrated first into the town as sharpshooters. General Clari, with the first regiment of hussars, advanced upon Gosselies, on the road to Brussels, and General Pajol upon Gilly, on the road to Namur. At three in the afternoon, General Vandamme, with his corps, debouched upon Gilly. Marshal Grouchy arrived with the cavalry of General Excelmans. The enemy occupied the left of the position of Fleurus. At five o'clock in the afternoon, the emperor ordered the attack. The position was turned and carried. The four squadrons on service, of the guard, commanded by General Lottor, broke three squares. The 26th, 27th, and 28th Prussian regiments, were put to the rout. Our squadrons sabred four or five hundred men.

But while the historian dwells with fond exultation on the glory of the British army, and their illustrious commander, a large tribute of praise must be awarded to Marshal Blucher and his intrepid legions.

and made one hundred and sixty prisoners. During this time, General Reille passed the Sambre, at Marchiennes-au-Pont, to advance upon Gosselies, with the division of Prince Jerome and General Bachelu, attacked the enemy, and took from him two hundred and fifty prisoners, and pursued him on the road to Brussels.

Thus we became masters of the whole position of Fleurus. At eight in the evening, the emperor returned to his head-quarters at Charleroi. This day cost the enemy five pieces of cannon, and two thousand men, of whom one thousand are prisoners. Our loss is ten killed and eighty wounded, chiefly of the squadrons of service which made the charges, and of the three squadrons of the 20th regiment of dragoons, who also charged a square with the greatest intrepidity. Our loss, though trifling as to number, is sensibly felt by the emperor, on account of the severe wound received by General Lottor, his aide-de-camp, while charging at the head of the squadrons of service. This is an officer of the most distinguished merit; he is wounded by a ball in the stomach, and the surgeon is apprehensive that his wound will prove mortal. We have found some magazines at Charleroi. The joy of the Belgians is not to be described. There are villages, where, on the sight of their deliverers, they made dances; and everywhere it is a transport which comes from the heart. The emperor has given the command of the left to the Prince of Moskwa, who had his head-quarters, this evening, at Quatre Chemiers (Quatre Bras), on the road to Brussels. The Duke of Treviso, to whom the emperor had given the command of the young guard, has remained at Beaumont, being confined to his bed by a sciatica. The fourth corps, commanded by General Girard, arrived this evening at Charleroi. General Girard reports, that Lieutenant-general Beaumont, Colonel Clouet, and Captain Villontreys, of the cavalry, have gone over to the enemy. A lieutenant of the 11th chasseurs, has also gone over to the enemy. The major-general has ordered the sentence of the law to be pronounced against these deserters.

Nothing can paint the good spirit and the ardour of the army. It considers, as a happy event, the desertion of this small number of traitors, who thus threw off the mask.

BATTLE OF LIGNY-UNDER-FLEURUS.

Paris, June 31.

On the morning of the 16th, the army occupied the following position:—The left wing, commanded by the Marshal Duke of Elchingen, and consisting of the 1st and 2d corps of infantry, and the 2d of cavalry, occupied the positions of Frasse. The right wing, commanded by Marshal Grouchy, and composed of the 3d and 4th corps of infantry, and the 3d corps of cavalry, occupied the heights in rear of Fleurus. The emperor's head-quarters were at Charleroi, where were the imperial guard and the 6th corps. The left wing had orders to march upon Quatre Bras, and the right wing upon Sombref. The emperor advanced to Fleurus with his reserve.

The columns of Marshal Grouchy being in march, perceived, after having passed Fleurus, the enemy's army, commanded by Field-marshal Blucher, occupying with its left the heights of the

The successful result of this arduous day, is, by the British commander himself, attributed to the cordial and timely assistance received from his allies. Both nations

claim a share in the victory; the British for having so long sustained the furious attack of superior numbers, and for having, at the close of the day, thrown the enemy

mill of Bussy, the village of Sombref, and extending its cavalry a great way forward on the road to Namur; its right was at St. Amand, and occupied that large village in great force, having before it a ravine which formed its position. The emperor reconnoitred the strength and the positions of the enemy, and resolved to attack immediately. It became necessary to change front, the right in advance, and pivoting upon Fleurus. General Vandamme marched upon St. Amand, General Girard upon Ligny, and Marshal Grouchy upon Sombref. The 4th division of the 2d corps, commanded by General Girard, marched in reserve behind the corps of General Vandamme. The guard was drawn up on the heights of Fleurus, as well as the cuirassiers of General Milhaud.

At three in the afternoon, these dispositions were finished. The division of General Lefol, forming part of the corps of General Vandamme, was first engaged, and made itself master of St. Amand, whence it drove out the enemy at the point of the bayonet. It kept its ground during the whole of the engagement, at the burial ground and steeple of St. Amand; but that village, which is very extensive, was the theatre of various combats during the evening; the whole corps of General Vandamme was there engaged, and the enemy there fought in considerable force. General Girard, placed as a reserve to the corps of General Vandamme, turned the village by its right, and fought there with his accustomed valour. The respective forces were supported on both sides by about fifty pieces of cannon each.

On the right, General Girard came into action with the 4th corps, at the village of Ligny, which was taken and retaken several times. Marshal Grouchy, on the extreme right, and General Pajol, fought at the village of Sombref. The enemy showed from 80 to 90,000 men, and a great number of cannon. At seven o'clock, we were masters of all the villages situated on the bank of the ravine, which covered the enemy's position; but he still occupied, with all his masses, the heights of the mill of Bussy. The emperor returned with his guard to the village of Ligny; General Girard directed General Pechenx to debouch with what remained of the reserve, almost all the troops having been engaged in that village.

Eight battalions of the guard debouched with fixed bayonets, and behind them, four squadrons of the guards, the cuirassiers of General Delort, those of General Milhaud, and the grenadiers of the horse guards. The old guard attacked with the bayonet, the enemy's columns, which were on the heights of Bussy, and in an instant covered the field of battle with dead. The squadron of the guard attacked and broke a square, and the cuirassiers repulsed the enemy in all directions. At half-past nine o'clock, we had forty pieces of cannon, several carriages, colours, and prisoners, and the enemy sought safety in a precipitate retreat. At ten o'clock, the battle was finished, and we found ourselves masters of the field of battle. General Lutzw, a partisan, was taken prisoner. The prisoners assure us, that Field-marshal Blücher was wounded. The flower of the Prussian army was destroyed in this battle. Its loss could not be less than 15,000 men. One was 3000, killed and wounded.

On the left, Marshal Ney had marched on Quatre Bras with a division, which cut to pieces

an English division which was stationed there; but being attacked by the Prince of Orange with 25,000 men, partly English, partly Hanoverians in the pay of England, he retired upon his position at Fraene. There, a multiplicity of combats took place; the enemy obstinately endeavoured to force it, but in vain. The Duke of Elchingen waited for the first corps, which did not arrive till night; he confined himself to maintaining his position. In a square, attacked by the 8th regiment of cuirassiers, the colours of the 69th regiment of English infantry fell into our hands. The Duke of Brunswick was killed. The Prince of Orange has been wounded. We are assured that the enemy had many personages and generals of note killed or wounded: we estimate the loss of the English at from four to five thousand men; ours on this side was very considerable, it amounts to four thousand two hundred killed or wounded. The combat ended with the approach of night. Lord Wellington then evacuated Quatre Bras, and proceeded to Genappe.

In the morning of the 17th, the emperor repaired to Quatre Bras, whence he marched to attack the English army; he drove it to the entrance of the forest of Soignies with the left wing and the reserve. The right wing advanced by Sombref, in pursuit of Field-marshal Blücher, who was going towards Wavre, where he appeared to wish to take a position. At ten o'clock in the evening, the English army occupied Mount St. Jean with its centre, and was in position before the forest of Soignies: It would have required three hours to attack it; we were therefore obliged to postpone it till the next day. The head-quarters of the emperor were established at the farm of Oudon, near Planchenoit. The rain fell in torrents. Thus, on the 16th, the left wing, the right, and the reserve, were equally engaged, at a distance of about two leagues.

BATTLE OF MOUNT ST. JEAN—JUNE 18.

At nine in the morning, the rain having somewhat abated, the 1st corps put itself in motion, and placed itself with the left on the road to Brussels, and opposite the village of Mount St. Jean, which appeared the centre of the enemy's position. The 2d corps leaned its right upon the road to Brussels, and its left upon a small wood, within cannon shot of the English army. The cuirassiers were in reserve behind, and the guards in reserve upon the heights. The 6th corps, with the cavalry of General D'Aumont, under the order of Count Lobau, was destined to proceed in rear of our right to oppose a Prussian corps, which appeared to have escaped Marshal Grouchy, and to intend to fall upon our right flank, an intention which had been made known to us by our reports, and by the letter of a Prussian general, enclosing an order of battle, which was taken by our light troops.

The troops were full of ardour. We estimated the force of the English army at eighty thousand men. We supposed that the Prussian corps, which might be in line towards the right, might be fifteen thousand men. The enemy's force, then, was upwards of ninety thousand men, ours less numerous.

At noon, all the preparations being completed, Prince Jerome, commanding a division of the second corps, and destined to form its extreme

into confusion by their brilliant charge; the Prussians, for occupying all the French reserves, when they were about to be directed—perhaps successfully, against the

weakened lines of the British, to whom the issue of the contest was becoming every moment more dubious, and for effecting the total overthrow and dissolution of the

left, advanced upon the wood of which the enemy occupied a part. The cannonade began. The enemy supported, with thirty pieces of cannon, the troops he had sent to keep the wood. We made also on our side dispositions of artillery. At one o'clock, Prince Jerome was master of all the wood, and the whole English army fell back behind a curtain. Count d'Erion then attacked the village of Mount St. Jean, and supported his attack with eighty pieces of cannon, which must have caused great loss to the English army. All the efforts were made towards the ridge. A brigade of the 1st division of Count d'Erion took the village of Mount St. Jean; a second brigade was charged by a corps of English cavalry, which caused much loss. At the same moment, a division of English cavalry charged the battery of Count d'Erion by its right, and disorganized several pieces; but the cuirassiers of General Milhaud charged that division, three regiments of which were broken and cut up.

It was three in the afternoon. The emperor made the guard advance to place it in the plain upon the ground which the first corps had occupied at the outset of the battle; his corps being already in advance. The Prussian division, whose movement had been foreseen, then engaged with the light troops of Count Lobau, spreading its fire upon our whole right flank. It was expedient, before undertaking anything elsewhere, to wait for the event of this attack. Hence, all the means in reserve were ready to succour Count Lobau, and overwhelm the Prussian corps when it should be advanced.

This done, the emperor had a design of leading an attack upon the village of Mount St. Jean, from which we expected decisive success; but, by a movement of impatience, so frequent in our military annals, and which has often been so fatal to us, the cavalry of reserve having perceived a retrograde movement made by the English to shelter themselves from our batteries, from which they suffered so much, crowned the heights of Mount St. Jean, and charged the infantry. This movement, which, made in time, and supported by the reserves, must have decided the day, made in an isolated manner, and before affairs on the right were terminated, became fatal.

Having no means of countermanding it, the enemy showing many masses of cavalry and infantry, and our two divisions of cuirassiers being engaged, all our cavalry ran at the same moment to support their comrades. There, for three hours, numerous charges were made, which enabled us to penetrate several squares, and to take six standards of the light infantry, an advantage out of proportion with the loss which our cavalry experienced by the grape-shot and musket firing. It was impossible to dispose of our reserves of infantry, until we had repulsed the flank attack of the Prussian corps. This attack always prolonged itself perpendicularly upon our right flank. The emperor sent thither General Dohesme with the young guard, and several batteries of reserve. The enemy was kept in check, repulsed and fell back—he had exhausted his forces, and we had nothing more to fear. It was this moment that was indicated for an attack upon the centre of the enemy. As the cuirassiers suffered by the grape-shot, we sent four battalions of the middle guard to protect the cuirassiers, keep the position, and, if possible, dis-

gage and draw back into the plain a part of our cavalry.

Two other battalions were sent to keep themselves *en potence* upon the extreme left of the division, which had manœuvred upon our flanks, in order not to have any uneasiness on that side—the rest was disposed in reserve, part to occupy *en potence* the rear of Mount St. Jean, part upon the ridge in rear of the field of battle, which formed our position of retreat.

In this state of affairs the battle was gained; we occupied all the positions which the enemy occupied at the outset of the battle: our cavalry having been too soon, and ill employed, we could no longer hope for decisive success; but Marshal Grouchy having learned the movement of the Prussian corps, marched upon the rear of that corps, which ensured us a signal success for next day. After eight hours' fire, and charges of infantry and cavalry, all the army saw with joy the battle gained, and the field of battle in our power.

At half-after eight o'clock, the four battalions of the middle guard, who had been sent to the ridge on the other side of Mount St. Jean, in order to support the cuirassiers, being greatly annoyed by the grape-shot, endeavoured to carry the batteries with the bayonet. At the end of the day, a charge directed against their flank, by several English squadrons, put them in disorder. The fugitives recrossed the ravine. Several regiments, near at hand, seeing some troops belonging to the guard in confusion, believed it was the old guard, and in consequence were thrown into disorder. Cries of *All is lost, the guard is driven back*, were heard on every side. The soldiers pretend even that on many points ill-disposed persons cried out, *Sauvez qui peut*. However this may be, a complete panic at once spread itself throughout the whole field of battle; and they threw themselves in the greatest disorder on the line of communication; soldiers, cannoniers, caissons, all pressed to this point; the old guard, which was in reserve, was infected, and was itself hurried along.

In an instant, the whole army was nothing but a mass of confusion; all the soldiers, of all arms, were mixed *pele mele*, and it was utterly impossible to rally a single corps. The enemy, who perceived this astonishing confusion, immediately attacked with their cavalry, and increased the disorder, and such was the confusion, owing to night coming on, that it was impossible to rally the troops, and point out to them their error. Thus a battle terminated, a day of false manœuvres rectified, the greatest success ensured for the next day—all was lost by a moment of panic terror. Even the squadrons of service, drawn up by the side of the emperor, were overthrown and disorganized by these tumultuous waves, and there was then nothing else to be done but to follow the torrent. The parks of reserve, the baggage which had not repassed the Sambre, in short, every thing that was on the field of battle, remained in the power of the enemy. It was impossible to wait for the troops on our right; every one knows what the bravest army in the world is, when thus mixed and thrown into confusion, and when its organization no longer exists.

The emperor crossed the Sambre at Charleroi, at five o'clock in the morning of the 19th. Philippeville and Avesnes have been given as the points of reunion. Prince Jerome, General

enemy's army by their active and vigorous pursuit. In truth, the victory of the 18th of June, was the result of *la Belle Alliance* between the arms of Great Britain and Prussia; and the united names of Wel-

lington and Blücher will descend to posterity as the conquerors at Waterloo, and the most distinguished heroes of their respective age and nations.

In one battle, the allies had dealt to

Morand, and other generals, have there already rallied a part of the army. Marshal Grouchy, with the corps on the right, is moving on the lower Sambre.

The loss of the enemy must have been very great, if we may judge from the number of standards we have taken from them, and from the retrograde movements which he made;—ours cannot be calculated till after the troops shall have been collected. Before the disorder broke out, we had already experienced a very considerable loss, particularly in our cavalry, so fatally, though so bravely, engaged. Notwithstanding these losses, this brave cavalry constantly kept the position it had taken from the English, and abandoned it only when the tumult and disorder of the field of battle forced it. In the midst of the night, and the obstacles which encumbered their route, it could not preserve its own organization.

The artillery has, as usual, covered itself with glory. The carriages belonging to the head-quarters remained in their ordinary position: no retrograde movement being judged necessary. In the course of the night, they fell into the enemy's hands.

Such has been the issue of the battle of Mount St. Jean, glorious for the French arms, and yet so fatal.

PRUSSIAN OFFICIAL BULLETIN.

BATTLE OF THE 18TH OF JUNE.

At break of day, the Prussian army began to move from Wavre. The fourth and second corps marched by St. Lambert, where they were to take a position, covered by the forest, near Frichemont, to take the enemy in the rear when the moment should appear favourable. The first corps was to operate by Ohain, on the right flank of the enemy. The third corps was to follow slowly, in order to afford succour in case of need. The battle began about ten o'clock in the morning. The English army occupied the heights of Mount St. Jean; that of the French was on the heights before Planchenoit: the former was about eighty thousand strong; the enemy had above one hundred and thirty thousand. In a short time, the battle became general along the whole line. It seems that Napoleon had the design to throw the left wing upon the centre, and thus to effect the separation of the English army from the Prussian, which he believed to be retreating upon Maestricht. For this purpose, he had placed the greatest part of his reserve in the centre, against his right wing, and upon this point he attacked with fury. The English army fought with a valour which it is impossible to surpass. The repeated charges of the old guard were baffled by the intrepidity of the Scotch regiments; and at every charge the French cavalry was overthrown by the English cavalry. But the superiority of the enemy in numbers was too great; Napoleon continually brought forward considerable masses, and with whatever firmness the English troops maintained themselves in their position, it was not possible but that such heroic exertions must have a limit.

It was half-past four o'clock. The excessive difficulties of the passage by the defile of St. Lambert had considerably retarded the march of the Prussian columns, so that only two brigades of the

fourth corps had arrived at the covered position which was assigned them. The decisive moment was come; there was not an instant to be lost. The generals did not suffer it to escape. They resolved immediately to begin the attack with the troops which they had at hand. General Bulow, therefore, with two brigades and a corps of cavalry, advanced rapidly upon the rear of the enemy's right wing. The enemy did not lose his presence of mind; he instantly turned his reserve against us, and a murderous conflict began on that side. The combat remained long uncertain, while the battle with the English army still continued with the same violence.

Towards six o'clock in the evening, we received the news that General Thielman, with the third corps, was attacked near Wavre by a very considerable corps of the enemy, and that they were already disputing the possession of the town. The field-marshal, however, did not suffer himself to be disturbed by this news; it was on the spot where he was, and nowhere else, that the affair was to be decided. A conflict continually supported by the same obstinacy, and kept up by fresh troops, could alone ensure the victory, and if it could be obtained here, any reverse sustained near Wavre was of little importance. The columns, therefore, continued their movements. It was half an hour past seven, and the issue of the battle was still uncertain. The whole of the fourth corps, and a part of the second, under General Pirch, had successively come up. The French troops fought with desperate fury: however, some uncertainty was perceived in their movements, and it was observed that some pieces of cannon were retreating. At this moment, the first columns of the corps of General Ziethen arrived on the points of attack, near the village of Smouhen, on the enemy's right flank, and instantly charged. This moment decided the defeat of the enemy. His right wing was broken in three places; he abandoned his positions. Our troops rushed forward at the *pas de charge*, and attacked him on all sides, while at the same time the whole English line advanced.

Circumstances were extremely favourable to the attack formed by the Prussian army; the ground rose in an amphitheatre, so that our artillery could freely open its fire from the summit of a great many heights which rose gradually above each other, and in the intervals of which the troops descended into the plain, formed into brigades, and in the greatest order; while fresh corps continually unfolded themselves, issuing from the forest on the height behind us. The enemy, however, still preserved means to retreat, till the village of Planchenoit, which he had on his rear, and which was defended by the guard, was, after several bloody attacks, carried by storm. From that time, the retreat became a rout, which soon spread through the whole French army, and in its dreadful confusion, hurrying away every thing that attempted to stop it, soon assumed the appearance of the flight of an army of barbarians. It was half-past nine. The field-marshal assembled all the superior officers, and gave orders to send the last horse and the last man in pursuit of the enemy. The van of the army accelerated its march. The French army being pursued without intermission, was absolutely disorganized. The

France a blow that had gone to her heart. The throne she had so lately sworn to defend to the last drop of her blood, was shaken as by an earthquake; her emperor had quitted his troops in despair, and

casualty presented the appearance of an immense shipwreck; it was covered with an innumerable quantity of cannon, caissons, carriages, baggage, arms, and wrecks of every kind. Those of the enemy who had attempted to repose for a time, and had not expected to be so quickly pursued, were driven from more than nine bivouacs. In some villages, they attempted to maintain themselves; but as soon as they heard the beating of our drums, or the sound of the trumpet, they either fled or threw themselves into the houses, where they were cut down or made prisoners. It was moonlight, which greatly favoured the pursuit, for the whole march was but a continued chase, either in the corn-fields or the houses.

At Genappe, the enemy had intrenched himself with cannon and overturned carriages: at our approach, we suddenly heard in the town a great noise and a motion of carriages; at the entrance, we were exposed to a brisk fire of musketry; we replied by some cannon shot, followed by a hurrah, and, in an instant afterwards, the town was ours. It was here, that, among many other equipages, the carriage of Napoleon was taken; he had just left it to mount on horseback, and, in his hurry, had forgotten in it his sword and hat. Thus, the affair continued till break of day. About forty thousand men, in the most complete disorder, the remains of the whole army, have saved themselves, retreating through Charleroi, partly without arms, and carrying with them only twenty-seven pieces of their numerous artillery.

The enemy in his flight has passed all his fortresses, the only defence of his frontiers, which are now passed by our armies.

At three o'clock, Napoleon had despatched from the field of battle a courier to Paris, with the news that victory was no longer doubtful: a few hours afterwards, he had no longer any army left. We have not yet an exact account of the enemy's loss; it is enough to know that two-thirds of the whole were killed, wounded, or prisoners: among the latter, are Generals Monton, Duhesme, and Compans. Up to this time, about three hundred cannon, and about five hundred caissons, are in our hands.

Few victories have been so complete; and there is certainly no example that an army, two days after losing a battle, engaged in such an action, and so gloriously maintained it. Honour be to troops capable of so much firmness and valour! In the middle of the position occupied by the French army, and exactly upon the height, is a farm called La Belle Alliance. The march of all the Prussian columns was directed towards this farm, which was visible from every side. It was there that Napoleon was during the battle: it was thence that he gave his orders, that he flattered himself with the hopes of victory; and it was there that his ruin was decided. There too, it was, that, by a happy chance, Field-marshal Blücher and Lord Wellington met in the dark, and mutually saluted each other as victors.

In commemoration of the alliance which now unites between the English and Prussian nations, of the union of the two armies, and their reciprocal confidence, the field-marshal desired that this battle should bear the name of *La Belle Alliance*.

By order of Field-marshal Blücher.

GENERAL GNEISENAU.

her army retained nothing but the name. The battles of Cressy, Agincourt, and Poitiers were eclipsed on the field of Waterloo; and the feelings of national exultation were in England happily combined with the tribute of national gratitude. The mighty debt which was due to the living and the dead, it was impossible to repay. There remained no new title for the commander-in-chief; from his knighthood to his dukedom, he had won and exhausted them all; but the parliament added two hundred thousand pounds to its former munificent grants, in order that a palace, not less magnificent than that of Blenheim, might be erected for a general who had surpassed the achievements of Marlborough.

The merits of the army also were properly estimated, and the rewards were, with great propriety, extended to every rank and every individual. The thanks of both houses of parliament were awarded, *namine contradicente*, to Field-marshal the Duke of Wellington, to the general and other officers, and to the non-commissioned officers, and private soldiers of his majesty's forces serving under the command of the duke in the glorious victory obtained on the 18th of June. In this vote of thanks, the allied forces, serving under the British commander, were not forgotten; and Marshal Prince Blücher, and the Prussian army, had the satisfaction to receive the unanimous testimony of the British parliament, that the cordial and timely assistance afforded by them on the 18th of June, contributed mainly to the successful result of that arduous day. By an order from the war office, issued in the name of the prince-regent, every British regiment which was present in that battle, was henceforth permitted to bear the word "Waterloo," inscribed upon their colours and appointments. All the privates were to be enrolled upon the muster-rolls and pay-lists of their respective corps as *Waterloo-men*, and every Waterloo-man was allowed to count the 18th of June as two years' service in reckoning his time for increase of pay, while he continued in the army, or for pension when no longer engaged in the service of his country. The subaltern officers were in like manner to reckon two years' service for that victory; and a benefit, not less important, was extended to the whole army, by a regulation, directing that henceforward the pension granted to an officer on account of wounds, should not be confined to the amount attached by the scale to the rank which he held at the time when he was wounded, but should progressively increase with the rank to which he might from time

to time be promoted. More was yet due, and the legislature were not slow in expressing the universal feeling of the nation. A national column was decreed to be erected in the metropolis, in honour of the victory, and it was determined that the name of every man who had fallen should be inscribed upon this memorial of national glory and public gratitude. Funeral monuments in memory of Lieutenant-general Sir Thomas Picton, and Major-general the Honourable Sir William Ponsonby, were also ordered to be erected among the tombs of the illustrious dead in St. Paul's Cathedral. It was further directed that a medal should be struck, commemorative of the victory, to be given to each of the survivors, of the same material for officers and for men, that they who had been fellows in danger might bear the same badge of honourable distinction.

The dignity of a marquis of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, was granted by the prince-regent to Lieutenant-general Henry William Earl of Uxbridge, by the style and title of Marquis of Anglesey. An extensive brevet promotion in the army took place in consequence of the battle of Waterloo, and all the commissions bore date from the 18th of June. That the honours of the British heroes might still further be increased, the honours of the order of the Bath were greatly extended, and one hundred and twenty officers were, on the recommendation of the Duke of Wellington, elevated to the dignity of COMPANIONS of that military order, for their services in the battles fought on the 16th and 18th of June. The decora-

tions of the Austrian order of Maria Theresa, and the Russian orders of St. George, St. Anne, and St. Wladimir, were conferred upon a number of British officers who had distinguished themselves in the battles during the short but decisive campaign of 1815. The King of the Netherlands, whose dominions had been rescued from the presence of an invading army, manifested his gratitude, by elevating the Duke of Wellington to the rank of a prince, under the appropriate title of Prince of Waterloo; while the states-general settled upon the duke and his family an estate, consisting of woods and demesnes in the neighbourhood of La Belle Alliance and Hougoumont, producing an annual revenue of twenty thousand Dutch florins.

The annals of the world do not produce a military achievement of more distinguished merit, or more sublime importance, than the victory of Waterloo. When it is considered with a view to the immediate loss inflicted upon the enemy: when its moral and political effects upon the belligerent states, and upon surrounding nations, are taken into consideration; and when it is remembered that the fate of England, of France, and of Europe, was closely bound up in the issue of this day, the prospect becomes transcendently bright, and language labours with a vain effort to describe the feelings it inspired, not only in the British dominions, but in every country in Europe where the rigours of a universally pervading military despotism had been felt, and where the terrors of its revival had outlived the means by which it had been sustained.

CHAPTER VIII.

Sensation produced by the Return of Napoleon to Paris—Proposal to appoint him Dictator broached in the Council—Declined by himself—Meeting of the Chambers—Their Sitting declared permanent—Meeting of the Imperial Committee in Council—Suggestion in the Presence of the Emperor that his Abdication could alone save the Country—Act of Abdication—Its Reception—Appointment of a provisional Government—Stormy Discussion in the Chamber of Peers—Napoleon II. acknowledged by the Deputies—Commissioners sent to treat with the Allies for Peace at Hagenau—Departure of Napoleon for Rochefort—Advance of the Allies upon Paris—Arrival of Louis XVIII. at Cambray—Memorial of the Duke of Otranto to the Duke of Wellington—Failure of the Negotiations at Hagenau—Arrival of the Armies under the Duke of Wellington and Marshal Blücher before Paris—Siege—Capitulation—State of Parties—Interview of the Duke of Otranto with the Duke of Wellington—With the King—Dissolution of the Provisional Government—Conduct of the Chambers—Their Dissolution—Louis XVIII. reascends the Throne—Arrival of Napoleon at Rochefort—His Indecision fatal to him—Surrenders to Captain Maitland on board the *Bellerophon* Man of War—Brought to England—Impression made by his presence off the Coast—Resolution of the British Government to send him to St. Helena—His Protest—Deportation—Character.

BRIEF as was the interval between the return of Napoleon to the French capital and the close of his political existence, it is a point of time into which much historical incident is crowded. The motive assigned for his return to Paris, was the wish to be himself the messenger of the fatal intelligence of his defeat, and to prevent, by

his presence, any strong measures which the chambers might feel disposed to take against his crown. But the impulse under which he acted, conducted him to the rock which it was the object of his policy to avoid; and his precipitate departure from the army was the immediate cause of his fall. Even among the soldiers, he lost by this step his most able partizans, and to be the first to despair of his country, was an offence never to be forgiven.

The arrival of the emperor at Paris, in the evening of the 20th of June, was considered as the precursor of some disastrous annunciation. The painful suspense of the two past days yielded to feelings of dismay, and the same breath which whispered "the emperor is here," added, "and the army has been defeated." Immediately on his arrival at the Tuileries, Napoleon convoked a council; and the first business of the ministers was to draw up the bulletin of the battle of Mont St. Jean,* the principal part of which was dictated by Napoleon, with more than ordinary frankness. The next business which claimed the attention of the council, was an inquiry into the best method of reorganizing the army; and the emperor expressed his persuasion that the chambers would readily afford him the requisite supply of men and money to repair its disasters. To a suggestion made by the Duke of Bassano, that the deputies would speak of sparing the water and the engine when the house was on fire; seconded by an observation from Count Regnault, that nothing but the energy and promptitude of a dictatorship could now save the country; the emperor replied, that he had commenced a constitutional monarchy, and could not consent to dissolve the chambers.† In these sentiments, the Duke of Otranto, who had now joined the council, cordially acquiesced, and depicted in animated language the fatal consequences which must infallibly flow from any attempt to dismiss the representatives of the people, and assume the power of a dictator. Such a measure, he said, was the less necessary, since all the parties were tranquil, and so far from meditating any design against either the person or the authority of the emperor, they would all zealously co-operate in reorganizing the army and defending the country. Napoleon listened with doubt and embarrassment to these assurances. He hoped that credit might be given to

the minister of police, but he had private reasons for suspecting that ever since he quitted Paris, private meetings had been held nightly, at the houses of the principal agents of both the royalist and republican party, and that though the latter were far from wishing that disasters should overtake the army, yet should they happen, both parties stood ready to take advantage of them. The emperor, however, expressed his determination to adhere to the forms of the constitution, and rather abruptly broke up the council, appointing a meeting to be held at eight o'clock on the following morning, when the state of public feeling might be discussed, and the necessary measures adopted.

At the appointed hour, the ministers again assembled in council; and the question of the dictatorship was again discussed. Prince Lucien vehemently urged the necessity of averting from his brother the disgrace which his enemies were preparing for him, and contended that the only means of preserving his authority and saving the country, were to be found in taking the relaxed reins of government into his own hands. The Duke of Otranto adhered to the opinion, that the loyal and patriotic sentiments of the chambers rendered such a measure perfectly unnecessary. Count Carnot opposed the dictatorship, as resembling too much the despotism by which Napoleon's former government had been characterized; but he added, that having professed himself the friend of the emperor, he would zealously defend him to the last extremity, and would rather see his master assume the power of dictator, and assert his constitutional privilege in dissolving the chambers, than suffer him to be driven from his throne, either by external or internal violence. The Duke of Parma expressed similar sentiments. Count Regnault warmly supported the assumption of the dictatorship, and the Duke of Decres, and the Prince of Eckmühl, favoured the same opinion. Napoleon, without mixing in the debate, listened with profound attention to the arguments of each party, and at length expressed his determination to cast himself upon the loyalty of the chambers, and concert with them the measures which the present critical situation of the country required.

While the council was deliberating, the chambers assembled; and when the first tumult of surprise and consternation had subsided, General La Fayette mounted the tribune, and thus addressed the deputies:—

"GENTLEMEN—When for the first time during many years, I raise a voice which the ancient friends of liberty will even yet recognise, I feel

* The name given by the French to "The Battle of Waterloo"—called by the Prussians, "The Battle of La Belle Alliance."

† Nuits de l'Abdication de l'Empereur Napoleon par M. St. Didier.

myself called upon to speak to you of the danger of our country, which you alone at this juncture have the power to save. Sinister rumours have gone abroad; unfortunately they are all confirmed. This is the moment to rally round the old tricoloured standard—the standard of eighty-nine—the standard of liberty, of equality, of public order; the standard which alone we have to defend against foreign pretensions, and internal treason. Permit, gentlemen, a veteran in the sacred cause, who has always been a stranger to the spirit of faction, to submit to you some preliminary resolutions, of which you will, I hope, appreciate the necessity.”

Article I.—The chamber of representatives declares, that the independence of the nation is menaced.

II.—The chamber declares its sittings permanent. All attempt to dissolve it is a crime of high-treason; whoever shall show himself capable of this attempt, shall be regarded as a traitor to his country, and be arraigned as such.

III.—The army of the line and the national guards, who have fought, and still fight, to defend the liberty, the independence, and the territory of France, have deserved well of their country.

IV.—The minister of the interior is invited to call together the general staff, the commanders and legionary majors of the national guard of Paris, to advise on the means of arming and completing that city guard, whose patriotism and approved zeal, for six-and-twenty years, offer a sure guarantee to the liberty, the prosperity, and tranquillity of the capital, and to the inviolability of the representatives of the nation.

V.—The ministers of war, of foreign affairs, of police, and of the interior, are invited to present themselves instantly to the assembly.

These propositions were listened to with deep attention, and all, except the fourth, were adopted without opposition. But although the eulogium upon the national guard was thought to convey an invidious distinction, and on that ground rejected, yet the members of that corps immediately assembled at their rendezvous, and a picket was sent from each arrondissement to do duty at the hall of the deputies, and to charge themselves with the protection of the national representatives. The next step taken by the deputies was to transmit copies of the articles just passed to the emperor and to the peers; and such was the supposed urgency of the case, that in passing the last article one of the deputies observed, that in a few moments perhaps the chamber might be dissolved.

A message from the Tuileries, delivered by M. Regnault de St. Jean d'Angely, announced the arrival of the emperor in Paris at eleven o'clock on the preceding night, and informed the assembly that his majesty was at that moment occupied in framing propositions for the consideration of the chambers. After some time, passed in the nomination of a commission of administration to provide for the reception of the national guard, destined for their protection, a second invitation was sent to the ministers, requiring them immediately

to repair to the assembly. In reply to this invitation, a letter was received by the president from Carnot, Caulincourt, Fouché, and Davoust, stating that they had been detained, up to the present moment, at the chamber of peers, and in council, but that they were about to present themselves in the chamber of deputies. The four ministers now entered the hall, accompanied by Prince Lucien in the capacity of extraordinary commissary. The gallery being cleared, and the whole house having formed itself into a committee, a message was read from the emperor, informing the chamber of the loss of the battle of the 18th in its fullest extent; and of the nomination of the Dukes of Vicenza and Otranto, and Count Carnot, as commissioners to treat for peace and the independence of the country with the allies. An ominous silence reigned for some moments at the close of this communication, but at length one of the members rose, and addressing himself to the minister for foreign affairs, said,—

“You talk of peace. What untried means of communication have you in your power? What new basis can you give to your negotiations? What is that which you call the national independence? Europe has declared war against Napoleon. Do you henceforward separate the chief from the nation? For myself, I distinctly declare that I hear no voice but that of the nation; that I see nothing but one man between us and peace. In the name of the public safety, unveil the secrets of your policy; show us all the depths of the abyss, and perchance there may still be left in our courage some resources, and our country may be saved.”

The general plaudits which followed this remonstrance showed to Prince Lucien that the fate of his brother was decided. In vain, did he appeal to the honour, the love of glory, the oaths, and the constancy of the assembly. “We have followed your brother,” exclaimed La Fayette, interrupting him, “across the sands of Africa, and the deserts of Russia; the bones of our countrymen, scattered in every region, bear witness to our patience and fidelity.” Lucien, in continuation, by turns menaced and implored, without success; and at the conclusion of his speech, Marshal Davoust, the minister at war, assured the assembly that the report which had obtained currency that he had ordered the advance of the troops for the purpose of overawing their deliberations, was utterly destitute of foundation. The last act in the proceedings of this momentous sitting, was the appointment of a committee of safety, to sit during the night, and to co-operate with the ministers and house of peers in the measures that might be judged necessary to preserve the general tranquillity.

In the house of peers, the articles passed by the chamber of deputies were adopted nearly in the same terms as those used by M. de La Fayette, and a committee of safety was appointed to act in concert with the commission of the commons in the imperial committee.

At night, the imperial committee assembled. This body consisted of the ministers of state; the president and four members of the chamber of peers; the president and four vice-presidents of the representatives; the heads of the civil and military authorities of Paris; and several state counsellors, peers, representatives, and citizens, who were invited by the emperor, and gave to his party a decided preponderance. The emperor attempted to speak, but the agitation under which he laboured rendered his voice almost inaudible. At first, his sentences were imperfect and without connexion, but by degrees he became calm and self-possessed. He described in forcible language the extent of the disasters which had befallen his army. He confessed that he had now no resource but in the affection, fidelity, and zeal of the people; and entreated the advice of the committee as to the measures which it might be necessary to pursue.

Count Regnault proposed that the chamber should make an appeal to French valour, while the emperor was treating for peace in the most steady and dignified manner. "With what prospect of success can the emperor treat for peace?" said M. de La Fayette. "Have not our enemies pledged themselves to a line of conduct, which, adopted when the issue of the contest was uncertain, and while all France appeared to have rallied round the emperor of their choice, will not be readily abandoned now that victory has crowned their efforts? Mingled sentiments of affection and respect prevent me from being more explicit; there is but one measure which can save the country, and if the ministers of the emperor will not advise him to adopt it, his great soul will reveal it to him." This speech, which was received with cordiality by one part of the audience, excited loud murmurs among the court party; and the Duke of Bassano, with little preface, proposed that all who for twelve years had made parts of different factions, whose common object was the dethronement of the emperor, should be placed under the *surveillance* of a more severe police—"Cause those chiefs to be punished," said he, "who from Paris, from La Vendee, from Lisle, from Toulouse, from Marseilles, and from Bourdeaux, feed the hopes of the court of Ghent, and the animosity of Europe,

which they have determined to unite in one coalition. Exclude their accomplices of greatest influence from public functions. Watch over the inferior agents with more strictness, and you will have produced the double effect of disconcerting the foreign enemy, and of strengthening the government and its friends. Had this measure been adopted, a person who now hears me, and who well understands me, would not smile at the misfortunes of the country, and Wellington would not be marching to Paris." A burst of disapprobation, which even the presence of the emperor could not repress, followed this insinuation; and the indignation of the assembly drowned the voice of the speaker. The deliberations continued during several hours, but the assembly broke up without arriving at any satisfactory conclusion.

Scattered parties of the fugitive army began now to arrive from the north, and though shame and despair lowered on their countenances, they still vociferated with unabated enthusiasm their favourite shout of *Vive l'Empereur!* The inhabitants of the suburbs began to be agitated. Many designs against the independence of the chambers were attributed to the federates; and it was well known that deputations had been sent to the palace of the Elysee, to demand arms, with a determination to repeat the dreadful scenes which had disgraced the early periods of the revolution. Opposed to these factions, were the constitutional monarchists, the Bourbon royalists, and the federalist republicans, who all united to effect the abdication of Napoleon.

The imposing attitude assumed by the chambers on the first notice of the public calamity, was steadfastly maintained in every stage of their proceedings, and when the deputies assembled in the morning of the 22d, they eagerly demanded the report of the imperial committee. This report, when read by General Grenier, contained nothing but the recognition of the necessity of treating with the allies, and of supporting at the same time the negotiation, by arraying the whole military force of the empire. M. Duchesne considered the report as unsatisfactory, and insisted that the chamber had but one step to take, which was to prevail upon the emperor, in the name of their suffering country, to declare his abdication. This sentiment was received with favour by a large majority of the deputies; but they were prevented from submitting the proposition to a vote, by a communication from the president, who informed them that he had just received an assurance, that before three o'clock that day they would receive

from the emperor a message which would accomplish their wishes. General Solignac demanded that a commission of five members should wait upon his majesty, and declare personally the urgency of his decision; but this proposition was retracted upon information received of the forthcoming message, and it was agreed to protract the demand one hour;* in other words, it was consented that Napoleon should wear the crown for one hour longer, and should have the opportunity of resigning that which would otherwise be snatched from him. At eleven o'clock, the sitting adjourned, but was resumed at twelve. At one o'clock the Dukes of Otranto and Vicenza, the Prince of Eckmühl, and Count Carnot, were introduced. The president then arose, and looking towards the galleries, said—"I am about to read an important act, which is communicated to me by his majesty's ministers. I beg to remind you of the regulation which forbids all signs of disapproval or approbation." He then proceeded thus:—

DECLARATION TO THE FRENCH PEOPLE.

"FRENCHMEN!—In beginning the war to sustain the national independence, I reckoned upon the union of all efforts and of all inclinations, and upon the concurrence of all the national authorities. I had sufficient foundation in hoping for success, and I braved all the declarations of the potentates against me. Circumstances appear to me to be changed. I offer myself as a sacrifice to the hate of the enemies of France. I pray that their declarations may prove sincere, and that their real object of attack has been myself alone. My political life is come to a close, and I proclaim my son, under the title of Napoleon the Second, Emperor of the French. The present ministers will form provisionally a council of government. The interest which I feel for my son induces me to invite the chambers to organize a regency, by a law, and without delay. Unite all of you, if you would consult the public safety, and if you would remain an independent nation.

(Signed) "NAPOLEON."

The act of abdication of Napoleon was received with respectful silence. It was known that he had hesitated, and, taking counsel of his courtiers, he appeared at one time resolved to measure his strength with the chambers. But that danger was now past, and his apparently spontaneous resignation was hailed with inward pleasure by the representatives, whose authority it confirmed. They who had been the most eager in the cries for his abdication or forfeiture, were the foremost in expressing their gratitude for the sacrifice which Napoleon had made. M. de La Fayette proposed that his person and interests should be placed under the protection of the national honour, and the resolution

was carried by acclamation. M. Dupin pronounced the abdication to be a grand and generous act, worthy of the national gratitude. M. Regnault de St. Jean d'Angely, in an eloquent and affecting speech, demanded, not as a minister, which he was no longer, but as a citizen of the state and a representative of the people, some expression of national gratitude towards the man who was yesterday at the head of the nation; whom they had proclaimed great; and whom posterity would judge. "Napoleon," said the orator, "was invested by the people with sovereign power. He has laid it aside without reserve, without personal consideration. The chambers should become the interpreter of the sentiments which are due to him, and which the nation will preserve towards him. I propose that the president and the bureau shall proceed to Napoleon, to express to him, in the name of the nation, the gratitude and respect with which it accepts the noble sacrifice which he has made for the independence and happiness of France."

This motion was carried unanimously, and Lanjuinais, the president, attended by the vice-presidents, and secretaries, proceeded to the palace to discharge the duty confided to them. On their return to the chamber, the president informed the assembly, that his majesty had replied to their message by testifying the most touching interest for the French nation, and his most lively desire to see it secure its liberty, independence, and happiness; that his majesty had, above all, insisted upon the motive which had determined his abdication, and had recommended the chamber not to forget, that he transferred the right which France had given him to his son, whom he therefore proclaimed emperor.

Before the departure of the deputation to the palace, the chamber had resolved, that there should be named, without delay, a commission of five members, of which three should be chosen by the chamber of representatives, and two by the chamber of peers, for the purpose of exercising provisionally the functions of government; and on the president resuming his seat, the deputies, on their part, conferred this distinguished office on Count Carnot, the Duke of Otranto, and General Garnier.

The deliberations of the peers on this day were unusually tumultuous. They assembled at half-past one o'clock, and at their meeting Count Carnot read the act of abdication, which, being already pretty generally known, excited neither surprise or discussion. The count then gave the details of the minister of war, relative to the position of the army of the north, under Marshal Soult, which, according to

* Proceeding in the chamber of deputies, June 22d, 1815.

the report, had rallied at Rocroy on the 20th, and was in free communication with Marshal Grouchy, whose corps remained unbroken. This flattering representation Marshal Ney stigmatized as false. "Marshal Grouchy, and the Duke of Dalmatia," said he, "cannot collect sixty thousand men. That number cannot be brought together on the northern frontier; Marshal Grouchy, for his part, has been able only to rally seven or eight thousand men. The Duke of Dalmatia has not been able to make any stand at Rocroy. You have no other means of saving your country, but by negotiation." A warm altercation ensued, which ended by Marshal Ney positively asserting that forty thousand men could not be brought together by Grouchy, at any point, or by any means.

The house now adjourned till half-past nine o'clock, and at their reassembling, the president informed the peers, that he had, in the interval, waited on the emperor with their acceptance of his abdication, and that his majesty had answered, that he received with pleasure their sentiments; but had added:—"I repeat that which I have said to the chamber of representatives—I have abdicated only for my son." Prince Lucien, in an animated speech, in which he asserted, that the chief of a constitutional monarchy never dies, exclaimed—"L'empereur est mort, vive l'empereur!" "The emperor is dead, live the emperor!" "L'empereur a abdiqué, vive l'empereur!" "The emperor has abdicated, live the emperor!" and concluded by proposing an oath of fidelity to Napoleon II. of which at the moment he gave the first example. Count Labedoyere demanded of the peers to proclaim Napoleon II., otherwise the abdication, which was conditional, would be null and void, and the emperor, surrounded by his faithful soldiers, would draw his sword to assert his rights. "He may," continued the count, "be abandoned by some base generals who have already betrayed him; but if we declare that every Frenchman, who quits his standard, shall be covered with infamy, his house razed, and his family proscribed, we shall then hear no more of traitors—no more of those manœuvres which have occasioned our late catastrophes, of which some of the authors, perhaps, have seats in this assembly." A cry of order interrupted the orator. "Listen to me," he exclaimed. "I will not listen to you," said Count Valence, "retract what you have said."—"Young man," said Marshal Massena, "you forget yourself—you are not at the *Corps de Garde*." After much similar discussion, Count Decres, raising his voice, inquired—"Is this the moment

to occupy yourselves about individuals? Let our country be the first consideration—it is in danger; let us not lose a moment in taking the measures which its safety requires. I demand the close of this discussion." This appeal prevailed. The president put the question, which was carried, and the further consideration of Prince Lucien's proposal regarding the oath of fidelity to Napoleon II. was deferred until the next day. The chamber then proceeded to the choice of two members to fill up the commission for exercising provisionally the functions of government, when the Duke of Vicenza, and Baron Quinette, were elected by large majorities.

On the 23d, the chamber of deputies met about eleven o'clock, and after disposing of the orders of the day, M. Berenger proposed, in a speech in which he compared Napoleon to Marcus Aurelius and Titus, that the commission of government appointed on the preceding day should be declared collectively responsible. M. Desfermon, immediately ascending the tribune, said—"That the provisional government should be responsible to the nation, cannot admit of a doubt; but in whose name does this government act? Do we, or do we not, acknowledge an emperor of the French? Have we not an emperor in the name of Napoleon II.? (Yes! yes! exclaimed the greater part of the assembly.) Do the representatives of the nation wait for Louis XVIII.?" The whole chamber here rose, held up their hats, and exclaimed—"No, no; *Vive l'empereur!*" with a general emotion, which it was proposed to note in the *procès verbal*. M. Bonlay de la Meurthe next presented himself, and insisted on the necessity of making some explicit declaration of the succession of Napoleon II. M. Regnault said—"Without some ostensible and positive name, the army will not know whom it obeys, under what colours it fights, and for whom it sheds its blood. In whose name, shall our negotiators speak?" "In the name of the nation," exclaimed many voices. M. Dupin objected resolutely to the choice of an infant, who could not be expected to do what his father had failed to accomplish. "What," said he, "have we to oppose to the efforts of our enemies?—the nation. It is in the name of the nation, we shall fight, that we shall negotiate. From the nation, we must await the choice of a sovereign: the nation precedes every government, and survives them all." To these observations, a member sarcastically inquired—"Why do you not propose a republic?" M. Dupin, whose voice was drowned in the general tumult that ensued, showed by his action that he re-

pelled this insinuation, and it is worthy of remark, that during these days of agitation and division, no one proposed the establishment of a republic, nor indeed did any one declare in favour of any other government than a constitutional monarchy. M. Manuel entered into an examination of the question of the succession, and in a long and eloquent speech exhibited a correct representation of the state of parties in France. As to a republican party, he saw no reason to think it existed, either among the inexperienced, or among those whose judgments time and experience had matured. The Orleans party united the opinions of many, because they seemed to admit more chances for the liberty and happiness of the people, under the guarantee of the principles and the men of the revolution, but the discussion of their pretensions seemed to him idle in the extreme. Of the royalist party, he said—I hasten to repel the conclusion which may be drawn from what has been said in this place; for although there may be among us some shades of opinion, there is but one wish, but one sentiment, with regard to the end, and the means of this party, and with respect to the lot it would reserve to France. Would you suffer each of these parties to flatter itself that your secret intention is to labour for it? Would you desire, that in order to fix your decision, the different parties should raise each his standard and collect his adherents? What would then become of the safety of the country? Since this discussion has been opened, it is necessary, it is urgent for us to recognise Napoleon II.; but at the same time it is fit that France should know the motives which influenced us in the nomination of the executive commission, and that, in composing it of wise and upright men, we intended to form a council of regency. This discussion has sufficiently made known our firm resolution to do every thing henceforth for France, and not for a family. If the foreign powers refuse to acknowledge Napoleon II., there will still be time to come to a determination, and no one will balance between one individual and twenty millions of men. I move that we pass to the order of the day, on the following grounds:—

I.—“That Napoleon II. is become emperor of the French by the act of abdication of Napoleon I. and by the power of the constitution of the empire.

II.—That the two chambers desired and meant by their decree of yesterday, in nominating a commission of provisional government, to assure to the nation the guarantees necessary under the present extraordinary circumstances for their liberty and repose, by means of an administration possessed of all the confidence of the people.”

When the president read this declaration and put the question, the whole assembly, without one exception, rose spontaneously; and when he said, “the proposition is adopted,” cries of *Vive l'Empereur!* burst from all parts of the hall, and were reiterated from the galleries. But when it was proposed that the commission of government should take the oath of allegiance to Napoleon II., the house passed to the order of the day; several voices crying, “no more oaths,” as if enough had already been broken, and as if those now proposed might speedily share the same fate.

The new government hastened to assume its functions; and on the morning of the 23d, the inhabitants of Paris learned that the commission had chosen for their president the Duke of Otranto. Marshal Massena was named commander-in-chief of the national guard of Paris, Count Androssy commander of the first military division, and Count Drouet of the imperial guard. Baron Bignon was chosen minister provisionally for foreign affairs, Count Carnot of the interior, and Count Pelet de la Lozère of the police. The first public act of the provisional government was the publication of a proclamation, dated the 24th, by which the nation was informed that a great sacrifice had become necessary, and that that sacrifice was already made—Napoleon had abdicated the imperial power, and his son was proclaimed in his stead. The new constitution, which possessed as yet only good principles, was, it was said, about to undergo its practical application, and even those principles were to be purified and extended. There no longer existed powers jealous of each other. The space was free to the enlightened patriotism of the representatives, and the peers felt, thought, and voted according to the dictates of the public will. Plenipotentiaries had departed, in order to treat, in the name of the nation, and to negotiate with the powers of Europe, that peace which they had promised on one condition, which was now fulfilled. The whole world, like the people of France, would be attentive to their reply; and their answer would show whether justice and promises were still held sacred. In conclusion, the French nation was conjured to be united, and reminded that the experience of all ages had proved, that an intrepid people, combating for justice and liberty, could not be vanquished.

The commissioners sent to treat with the allies, were M. de La Fayette, General Sebastiani, M. d'Argenson, M. Laforest and Count de Pontecoulant, attended by M. de Constant as secretary; and on the evening of the 24th they left Paris to repair to the head-quarters of the allies. On the same

day, the government, upon the resolution of the chambers, that all Frenchmen were called to the defence of their country, decreed, that the remainder of the conscripts of 1815, and the grenadiers and chasseurs of the moveable national guards, should be completed in all the garrisons. The house this day heard an important communication from General Lamarque, dated the 20th of June, announcing distinguished successes in La Vendee, and the demand of an armistice from M. Augustus Laroche Jacquelin, the royalist chief, which General Lamarque hoped would end in the general pacification of the country.

By a decree of the 24th, Marshal Davoust, minister of war, was ordered to take every measure relative to the defence of Paris; and the seal of the war department was, *ad interim*, intrusted to his secretary, Baron Marchant. Another decree of the following day ordered all soldiers absent from their regiments to join the nearest corps, or to repair to Paris; and on the 27th, a law was proposed to the chambers, enabling the state to borrow one hundred and fifty millions of francs, for the payment of the debts and arrears of the military and other establishments.

On the 25th, a communication was read from the commission of government to the chambers, regarding the condition of the army, in which it was stated, that Marshal Grouchy had arrived at Rocroy, with twenty thousand infantry, six thousand cavalry, and a corresponding train of artillery, and that Marshal Soult was making every effort to rally the army. It was added, however, that in three days from the 19th, the allies would reach the neighbourhood of Laon. The armies of the east and of the south were stated to be in a satisfactory position. The day following, the government transmitted to the chambers a bulletin tending to confirm the favourable accounts from the army; and on the same day, a proclamation, signed by all the members of the provisional government, was placarded on the walls of Paris, announcing, that "the decrees and judgments of the courts and tribunals, and the acts of the notaries, shall provisionally be entitled—*In the name of the people*."—Thus Napoleon II. after an equivocal reign of three days, was replaced by the French people, and the Duke of Otranto, who was in reality the head of the government, had disembarassed himself in his communications with the allies from even the mention of the fallen dynasty.

The abdication of Napoleon had excited a violent emotion in the metropolis. The military and the federates clung to the hope

that affairs had not come to such an extremity as to call for the sacrifice of the imperial authority, and on the night of the 23d a plot was discovered to seize the military depots, to march to the Hotel Elysee, and to reseat the emperor on his throne. But the vigilance of the Duke of Otranto frustrated this design, and under his direction, two hundred of the ring-leaders of the sedition were seized by the national guard of Paris, and placed in a state of security. Napoleon, although he does not appear to have identified himself with this plot, still lingered at the Elysee, and on the advance of the allies demanded to be put at the head of the French army, and to march as their general,* but the proposal could not be entertained. Nine hundred thousand bayonets had already penetrated the French territory on all sides, and the government had not one hundred thousand men under arms.* The retreat of the army was therefore resolved on, and Napoleon was invited first to quit Paris for Malmaison, and afterwards to take his departure thence to the United States. Finding himself deserted by victory, stripped of his imperial power, and urged to quit his country by those who had so lately obeyed his commands, it was expected that he would have exercised the convenient privilege of ancient heroism, and this thought suggested itself to his mind; but in a conversation held with Count Labedoyere at Malmaison, on the subject of suicide, he magnanimously observed—that whatever might happen, he would not anticipate his fate one hour: his words were, *Quelque chose qui arrive, je n'avancerai pas la destinée d'une heure*.

On the 25th, Napoleon applied to the provisional government for two frigates to convey himself and his suite to America, which were immediately granted, and at the same time a letter was addressed to the Duke of Wellington, by Count Bignon, minister *ad interim* for foreign affairs, requesting that the emperor might be furnished with passports for his voyage. To this application, the duke replied that he had no authority from his government to grant the required passports; and without authority he did not choose to act in an affair of such moment. The unfavourable nature of this reply did not prevent Napoleon from entering upon his proposed journey, and at four o'clock in the afternoon of the 29th, he quitted Malmaison for Rochefort, uttering his wishes for the estab-

* Letter of the Duke of Otranto to the Duke of Wellington, dated Dresden, January 1, 1816.

lishment of the peace and prosperity of France.*

After the battle of Waterloo, the fugitive army continued for several days its disastrous retreat. At Mezieres, where Marshal Soult first endeavoured to rally the broken regiments, not more than four thousand men could be collected; but under the walls of Laon his efforts to recall the troops to their standard were more successful; and when, at length, Marshal Grouchy, who had retained the principal part of his artillery, had formed a junction with Soult's corps, their united force amounted to more than fifty thousand men.

In the mean time, Marshal Blücher afforded the enemy no respite. On the day after the battle, the Prussian army crossed the Sambre, and penetrated into France by Beaumont.† Thence, they advanced to Avesnes, and having carried that fortress by escalade, captured forty pieces of cannon. The country through which the invading army advanced, suffered considerably from the Prussians, who seemed determined to avenge the horrible devastations committed in their own country in former campaigns. Even the veteran field-marshal had drunk deeply of that spirit of vindictive animosity which actuated the hostile nations, and in a letter to Major-general Dobschutz, he directs that the garrison of Avesnes shall be marched to Cologne, that the soldiers shall be "employed in working in the fortifications, and that all the prisoners shall be treated with the necessary severity." On the 24th, Marshal Blücher took possession of St. Quintin, after it had been abandoned by the enemy; and the Prussians, flushed with victory, pursued their rapid march on Paris. At Villers Coterets, on the 28th, the van-guard was attacked, but the main body of the troops coming up during the engagement, the French were defeated, with the loss of six pieces of cannon and one thousand prisoners.

The Duke of Wellington remained at Waterloo on the 19th, to provide for the wounded, and to re-organize his army for future operations. On the 20th, the British army, with the auxiliary troops, under the command of the duke, were put in mo-

tion, and in the course of that day they arrived at Binche, at which place the following regulations for the government of the conduct of the army were issued:—

"ORDER OF THE DAY, June 20th, 1815.

"As the army is about to enter the French territory, the troops of the nations which are at present under the command of Field-marshal the Duke of Wellington are desired to recollect that their respective sovereigns are the allies of his majesty the King of France, and that France therefore ought to be treated as a friendly country. It is then required that nothing should be taken, either by the officers or soldiers, for which payment is not made. The commissaries of the army will provide for the wants of the troops in the usual manner, and it is not permitted, either to officers or soldiers, to extort contributions. The commissaries will be authorized either by the marshal or by the generals who command the troops of the respective nations, in cases where their provisions are not supplied by an English commissary, to make the proper requisitions, for which regular receipts will be given; and it must be strictly understood, that they will themselves be held responsible for whatever they obtain in the way of requisition from the inhabitants of France, in the same manner in which they would be esteemed accountable for purchases made for their own government in the several dominions to which they belong.

(Signed) "J. WATERS, A. A. G."

The Prussian and English armies advanced in nearly parallel lines towards the capital of France, but the country presented to each a strangely different appearance. The Prussians found only depopulated and deserted villages. The wretched inhabitants had fled into the woods, and the soldiers were often compelled to break open the secret recesses in which the provisions and property of the fugitives were concealed; and it too frequently happened that the hamlet which had afforded shelter to the troops during the night, was early on the following morning enveloped in flames.

After the British, who took the direction of Bavay, had advanced a few stages into France, the report of their moderation and good conduct preceded them, and the inhabitants tranquilly awaited their approach. Every accommodation in their power was eagerly produced, and they often refused the recompense, which the soldiers, faithful to the orders of their chief, uniformly offered. In this glorious campaign, it will be recorded to the honour of the British nation, that they twice conquered their enemy—first, by their valour on the plains of Waterloo, and afterwards, by their unexampled forbearance and generosity during their march to Paris. If the former was the more splendid, the latter was the more honourable victory.

From Bavay, the Duke of Wellington advanced to Cateau Cambresis, from whence he despatched a corps to the

* Letter from General Count Becker to the Duke of Otranto, dated Malmaison, June 29.

† The forces of the allied armies which were on their march into France, at this period, have been estimated as follows:—Russians, 225,000; Austrians, 250,000; Prussians, 150,000; British, Dutch, and Hanoverians, 100,000; Saxons, 15,000; Bavarians, 40,000; Wirtembergers, 12,000; contingents of the German princes, 30,000; making a grand total of 822,000 men.

right to take Cambray. The command of these troops was intrusted to Lieutenant-general Sir Charles Colville, who, on the 24th, attacked the town by escalade, at four different points, in every one of which the efforts of the British troops were crowned with complete success. The town being in the hands of the allies, and the citadel not showing itself disposed to offer any serious opposition, a messenger was despatched by the British commander to Louis XVIII., who, on the 22d, had quitted Ghent, on his route to Paris, urging him to repair to Cambray, and proposing to confer upon him the honour of summoning and taking the place. The summons of the citadel, by a French officer, in the name of the king, was promptly obeyed, and Cambray surrendered in the course of the day by capitulation.

The entrance of the king into Cambray, which took place on the 27th, was attended by acclamations as loud, and no doubt as sincere, as those which the inhabitants had a fortnight before bestowed upon a division of Napoleon's troops, on their march through that place to the army. The French monarch, on his advance towards his capital, was advised to issue two proclamations indicative of his future intentions, and in which, while he held out the promise of clemency to his misled subjects, he denounced the vengeance of the law against "the instigators and authors of a treason of which the annals of the world present no example."*

While the allied armies continued to advance upon Paris, the French legisla-

* PROCLAMATION OF LOUIS XVIII.

LOUIS, by the grace of God, King of France and Navarre,—To all our faithful subjects, health.

At the time when the most cruel of enterprises, seconded by the most inconceivable defection, compelled us to quit momentarily our kingdom, we informed you of the dangers which threatened you, unless you hastened to shake off the yoke of a tyrannical usurper. We were not willing to unite our arms, nor those of our family, to the instruments which Providence has employed to punish treason. But now that the powerful efforts of our allies have dissipated the satellites of the tyrant, we hasten to re-enter our states, there to re-establish the constitution which he have given to France; to repair, by all means in our power, the evils of revolt, and of the war, its necessary consequences; to reward the good, and to put in execution the existing laws against the guilty; in short, to call round our paternal throne the immense majority of Frenchmen, whose fidelity, courage, and devotedness, have brought such pleasing consolations to our heart.

Given at Cateau-Cambresis, 25th of June, in the year of grace 1815, and our reign the 30th.

(Signed)

LOUIS.

The Minister of War, DUKE OF FELTRE.

[The second proclamation, issued three days afterwards, is of the same tenor.]

ture was occupied in preparing a civil compact or bill of rights, to be signed by the prince that might be called to reign over them; and the provisional government left no effort untried to arrest the progress of the invading armies, by setting on foot a negotiation for peace. With this view the Duke of Otranto despatched a memorial to the Duke of Wellington, explanatory of the intention of the French nation, and lamenting the hostility between France and England.* To this document, the duke returned no reply. The resolution was already taken by the allied courts, to dictate the terms of peace within the walls of the French capital, and to restore Louis to the throne, unfettered by conditions which might abridge his prerogatives, or restrain the exercise of his power.

The commissioners appointed to treat for peace, arrived at the head-quarters of Prince Blücher on the 25th, and requested a suspension of arms, on the ground that the change which had taken place in the government of France, by the abdication of the Emperor Napoleon, had removed the obstacles to peace. To the application for an armistice, the Prussian field-marshal gave a peremptory refusal; and it was not till after much altercation and recrimination, that passports were granted to the French plenipotentiaries to

* MEMORIAL FROM THE DUKE OF OTRANTO TO THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON.

Paris, June 27, 1815.

"MY LORD,—You have just added to the glory of your name, by new victories over the French. It is you especially who can appreciate the French nation. In the council of sovereigns, united to fix the destinies of Europe, your influence and your credit cannot be less than your glory. Your law of nations has always been justice, and your conscience has ever been the guide of your policy. The French nation wishes to live under a monarch, but it wishes that that monarch should live under the empire of the laws. The republic made us acquainted with the extreme of liberty; the empire with the extreme of despotism. Our wish now (and it is immovable) is to keep at an equal distance from both those extremes. All eyes are fixed upon England. We do not claim to be more free than she, we do not wish to be less. The representatives of the nation are incessantly employed on a civil compact, of which the component powers, separated but not divided, all contribute by their reciprocal action to harmony and unity. From the moment this compact is signed by the prince called to reign over us, the sovereign shall receive the sceptre and the crown from the hands of the nation. In the existing state of Europe, one of the greatest calamities is hostility between France and England. No man, my lord, has it more in his power than yourself to replace Europe under a better influence, and in a finer position. Accept, my lord, the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed)

THE DUKE OF OTRANTO,
President of the Government.

proceed to Haguenau, in the department of the lower Rhine, at which place the coalesced sovereigns had now arrived. The conferences were conducted by Count Walmoden, for Austria; Count Capo d'Istria, for Russia; and General Knesebeck, for Prussia. Lord Stewart, though not invested with any direct powers, attended also, by invitation, on the part of England, and took a very prominent part in the discussions. The conferences, which took place on the 1st of July, were conducted with due regard to diplomatic etiquette, but the French commissioners received no definite answer to their applications. They were, indeed, informed, that it was not the intention of the allied sovereigns to control France in the choice of her government,* but it was added, that no negotiations could be entered into, except in concert with England, whose minister had not arrived.† The plenipotentiaries on their return were accompanied by two Prussian officers, and the road they were obliged to take was so circuitous that they did not arrive in Paris till the morning of the 5th of July.

The steady march of the allied armies brought them on the 29th of June under the walls of Paris. During their advance the fortifications which had been commenced by Napoleon before his departure for Flanders, were hastily completed, and the remnant of the army of the north, under Soult and Grouchy, had arrived in the capital, where they were, in the course of the following day, joined by the troops under Vandamme. In the midst of the military preparations with which they were menaced, neither the government nor the people betrayed any indications of dismay. Although the thunder of the cannon was heard at a distance, and every hour continued to approach nearer the city, not a single voice was heard, either in the chamber of the peers, or of the representatives, to plead for submission; and even in the streets and promenades, though much levity and indifference were betrayed, no one uttered a wish for the return of the Bourbons. The army, feeling still more

strongly than either the people or their deputies an aversion towards the restoration of the king, put forth an address to the representatives of France, in which they expressed the most entire devotion to the national cause, and their readiness to die in its defence.*

Addresses equally energetic, though less hostile to the Bourbons, were received from the national guard, from the federates, and from all the constituted authorities. Every description of people seemed animated by the same spirit, and the city presented the strange spectacle of a universal and determined resistance against the allies of a monarch, to whom some of them wished success, and to whom they were all convinced they must soon bow as a master.

The advanced guard of the allied army, under the Duke of Wellington, crossed the Oise on the 29th of June, and on the 1st of July the whole of the British army took up a position with the right on the heights of Rochebourg, and the left upon the Bois de Bondy. On the 30th Marshal Blücher attacked the village of Aubervilliers, where a severe engagement took place between the Prussians and the French, the latter of whom had rallied a

* ADDRESS FROM THE ARMY.

REPRESENTATIVES OF THE PEOPLE! We are in the presence of our enemies. We swear before you and the world, to defend, to our last breath, the cause of our independence and the national honour.

It is wished to impose the Bourbons upon us, and these princes are rejected by an immense majority of Frenchmen. If their return could be subscribed to, recollect, representatives! that you would sign the annihilation of the army, which for twenty years has been the palladium of French honour. There are in war, especially when it has been long conducted, successes and reverses. In our successes, we have been seen great and generous. If it be wished to humble us in our reverses, we shall know how to die.

The Bourbons present no guarantee to the nation. We received them with sentiments of the most generous confidence, we forgot all the calamities they had caused us in their rage to deprive us of our most sacred rights. Well! what return did they make for this confidence? They treated us as rebels and vanquished. Representatives these reflections are terrible, because they are true. Inexorable history will one day relate what the Bourbons have done to replace themselves on the throne of France; it will also tell the conduct of the army, of that army essentially national, and posterity will judge which best deserved the esteem of the world. (Signed)

THE MARSHAL PRINCE OF ECHMUEL, Minister at War.

COUNT PAJOL, commanding the First Corps of Cavalry.

COUNT D'ERLON, commanding the right Wing
COUNT VANDAMME, General-in-chief;

And fifteen other Generals.
Camp at Villette, June 30th.

* M. le Comte de Pontecoulant's communication, as reported to the chamber of deputies, July 5.

† In the Imperial Gazette of the 10th of July, it is stated, that a positive demand was made to deliver up Napoleon into the power of the allies. To this demand, General La Fayette is reported to have answered, that the person of the emperor was under the protection of the national gratitude and honour, and that when a proposal was made to the French people to commit an act of unexampled treachery, he did not expect that the prisoner of Olmütz would be selected as the fit medium for its execution.

force for the defence of the capital, amounting to upwards of seventy thousand men, of whom fourteen thousand were of the old guard.* This village, which was taken and retaken several times, at last remained in the hands of the Prussians. The obstinacy with which Aubervilliers had been defended showed the danger of attacking Paris on the side of Montmartre and Belleville, both of which were strongly fortified, and could not have been carried without immense loss. The Prussian commander resolved therefore to file off to the right, and crossing the Seine at St. Germain, he took up a position to the south, with his right at Plessis Pique, his left at St. Cloud, and the reserve at Versailles. At this point, the ground was more obstinately contested than on the north of Paris; and the town of Versailles was the scene of the most sanguinary combat. Several times in the course of the 2d of July, the city was alternately in the power of the Prussians and of the French; but the determined valour and superior numbers of the troops under General Ziethen surmounted every obstacle, and they succeeded finally in establishing themselves on the heights of Meudon, and in the valley of Issy. While these events were taking place at Versailles, the Duke of Wellington threw a bridge over the Seine at Argenteuil, and sent forward a corps towards the bridge of Neuilly. Paris was thus completely invested by an army consisting of one hundred and fifty thousand troops, and fears began to be entertained of an approaching famine; but the Duke of Wellington, unwilling to drive the inhabitants to desperation, allowed the usual supply of provisions to pass through the British camp, and thus disarmed the hostility of a numerous party, who, indignant at the inexplicable conduct of the allies, had almost resolved to join the ranks of the army and the federates.

It was now determined to make one final effort to raise the siege of the capital; and at three o'clock in the morning of the 3d, the French army commenced a dreadful attack upon the Prussians in the valley of Issy. The assailants fought with the fury of despair. They were, however, repulsed at every point, and driven to the very gates of Paris. The ramparts, and the windows, as well as the tops of the houses near the walls, were crowded with spectators, who viewed with unutterable anguish the failure of this last struggle for the safety of their capital, and the independence of their nation. On a sudden,

the firing ceased. As soon as the government perceived that the case was hopeless, a herald was despatched to the allied generals, demanding a suspension of arms for a few hours, while commissioners could be appointed to treat for the surrender of the city. To this proposal, the Duke of Wellington and Marshal Blücher readily consented; and at two o'clock in the afternoon, the commissioners authorized by the respective parties, met in the palace of St. Cloud. This conference was conducted not merely in the favourite palace of Napoleon, but in the very chamber in which he had been accustomed to hold his councils of state. In that chamber, which had so often been the scene of discussions, which had for their object the subjugation of Europe, English and Prussian commissioners were now negotiating for the surrender of the French capital, and the final overthrow of the imperial sway! Both parties were in earnest, and the negotiations were speedily brought to a close. The convention, which bears date the 3d of July, provides, That there shall be an immediate suspension of arms under the walls of Paris. That on the following day, the French army shall be put in march to take up a position behind the Loire; Paris to be completely evacuated in three days, and the movement beyond the Loire effected within eight days. That at midday on the 4th, St. Denis, St. Ouen, Clichy, and Neuilly, shall be given up; the day after, Montmartre to be surrendered; and on the 6th the barriers of Paris to be opened to the allied army: That the duty of the city of Paris shall continue to be done by the national guard and the corps of the municipal *gens-d'armes*, and that the actual authorities shall be respected so long as they shall exist. The eleventh article provides, that public property shall be respected; and the twelfth, on which much discussion afterwards arose, runs thus:—"Private persons and property shall be equally respected. The inhabitants, and in general all individuals who shall be in the capital, shall continue to enjoy their rights and liberties, without being disturbed or called to account, either as to the situations which they hold, or may have held, or as to their conduct or political opinions." The remaining articles stipulate, that the foreign troops shall not interpose any obstacle to the provisioning of the capital; that the present convention shall serve to regulate the mutual relations till the conclusion of peace; and that should any difficulty arise in the execution of any article of the present convention, the interpretation of it shall be made in favour of the French army and of the

* Report of the French Commissioners appointed to communicate the thanks of the representatives to the army.

city of Paris. This convention is declared common to all the allied armies; the ratification to be exchanged at six o'clock in the morning of the 4th, at the bridge of Neuilly, and commissioners to be named to watch over its execution.

The inhabitants of Paris had, during the morning, been a prey to the most anxious and gloomy suspense; but no sooner was it proclaimed that a suspension of arms was concluded, and that the generals of the allied armies had guaranteed the city from pillage and destruction, than the most frantic joy succeeded this feeling of despondency. Very different, however, were the feelings of the army. They had been kept in ignorance of the determination of their generals to abandon a city which they had pledged themselves to defend to the last extremity, and their mortification was extreme, to find that Paris was surrendered without a struggle within its walls. A persuasion of treachery soon became prevalent, and some insurrectionary movement on the part of the troops and the federates was confidently anticipated. During the night, several skirmishes took place between the irritated troops of the enemy and the outpost of the allied armies; but by degrees the indefatigable exertions of the superior officers of the French army succeeded in reconciling the troops to a convention in which their reputation had not been compromised: and on the morning of the 4th several regiments were under arms, and on their march towards the Loire. The conduct of the federates was still more tumultuous than that of the regular army. Their rage was not directed against the enemy, but was levelled against those who in their estimation had disgraced their country by the surrender of the metropolis. For a while, the destruction of Paris seemed to be threatened by this part of its misguided population; but the national guard, under the Prince of Essling, acted with most exemplary firmness, and to the thirty thousand armed citizens who formed this body, the Parisians were probably indebted for their preservation from plunder and outrage. The discontents produced by the capitulation, were by no means confined to the soldiery, or to the lower classes. They found their way into the chambers, and some of the members, in their confidential conversations, did not hesitate to urge against the Duke of Otranto the heinous imputation of treachery and treason.

Up to the moment of the capitulation of Paris, the chambers continued their deliberations, and on the day when the humiliation of their country seemed completed, the national representatives issued a decla-

ration of the rights of Frenchmen, resembling in its spirit and in its principal features the bill of rights claimed by the parliament of England from William III; and it is assuredly a tribute of no ordinary value offered to the constitution of England, that at the very time when her army was at the gates of the French capital, our national institutions were the objects of the perpetual eulogy, and the subjects of the imitation, of the statesmen of the hostile nation. The constancy of the chambers was put to severe trial. The king had arrived at Compiègne, and nearly a million of foreign troops were hastening from every quarter, to reinstate him on the throne, and yet not one member in either house thought proper to propose his restoration.

To tranquillize the public mind, the provisional government published a proclamation, stating the motives by which they had been actuated in the surrender of Paris. "Called upon," says the proclamation, "to defend the interest of the people and of the army, which had been equally compromised in the cause of a prince abandoned by fortune and the national will, they conceived it their duty to rescue the capital from the horrors of a siege, and the chance of a battle, and inspired with too much confidence by the declarations of the sovereigns of Europe, to dispute that those promises could be violated, or that the liberty and dearest interests of France could be sacrificed to victory, they did not hesitate to accept that peace which was necessary to the prosperity and happiness of a nation, which for five-and-twenty years had been a prey to the alternate and temporary triumphs of factions. The guarantees which had hitherto existed only in the principles and courage of Frenchmen, they would now find in their laws and constitution, and above all, in their representative system."

The national representatives also addressed the people with a firmness of tone, and in a spirit of independence, that will entitle them to the admiration of future ages:—"A monarch," say they, in language similar to that held by the convention parliament of England, "cannot offer any real guarantee, if he does not swear to observe the constitution framed by the national representation, and accepted by the people; it hence follows, that any government which shall have no other title than the acclamation and will of a party, or which shall be imposed by force; and every government which shall not guarantee the rights and liberties of a people claiming the privileges of freemen, will have only an ephemeral existence, and

will secure the tranquillity neither of France nor of Europe."

In the crisis which had now arisen, France was greatly divided respecting the choice of the sovereign who should succeed Napoleon. The return of the Bourbons, it was feared, would be signalized by a system of vengeance and reaction, and the proclamations of the 25th and 28th of June, gave too much countenance to these apprehensions. It was supposed impossible that a dynasty which had suffered so much from revolutions, could sincerely pardon the actors in the revolutionary drama. All those, both in the civil and military orders, who, during the last five-and-twenty years, had acquired rank, fortune, and glory, felt the most affecting and gloomy disquietudes in contemplating the recall of Louis XVIII. One party desired a foreign prince as the most likely to guarantee with impartiality all existing arrangements, and the Prince of Waterloo was said to stand high in the list of those on whose head it was proposed to place a crown. Another party was desirous to maintain the regency. But an authority which should have governed in the name of the spouse and the son of Napoleon, would have favoured the belief that it was Napoleon himself who governed. The name of the Duke of Orleans was invoked by one portion of the public. His personal qualities, his name as a Bourbon, and the facility with which a social compact entirely new could be acceded to with him, presented a tranquillizing aspect, and pointed him out to his supporters as a fit occupant of the throne. Others insisted upon the principles of legitimacy; but the Duke of Otranto, from whom we quote, considers the principles of legitimacy as the mere political law of a country; and Montesquieu shows, that there may occur, between a dynasty and a people, such incompatibilities, as to render it necessary to change the law, in order to save that very country.

Amidst these conflicts of opinion, Louis XVIII. approached towards Paris. Whenever the invading army appeared, the king was proclaimed, and apprehensions were entertained that it was the determination of the allied powers to force the Bourbons upon the French people, notwithstanding the declaration made by the Prince-regent of England upon the coalition treaty of the 25th of March,* and the still more recent assurances given to the French commissioners at Haguenau. To this act of national degradation, the Duke of Otranto, the head of the provisional government,

does not appear to have urged any very strenuous objections, though in his letter to the Duke of Wellington he states, that those form a very false idea of the position in which he stood, who reproach him with not having defended the rights of the nation to choose their own prince, and to fix the condition of his power. "These two points," he adds, "were decided by the force of circumstances. The present was no longer in our power. All would have been easy, if, as I had proposed, Napoleon had abdicated at the *Champ de Mai*—his tardy abdication subjected us to the yoke of events."*

On the 6th of July, the Duke of Otranto had a conference with the Duke of Wellington at Neuilly, in which he was informed, that all the allied powers had engaged to replace Louis upon the throne of France. This decision it was found impossible to revoke; and the president of the provisional government, passing to a subject second only in importance to that which had just been discussed, said, that at the instant when the throne was about to be re-established, it was the interest of the king to adopt a system of clemency and oblivion; urging, that that which is a crime in a well regulated state, may be only delirium in a state of disorder. Several individuals, who had been suspected of treason, had, he said, been only misled in the path in which the crisis had engaged them; and that as long as a man believed that he had not abandoned his duty, it was possible to reclaim him from his error. These views met the approbation of the duke.* On the following day, the Duke of Otranto held the same language to the king, in a conference to which he had the honour to be admitted with him at St. Denis. The king seemed sensible that the nation had need of repose, to reunite all the elements of order dispersed by the times and by misfortunes; that it was necessary to veil all errors with extreme benevolence, and to employ every possible means to inspire all hearts with sentiments of sincere attachment to the throne. From this interview, the particulars of which were immediately communicated to those most interested in its result, it was presaged that the nation had reached the close of its dissensions. But the French people required something more than presages, and nothing but a positive engagement on the part of the sovereign was considered as a sufficient guarantee for the liberty of the nation, and the security of those who had borne arms against the Bourbons.*

In the afternoon of the 6th, a sight was

* See vol. ii. book v. page 442.

* Letter from the Duke of Otranto to the Duke of Wellington, dated Dresden, January 1, 1816.

witnessed at the barriers of Paris, of which history furnishes no previous example—the surrender of the capital of France to a British army. This ceremony took place at half-past four o'clock, when all the gates of the city were surrendered into the hands of their new masters. Numerous regiments of the allies now traversed the streets, on their way to their respective quarters, and their peaceable demeanour and modest deportment made a considerable impression in their favour, on the minds of every well-disposed spectator. In addition to the sprig of laurel which each soldier wore in his cap, his arm was bound round with a white scarf. This, the federates, and a portion of the populace, considered as a symbol of adherence to the cause of the king, and pursuing the march of the troops, they vociferated in their ears—"No Bourbons!" "The representative government for ever!" while others continued to indulge in their still favourite cry of "*Vive l'Empereur*!" The allied troops were prepared for these popular ebullitions, and treated the cries and the insults offered to them by the infuriated mob with silent disdain. Some of the Prussians were quartered upon the inhabitants, and others encamped in the Elysian Fields: but the whole of the British army encamped on the night of the 6th under the walls, or on the Boulevards of Paris.

During the progress of these military movements, the chambers continued their deliberations without interruption; but on the morning of the 7th, the provisional government, finding that foreign troops had occupied the Tuileries, and that their deliberations were no longer free, came to the resolution to dissolve themselves, and on the meeting of the chambers a communication to that effect was made to the deputies.*

* DISSOLUTION OF THE PROVISIONAL GOVERNMENT.

"To the Representatives of the French People,—

"Hitherto, we believed that the intentions of the allied sovereigns were not unanimous upon the choice of the prince who is to reign in France. Our plenipotentiaries gave us the same assurances at their return.

"However, the ministers and generals of the allied powers declared yesterday, in the conferences they had with the president of the commission, that all the sovereigns had engaged to replace Louis XVIII. upon the throne; that he is to make his entrance into the capital this evening or to-morrow.

"Foreign troops have just occupied the Tuileries, where the government is sitting.

"In this state of affairs, we can only breathe wishes for the country; and our deliberations being no longer free, we think it our duty to separate.

"The Marshal Prince of Essling, and the Pre-

This annunciation, though not altogether unexpected, filled the members with astonishment and dismay. A profound silence ensued. At length, M. Manuel, advancing to the tribune, thus addressed the assembly:—

"What has happened, you have all foreseen: with whatever rapidity events have succeeded each other, they have not surprised you; and already your declaration, founded upon the deep feelings of your duty, has told to all France that you are able to fulfil and complete your glorious design. The commission of government has been reduced to a position which leaves it incapable of further defence. As to ourselves, it is our duty to devote to our country all our last moments, and, if need be, the last drops of our blood. The time, perhaps, is not far distant, which shall restore you to all your rights, consecrate public liberty, accomplish all your wishes, and fulfil all the desires of every Frenchman;—to that time, it becomes us to look forward with the calm dignity worthy the representatives of a great people. Let there be neither shouts, nor complaints, nor acclamations. You are animated by one firm resolution, which the dictates of wisdom must develop, adorned with her characteristic qualities, and clearly demonstrated to be the settled impression of every generous heart. Forget, I demand it of you, every personal interest; suffer no apprehension to hide from your eyes the good of your country; you will complete your work by continuing your deliberations. Gentlemen, one of two things must happen; either the allied armies will permit the usual sittings of your assembly, or violence will tear you from this sanctuary. If we are to remain free, let us not have to reproach ourselves with any hesitation or interruption; if we are to bend beneath the laws of force, let us leave to others the odium of such a violation, and let the disgrace of having stifled the accents of independence fall with all its weight upon those who dare to undertake so base an office. You have protested beforehand; you protest again, against every act aggressive on our liberties, and the rights of your constituents. Alas! would you have to fear such evils, if the promises of kings were not given in vain? What then remains, but to exclaim with that orator whose words have resounded throughout the whole of Europe; 'We are here by the will of the people—the bayonet alone shall drive us hence.'"

Four distinct peals of applause greeted the orator as he concluded his speech, and the chamber, having agreed unanimously to M. Manuel's proposal, entered upon the business of the day. The articles of the constitution were still under the consideration of the assembly, and among other votes taken this day, it was decided, after two divisions, that the peerage should be hereditary and unlimited. After this vote, which was concluded at six o'clock,

fect of the Seine, have been charged to watch over the maintenance of public order, safety, and tranquillity.

(Signed) "THE DUKE OF OTRANTO.

"COUNT GRENIER.

"QUINETTE.

"CARNOT.

"CAULAINCOURT, DUKE OF VICHY."

he chamber adjourned till eight o'clock the next morning.

In the peers, the sitting had no sooner commenced, than Marshal Lefebvre, the Duke of Dantzic, notified to the house that Prussian troops had taken possession of the Luxembourg Gardens, in defiance of the convention of Paris, and moved that a reputation should remonstrate with Marshal Blucher on this subject. At that moment, a messenger from the provisional government announced its dissolution. The communication was listened to in silence, and the example immediately followed by the spontaneous and final separation of the peers.

At the appointed hour on the morning of the 8th, a number of the members of the chamber of deputies presented themselves at the palace of the legislative body, where they found the gates shut, and guarded by sentinels of the national guard, who invited them to retire. The alternative of M. Mirabeau and M. Manuel had occurred; the representatives indeed were not expelled, but they were excluded by the bayonet. Although the members had neither the power nor the inclination to resist the mandate by which the doors of their hall were closed against them, they had too much courage and patriotism to depart, without solemnly protesting against the injustice of the proceeding. About one hundred of their number repaired to the house of the president, Lanjuinais, and there drew up and signed the following process verbal:—

"In the sittings of yesterday, the chamber of representatives passed to the order of the day on the message by which the provisional committee gave notice that it had ceased its functions. It afterwards continued its deliberations on the constitution which it had pledged itself to frame, and when its sittings were suspended, adjourned to this day, the 8th of July, at eight o'clock in the morning. In consequence of this adjournment, the members of the chamber of representatives repaired to the usual place of their meeting. But the gates of the palace being closed, the avenues being guarded by a military force, and the officers who commanded it having declared that they had received a peremptory order not to grant admittance to any of the members; the undersigned members of the chamber have assembled at the house of M. Lanjuinais their president, and there they have formed, and signed individually, the present process verbal to authenticate the above facts."

Signed by all the members present.
July 8th, 1815.

The white standard of the Bourbons now displaced the tri-coloured flag on the towers of Paris, and the intention of the king to make his entry this day into his capital, was publicly announced. The Parisians, to whom a public spectacle has irresistible charms, hastened to behold,

and to swell, the royal procession. When the king reached the barriers, which were thrown open for his admission, the acclamations of the populace became unbounded, and the prefect of Paris, attended by the whole municipal body, addressed a congratulatory speech to his majesty, full of those protestations of inextinguishable loyalty to his person and his house, which had, one hundred days before, been lavished with equal profusion upon the returning emperor. The reply of the king to this courtly address was cool and sententious:—"In removing from Paris," said he, "I experienced the greatest sorrow and regret. The testimonies of the fidelity of my good city of Paris reached me: I return with emotion. I foresaw the misfortunes with which it was threatened; it is my wish to prevent and repair them."

The day after his arrival, the king announced his new ministry, which consisted of Prince Talleyrand, president of the council of ministers, and secretary of state for foreign affairs; Baron Louie, minister of finance; the Duke of Otranto, minister of police; Baron Pasquier, minister of justice; Marshal St. Cyr, minister of war; Count de Jaucour, minister of marine; and the Duke of Richelieu, minister of the household. The object of the king in the choice of this ministry, was, to include men of all parties, and thereby to inspire universal confidence; but this was a vain effort, and a short time served to dissolve a body in which there was no common principle of adhesion.

Louis XVIII. was thus once more seated upon the throne of his fathers, but he reigned only in the Tuilleries. To the foreign troops by which he was surrounded, he was solely indebted for his elevation. The national will had not been consulted; and only the same potent agency which placed him on the throne, could maintain him in his present situation. Indebted to the enemies of his country for his elevation—surrounded by a discordant ministry—compelled to impose heavy burdens upon his people as the price of his restoration—and forced to subscribe to conditions humiliating to the glory of France, the opening of his second reign was inauspicious in the extreme, but it was not utterly hopeless. Whatever might have been the errors of his former government, or however unpromising his present circumstances, he enjoyed personally the respect of the French nation. The people were wearied with revolutions. Their military passion, which, before the return of Napoleon, constituted the great danger of the French monarchy, was subdued; and the nation wished for peace and a moderate

share of freedom, both of which the king possessed the power and the inclination to confer.

The English army, ever since their entrance into Paris, continued to maintain that noble character for strict discipline which they had acquired during their march to the capital. Not a single act of atrocity was laid to their charge. The inhabitants traversed their camp in perfect security, and soon began to regard them rather as visitors than as conquerors. In the quarters and in the camp of the Prussians a different scene was presented. The inhabitants of the houses in which they were quartered, were frequently treated with unjustifiable severity: their best apartments were seized; their furniture was wantonly injured and destroyed; and when their wretched hosts were no longer able to supply their exorbitant demands, their houses were frequently stripped, and every portable article carried away and sold. Both officers and men seemed less solicitous to conciliate the subjects of their ally Louis XVIII. and to secure the permanency of his reign, than to avenge themselves of the French nation for the enormities to which the inhabitants of Prussia had been exposed from French cruelty and exactions during the invasions of their country. They forgot, that in the revolutionary wars, Prussia, not France, was the first aggressor; and the coalition of Pilsnitz, the invasion of the Duke of Brunswick, and the denunciations of his famous proclamation, were events which the recollection of the wrongs of Germany had entirely obliterated from their minds. Even the Prussian commander-in-chief so far suffered his resentment to overcome his magnanimity, that the bridge of Jena was mined by his order, and would have been blown into the air, in spite of the king's remonstrances, had not the Duke of Wellington placed a sentinel upon it, with orders not to quit his station.

The short but splendid campaign of the allied armies, under the command of the Duke of Wellington and Marshal Blücher, obscured the operations of the Austrian and the Russian armies, and their advance from the Rhine to the French capital, though distinguished by several spirited engagements, did not fix for a moment the attention of Europe. Two days after the return of Louis XVIII., the Emperor of Russia, and the King of Prussia, arrived in Paris; and Lord Castlereagh, with several of the most distinguished statesmen and ministers attached to the principal courts of Europe, had repaired to the same city, to negotiate those treaties by which the political relations of France with the

other states of Europe, were to be regulated and guaranteed.

The 3d of July, the day of the capitulation of Paris, was signalized also by the arrival of Napoleon at Rochefort, with the intention of embarking for the United States of America. The two frigates appointed by the provisional government to convey the emperor and his suite to the western shores of the Atlantic, had already arrived, and that promptitude of action for which he was once so much distinguished, was alone wanting to secure his escape. Hesitation now proved his ruin. Misfortune seemed to have paralyzed his energies; and in the language of one who was perfectly acquainted with all his movements, "he was too unfortunate to have a will." On his arrival at Rochefort, he established himself at the maritime prefecture; and from the 3d to the 10th of July, he occupied himself in preparations for a voyage which he was doomed never to undertake. The news of the defeat at Waterloo had been the signal for the British admiralty to cover the western coast of France with cruisers, in order to prevent the possibility of Napoleon's escaping by sea, from any of the ports in that direction. Admiral Lord Keith, an officer of great experience and activity, then commander-in-chief of the channel fleet, had made a most judicious disposition of the vessels under his command, by stationing an inner line of cruisers, of various descriptions, off the principal ports between Brest and Bayonne, with an exterior line, necessarily more widely extended, between Ushant and Cape Finisterre. The commanders of these vessels had the strictest orders to suffer no vessel to pass unexamined. According to this arrangement, the British line-of-battle ship, the *Bellerophon*, cruised off Rochefort, with the occasional assistance of the *Slaney*, the *Phœbe*, and other small vessels, sometimes present and sometimes detached, as the service might require. Captain Maitland, who commanded the *Bellerophon*, is a man of high character in his profession, of firmness of mind, and of the most indisputable honour. It is necessary to mention these circumstances, because the national character of England herself is deeply concerned and identified with that of Captain Maitland, in the narrative which follows.

The several orders under which this officer acted, expressed the utmost anxiety about intercepting Bonaparte's flight, and canvassed the different probabilities concerning its direction. His attention was, at a later date, particularly directed to the

frigates in Aix Roads, and the report concerning their destination. Admiral Hotham writes to Captain Maitland, on the 8th of July, 1815, the following order:—

“The lords commissioners of the admiralty having every reason to believe that Napoleon Bonaparte meditates his escape with his family, from France to America, you are hereby requested and directed in pursuance of orders from their lordships, signified to me by Admiral the Right Honourable Viscount Keith, to keep the most vigilant look-out, for the purpose of intercepting him; and to make the strictest search of any vessel you may fall in with; and if you should be so fortunate as to intercept him, you are to transfer him and his family to the ship you command, and there keeping him in careful custody, return to the nearest port in England (going into Torbay in preference to Plymouth) with all possible expedition; and on your arrival, you are not to permit any communication with the shore, except as hereinafter directed; and you will be held responsible for keeping the whole transaction a profound secret, until you receive their lordships' further orders.

“In case you should arrive at a port where there is a flag-officer, you are to send to acquaint him with the circumstances, strictly charging the officer sent on shore with your letter, not to divulge its contents; and if there should be no flag-officer at the port where you arrive, you are to send one letter express to the secretary of the admiralty, and another to Admiral Lord Keith, with strict injunctions of secrecy to each officer who may be the bearer of them.”

We give these orders at full length, to show that they left Captain Maitland no authority to make conditions or stipulations of surrender, or to treat Napoleon otherwise than as an ordinary prisoner of war.

Captain Maitland proceeded to exercise all the vigilance which an occasion so interesting demanded; and it was soon evident that the presence of the *Bellerophon* was an absolute bar to Napoleon's escape by means of the frigates, unless it should be attempted by open force. In this latter case, the British officer had formed his plan of bearing down and disabling the one vessel, and throwing on board of her one hundred men selected for the purpose, while the *Bellerophon* set sail with all speed in pursuit of her consort, and thus made sure of both. He had also two small vessels, the *Slaney* and the *Phœbe*, which he could attach to the pursuit of the frigate, so as at least to keep her in view. This plan might have failed by accident, but it was so judiciously formed, as to

have every chance of being successful; and it seems that Napoleon received no encouragement from the commanders of the frigates to try the events of a forcible escape.

The scheme of a secret flight was next meditated. A *chasse-marée*, a peculiar species of vessel, used only in the coasting trade, was to be fitted up and manned with young probationers of the navy, equivalent to British midshipmen. This, it was thought, might elude the vigilance of such British cruisers as were in shore; but then it must have been a suspicious object at sea, and the possibility of its being able to make the voyage to America, was considered precarious. A Danish corvette was next purchased, and as in leaving the harbour, it was certain she would be brought to and examined by the English, a place of concealment was contrived, being a cask supplied with air-tubes, to be stowed in the hold of the vessel, in which it was intended Napoleon should lie concealed. But the extreme rigour with which the search was likely to be prosecuted, and the corpulence of Bonaparte, which would not permit him to remain long in a close or constrained position, made them lay aside this, as well as other hopeless contrivances. In the mean time the British cruisers hovered off the coast, and Captain Maitland, in his majesty's ship the *Bellerophon*, of seventy-four guns, appeared in Basque Roads. The situation of Napoleon now became every moment more perilous. The expectation that he might be recalled by the affection of the army, or the difficulties of the state, to reassume the reins of government, forsook him, when he learned that the allies had actually entered Paris. He now determined instantly to depart; but the moment for escape had passed away; all his efforts for that purpose proved unavailing; and that navy which, in the days of his prosperity, had opposed the principal obstacle to the fulfilment of his schemes of universal empire, relaxed not its vigilance when adversity had hurled the imperial fugitive from his throne, and compelled him to seek an asylum in a foreign land.

In this extremity, he formed the resolution to cast himself upon the generosity of the British nation; and on the morning of the 14th, Count Las Cases, and General L'Allemand, were despatched on board the *Bellerophon*, with a proposal to Captain Maitland to receive Napoleon and his suite on board his vessel. This proposal was of course accepted without hesitation; but that no misunderstanding might arise, the captain explicitly and clearly explained, that he had no authority whatever for granting terms of any sort;

and that all that he could engage to do, was to convey Napoleon and his suite to England, to be received in such a manner as the prince-regent might direct.

During the night between the 13th and 14th, Napoleon had repaired on board the French brig *l'Epervier*; and on the evening of the 14th, the Count Las Cases, and General L'Allemand, having returned, he ordered his suite with his baggage to embark on board the same vessel. At the dawn of day on the 15th, *l'Epervier* set sail with a flag of truce, and Napoleon, with all those who had attached themselves to his fate, amounting in the whole to about fifty persons, and including the Count and Countess Bertrand, and three children; the Count and Countess Montholon Semonville, and one child; Marshal Savary, Duke of Rovigo; and Generals L'Allemand, Gourgaud, and Las Cases, embarked in the course of the morning on board the *Bellerophon*. On ascending the quarter-deck, Napoleon advanced to Captain Maitland, and in a firm tone of voice, and with a dignified manner, said—"I am come to claim the protection of your prince and of your laws." The British captain, having received no orders to the contrary, received him with all the respect due to his former rank, and afforded him all the accommodation in his power.

Captain Maitland lost not a moment in despatching a frigate to England, with the important intelligence of the surrender of the fallen emperor, and in the same vessel Marshal Gourgaud was embarked, charged with the delivery of a letter from his master to the prince-regent, claiming the hospitality of the British nation.* To this letter, it does not appear that any answer was returned, except the conduct adopted towards Napoleon may be considered in this light. On the 16th, the *Bellerophon*

* COPY OF BONAPARTE'S LETTER TO HIS ROYAL HIGHNESS THE PRINCE-REGENT.

Roche fort, 13 Juillet, 1815.

"Altesse royale—En butte aux factions qui divisent mon pays, et à l'animosité des plus grandes puissances de l'Europe, j'ai terminé ma carrière politique; et je viens, comme Themistocle, m'asseoir sur les foyers du peuple Britannique. Je me mets sous la protection de ses lois; que je réclame de V. A. R. comme le plus puissant, le plus constant, et le plus généreux de mes ennemis. "NAPOLEON."

TRANSLATION.

Roche fort, 13th of July, 1815.

"Your royal highness—Exposed to the factions which divide my country, and the enmity of the greatest powers of Europe, I have terminated my political career, and I come, like Themistocles, to throw myself upon the hospitality of the British nation. I place myself under the protection of its laws, which (protection) I claim from your royal highness, as the most powerful, the most constant, and the most generous of my enemies.

"NAPOLEON."

sailed from the French coast for England, and on the 24th the telegraph at Plymouth announced her arrival in Torbay. During the voyage, the officers and crew of the English man of war treated Napoleon with all the respect they would have shown to a sovereign prince; and although orders were soon afterwards issued by the British government to consider and treat him merely as a general officer, yet so completely had he ingratiated himself into the favour of all on board, during his short voyage, that these orders were very imperfectly obeyed.

His suite treated him with the most profound respect. They never approached him or entered into conversation with him, except by his invitation, and always uncovered; but he conversed frequently and familiarly with the officers of the *Bellerophon*, and even with the seaman and marines. On every political subject, he expressed his opinions freely and without reserve. He declared that he would have perished, rather than he would have delivered himself up either to Russia, or Austria, or Prussia. The sovereigns of these countries were despotic, and might have violated with impunity all justice and good faith, by his imprisonment or death; but in surrendering himself to the British nation, he threw himself upon the generosity of every individual, and on the protection of the laws. Politics he had for ever abandoned; and to the invitation of the French army of the Loire, to place himself at their head, he had, before he left Rochefort, returned a decided negative, from a determination that not another *goutte de sang*—drop of blood, should be shed on his account. Speaking of the battle of Waterloo, he gave a similar account of the cause of his disaster, to that which had already been given in his memorable bulletin of the battle of Mount St. Jean—adding, that he was betrayed by some of his generals, and that he had no chance against the bravery of the best troops in the world and the treachery of those in whom he most confided. Speaking of his former achievements—"I ought," said he, "to have died when I entered Moscow; then I had attained the pinnacle of my glory; but from that hour reverses and disgrace have perpetually pursued me: and yet, had I followed the dictates of my own mind, I might now have been great and happy. I would have made peace at Dresden; I would have made peace at Chatillon, had not the Duke of Bassano, with well meant, but fatal zeal, dissuaded me."*

* See Narrative of an Embassy to Warsaw and Wilna, by M. de Pradt, Archbishop of Malines.

While the British cabinet was deliberating upon the proper course to be pursued towards their fallen enemy, Napoleon yielded to the illusory hope that he should be permitted to reside in England, under some strict, but not oppressive, *surveillance*. Cheered by this expectation, he seemed almost to forget his misfortunes, and the novel and impressive scene exhibited by more than a thousand boats, occupied by at least ten thousand spectators, which floated around the Bellerophon, to catch a sight of its imperial guest, dissipated for a moment the gloom that hung over his future destiny. On his appearance on deck, the officers and seamen, by a simultaneous movement, uncovered without orders, and when he advanced to the starboard gangway, to view the sublime spectacle before him, and to gratify the curiosity of his visitors, the spectators in their turn became uncovered, and the bay resounded with acclamations. During several days, these scenes were repeated, and the sensation made along the coast, by the presence of this too celebrated personage, is indescribable. Misfortune had not impaired his personal appearance. When he was chief consul of France, his figure was slender, and his visage thin, and somewhat haggard; at the time when he assumed the imperial purple, he was more robust; but, since adversity first hurled him from his giddy eminence, he had become absolutely corpulent. His person is thus described by an officer on board the Bellerophon:—"Napoleon is about five feet seven inches in height, very strongly made, and well proportioned; very broad and deep chest; legs and thighs proportioned, with great symmetry and strength; a small, round and handsome foot. His countenance is sallow, and, as it were, deeply tinged by hot climates; but the most commanding air I ever saw. His eyes gray, and the most piercing that you can imagine. His glance, you fancy, searches into your inmost thoughts. His hair dark brown, and no appearance of gray. His features are handsome now, and when younger he must have been a very handsome man. He is rather fat, and his belly protuberant, but he appears active notwithstanding. His step and demeanour altogether commanding. He looks about forty-five or forty-six years of age."

The decision of the British government, acting "in conjunction with the allied sovereigns,"* disappointed Napoleon's expectations, and doomed him to pass the remainder of his life in the island of St. Helena; and as a place of security, the world

does not afford one more eligible. Situated in the middle of the Southern Atlantic, at a distance of twelve hundred miles from the coast of Africa, and eighteen hundred from South America, with an inaccessible coast, formed by an almost uninterrupted chain of rocks, rising in nearly a perpendicular direction, to the height of from six to twelve hundred feet, it is absolutely impregnable either by surprise and external stratagem, or by an open and regular attack. Gibraltar or Malta is neither of them to be compared with St. Helena as a place of security. Nature has, indeed, been so profuse in strengthening this station, and has left so little for art to perform, that out of twenty-eight miles of coast, the fortified lines of defence, collectively, do not exceed eight hundred and fifty yards.* To this settlement, it was determined that Napoleon should be sent, on board the Northumberland man of war, under the command of Rear-admiral Sir George Cockburn; and in thus disposing of an august stranger, who had sought the protection of the British laws, without the sanction of parliament, there is no doubt that the ministers of the crown incurred a heavy responsibility, but the necessity of the case justified the decision, and parliament, at their meeting, did not hesitate to grant them an indemnity.

In confiding to British officers a mission of such importance, the prince-regent felt it necessary to express to them his earnest desire, that no greater personal restraint might be employed, than what should be found necessary faithfully to perform the duties of which Admiral Cockburn, as well as the governor of St. Helena, were never to lose sight, namely, the perfectly secure detention of *General Bonaparte*. Every thing which, without opposing this grand object, could be granted as an indulgence, it was the wish of his royal highness should be allowed to the general; but the admiral was cautioned not to suffer himself to be misled, or imprudently to deviate from the performance of his duty.

Napoleon heard of the decision of the council, through the medium of the newspapers, before it was officially announced to him, and his rage and mortification were extreme. At first, he peremptorily declared that he would never be taken over the sides of the Bellerophon alive; and his suite fully participated in his feelings. Sir Henry Banbury was the commissioner charged to make known to Bonaparte, the

* See Major-general Alexander Beaton's *Tracts on St. Helena*, written during a residence of five years, between the years 1808 and 1814, in the capacity of governor-general.

determination of the British government to send him to St. Helena. This explanation took place on the 2d of August, on board the *Bellerophon*; and at the same time he was informed, that four of his friends, (with their families,) to be chosen by himself, and twelve of his domestics, would be allowed to attend him into exile.*

* That no doubt or uncertainty might exist as to the conduct to be pursued towards Napoleon, a memorial, dated the 30th of July, 1815, was communicated by government to Admiral Cockburn, which was to serve by way of instructions, and by which it was directed, that at the moment when Bonaparte was trans-shipped from the *Bellerophon* on board the *Northumberland*, the effects which he had brought with him should be examined. His baggage, wine, provisions, and table-service, were to be taken on board the *Northumberland* for his use. His money, diamonds, bills of exchange, and valuable effects of whatever kind, were to be delivered up—not to be confiscated, but merely to be administered under the direction of the British government in such a way as to prevent their owner from using them as means to promote his escape; the interest, or the principal, according as his property might be more or less considerable, to be applied to his support; and in case of his death, the whole of his property to be disposed of according to the directions of his last will and testament. On his arrival in St. Helena, "the general," says the memorial, "must be constantly attended by an officer, appointed either by the admiral or governor, and if he be allowed to go out of the bounds where the sentinels are placed, one orderly-man at least must accompany the officer. When ships arrive at the island, and as long as they remain in sight, the general must be confined to the limits where the sentinels are placed, and during this time all communication with the inhabitants is forbidden, both to the general and his suite." An attempt to fly on the part of Napoleon to subject him to close confinement; and any plot, on the part of his attendants, to aid his flight, to subject them to be separated from him. All correspondence with the general by letter to undergo the inspection of the admiral or the governor. The whole coast of the island, and all the ships and boats that visit it, are placed under the *surveillance* of the admiral, who is charged to watch over the arrival and departure of every ship, and to prevent all communication with the coast, except such as he shall deem it proper to allow. In case the general should be seized with a serious illness, two physicians, one appointed by the admiral and the other by the governor, shall attend him, in common with his own physician, by whom a daily report on the state of his health shall be made, and in case of his death his body shall be conveyed to England.

To give increased efficacy to these regulations, two acts passed in the following session of parliament (cap. xxii. and xxiii.) "for the more effectual detaining in custody Napoleon Bonaparte; and for regulating the intercourse with the island of St. Helena;" by the former of which it was enacted that General Bonaparte should be considered as a prisoner of war, and that any British subject attempting his rescue, or aiding, assisting, or furthering him after he had effected his escape, should be deemed guilty of felony without benefit of clergy; and by the latter of which, all intercourse with the island of St. Helena, except in ships of the East India Company, or by license of his majesty, was interdicted.

Although this information was received without surprise, yet Napoleon protested against the measure in the most emphatic manner. On Friday, the 4th, the *Bellerophon* sailed from Torbay, to meet the *Northumberland* off Berry-head, and on the Sunday following, Lord Keith and Sir George Cockburn proceeded on board the former ship to settle with Napoleon the exact period of his intended removal. The ceremony with which the fallen emperor had hitherto been treated, was now to be discontinued, and the admiral approaching him, simply pulled off his hat, as he would have done to any other general officer, and said—"How do you do, *General Bonaparte*?" Surprised at being thus saluted, Napoleon hesitated an instant, and then replied to the inquiry in a slight and laconic manner. After a long expostulation against the "perfidy and injustice" practised towards him, he concluded by a peremptory refusal to quit the ship. Lord Keith, in reply, observed that he acted under the orders of his government, and that he hoped he should not be under the necessity of resorting to coercive measures—"No, no," replied Napoleon, "you command! I must obey! You may take me, but let it be remembered that I do not go with my own free will." He then presented to his lordship a formal protest in writing, against his deportation, in the presence of several witnesses.* At the close of the interview, Sir George Cockburn inquired at what hour, on the following morning, he should come to take the general on board the *Northumberland*; to which Napoleon replied, at ten.

* PROTEST OF NAPOLEON.

"I protest solemnly in the face of heaven and of men, against the violation of my most sacred rights, by the forcible disposal of my person, and of my liberty. I came freely on board the *Bellerophon*. I am not the prisoner, I am the guest of England. Once seated on board the *Bellerophon*, I was immediately entitled to the hospitality (*Je fais sur le foyer*) of the British people. If the government, by giving orders to the captain of the *Bellerophon* to receive me and my suite, intended merely to lay a snare for me, it has forfeited its honour and sullied its flag. If this act be consummated, it will be in vain that the English will talk to Europe of their loyalty, of their laws, of their liberty. The British faith will have been lost in the hospitality of the *Bellerophon*. I appeal therefore to history. It will say that an enemy who made war for twenty years on the people of England, came freely in his misfortune to seek an asylum under its laws. What more striking proof could he give of his esteem and of his confidence? But how did they answer it in England? They pretended to hold out a hospitable hand to this enemy, and when he surrendered himself to them in good faith, they sacrificed him. — NAPOLEON."

"Dated on board the *Bellerophon*, at sea, August 4, 1815."

Early on Monday morning, Admiral Cockburn went on board the *Bellerophon* to superintend the inspection of the baggage; and about half-past eleven o'clock, Lord Keith, in the barge of the *Tonnant*, proceeded to the same ship, to receive Napoleon and those by whom he was to be attended. As soon as the baggage was removed, the parting scene commenced, and the separation was truly affecting. All wept; but Marshal Savary and a Polish colonel appeared the most deeply affected. The Pole had accompanied Bonaparte through many of his campaigns, and had received seventeen wounds in his service. He clung to his knees, and requested from Lord Keith permission to attend his master, even in the most menial capacity, but the orders of government to send off the Polish officers were peremptory, and the brave officer's request could not be complied with. Count Bertrand, his wife, and three children; the Count and Countess Montholon, Count Las Cases, and General Gourgaud, with nine men and three women servants, remained with Bonaparte. Marshal Savary and General L'Allemand were left behind in the *Bellerophon*, to be sent to Malta, and the remainder of his suite were put on board the *Eurotas* frigate. M. Maingault, the surgeon of Napoleon, alone, of all his attendants, refused to accompany him, and his place was supplied by Mr. O'Meara, the surgeon of the *Bellerophon*. At twelve o'clock, the barge reached the Northumberland. During the trans-shipment, Napoleon exhibited no symptom of despondency, but, on the contrary, he appeared more cheerful than usual. He mounted the side of the vessel with the activity of a seaman, and advancing to Sir George Cockburn, he said—"Admiral, I once more protest against the injustice of your country." To Lord Lowther, and the Hon. Mr. Lytton, who were on board the Northumberland, he bowed, and soon afterwards entered into a familiar conversation with them on political subjects, which continued for two hours. His motives for his attack on Spain—the Berlin and Milan decrees—the war against Russia—and his refusal to sign the treaty of Chatillon, were all discussed with considerable freedom; and far from avoiding, he encouraged the discussion. "I was called to Spain," said he, "by Charles IV. to assist him against his son."—"Rather," said one of the young noblemen, "to place King Joseph on the throne."—"I had," replied Napoleon, "a grand political system. It was necessary to establish a counterpoise to your enormous power at sea; and besides, the Bourbons had always entertained the same feeling and adopted the same sys-

tem. I wished to revive Spain, and to do much of that which the cortes afterwards attempted." Speaking of his invasion of France, he said, with great animation, "I was then a sovereign. I had a right to make war. The king had not kept his promise." He then added, exultingly, and with a smile—"I made war on the King of France with six hundred men, and beat him too." In treating him as the English now did, he said, they acted like a little aristocratical power, and not like a great and free people. Of Mr. Fox, he said, he knew him; he had seen him at the Tuileries; "he had not," added he, "your prejudices."—"Mr. Fox, general," said one of the gentlemen, "was a zealous patriot with respect to his own country, and he was a citizen of the world."—"He sincerely wished for peace," said Napoleon, "and I wished for it also. His death prevented its conclusion. The others were not sincere."—He afterwards observed—"I do not say that I have not for twenty years endeavoured to ruin England—that is to say, to lower you—I wished to force you to be just, at least less unjust." To a question respecting Louis XVIII. he replied, "He is a good sort of man, but too fond of the table and pretty sayings. He is not calculated for the French. The Duchess of Angoulême is the only *man* in the family. The French must have such a man as myself." He afterwards broke out into some invectives against the conduct of the allies, which he called perfidious and treacherous towards France; and again adverted indignantly to the subject of his deportation to St. Helena. "You do not know my character," said he, "why not let me remain upon my parole of honour in England?"*

A few days served to complete the preparation of the Northumberland for sea, and in the course of the week the vessel was under way for her destination. During the voyage, the imperial exile maintained his usual equanimity of temper; and on the 17th of October, he, who had once aspired to the dominion of Europe—the Emperor of the West, and the descendant of Charlemagne, found himself immured, probably for life, in a small volcanic island, measuring ten miles in length and seven miles in breadth, at a distance of six thousand miles from the scene of his immortal exploits in arms, and separated from the two great continents of Africa and America by unfathomable seas.†

* These passages, forming part of a long conversation, rest upon the authority of the gentlemen to whom that conversation was addressed.

† ST. HELENA, so far from being desolate and barren, as is generally imagined, is in many parts

Thus terminated the political life of Napoleon, the first, and probably the last, Emperor of the French. His character, though bearing little resemblance to the character of the generality of mankind, exhibited one feature in common with his species—it combined a mixture of good and of evil: adding another splendid confirmation to the truth, that as there is no man so good as to be destitute of all vice, so there is none so bad as to be destitute of all virtue. The revolution, of which he was the child and the champion, had, like the character of the man, a mixture of good and evil—to that revolution, with all its horrors, France owes a system of government, theoretically, if not practically, free; and to Napoleon, with all his errors, she owes her present admirable civil and criminal code.

The fall, like the rise of Napoleon, baffled all speculation. It is an observation rendered quaint by repetition, that had he been less ambitious, he might have preserved his throne; but had his ambition not been inordinate, he never would have had a throne to preserve. The same spirit that elevated him to the imperial purple, sunk him to the rank of the Emperor of Elba, and at his next fall shut him up in the island of St. Helena. Such, then, is the fate of this extraordinary man. Per-

haps we live too near the times of which we write, to be able exactly to draw the character of Napoleon. Posterity must decide between his panegyrists and his accusers; both have, without doubt, erred. Yet, widely as men may differ in forming a judgment upon some parts of his character, upon others, all must agree. That he possessed extraordinary powers for government, will hardly be denied; Europe generally, and France in particular, bear ample testimony to the fact. In the field and in the cabinet, he long shone without an equal: his measures were for the most part as well planned, as the execution of them was successfully directed. The schemes of coalitions were frustrated by him, and for this purpose he frequently employed stratagem, and frequently force: what he could not gain by negotiation, he acquired by conquest. Many times did the potentates of the continent league among themselves and with England, to subvert his power; and, till vanquished by the storms of heaven, as often did he repel their attacks. What might have been his situation at this moment, had the expedition against Russia never been undertaken, is a point of mere speculation—certain, however, it is, that his ill-judged attempt, particularly at such a season, upon that country, was the primary cause of his

pre-eminently fertile, and capable of the highest improvement. The land, of which from two to three thousand acres might be ploughed with the greatest facility; and even much more brought into cultivation, is not inferior in the production of wheat and every other grain, as well as of potatoes, and all sorts of esculents, to the very best land of Europe. The annual produce is indeed much greater, on account of the certainty of two seasons of rain and two harvests in the year. The plain of Long-Wood and Dead-Wood comprises 1500 acres of fine land, elevated 2000 feet above the sea, with a beautiful sward, covering a deep and fertile soil, and is become the first place of pasture in the island; but with all these advantages a large proportion of St. Helena exhibits the appearance of a barren and reluctant waste. The climate is perhaps the most mild and salubrious in the world, and is remarkably congenial to human feelings. Neither too hot nor too cold, it presents throughout the year that medium temperature which is always agreeable. From thunder and lightning, this climate may be said to be wholly exempt. In the course of sixty years, only two flashes of lightning are recollected, and even these are said not to have been accompanied by thunder. Neither is this settlement subject to those storms and hurricanes which occasionally afflict and desolate many other tropical islands. The idea that rats are so numerous and destructive in St. Helena, that it is impossible to raise corn, is altogether erroneous; some years ago, these vermin were extremely troublesome, but during the two last years they have been wholly extirpated. The population of the island, in 1812, exclusive of the civil and military establishments, and the free blacks and the East India Company's

slaves, amounted to 582 whites, and 1150 blacks. Provisions are always in plenty; and the supply of fish is so ample, that not less than seventy-seven species are enumerated as frequenting the coast of that island.

As a military station, this settlement is absolutely impregnable. The principal landing places, which consist of Rupert's Bay, James Town, and Lemon Valley, are all well fortified by *few d'ours* batteries, provided with furnaces for heating shot, and flanked by cannon placed upon the cliffs, far above the reach of ship guns. Mortars and howitzers also for showering grape-shot upon the decks of ships, or upon boats attempting to land, are provided, and in short, it is utterly impossible to force a descent at any of these points. Besides the principal landing places, there are several ravines, or valleys, interspersed throughout the coast, where an enemy might undoubtedly land, but most of these are also protected by batteries, and are so easily defended by rolling stones from the heights, that no body of troops attempting to gain the interior could have the least chance of success, if proper vigilance were exerted. Two or three men, provided with iron crow, and stationed on the heights, just above the entrance to any of the ravines, would render it impossible for any number of troops, however great, to approach ten yards within the landing places. A stone of moderate size, which may be easily displaced, set off from the top of one of the ridges, before it reaches the bottom of the hill collects so many myriads in its train, that if a whole battalion of troops were drawn up in the ravine, not a single man could escape alive.—*Major-general Beaton's Tracts, and Brook's History of the Island of St. Helena.*

fall. There, his brave and veteran warriors perished; and though indeed, notwithstanding this reverse, his resources were great, and he was enabled to bring into the field, the very next year, nearly half a million of men,—yet still they were raw and inexperienced men—they had never been the comrades of his youth, never, ere now, his companions in arms. Before the year 1812, he had nearly succeeded in impressing upon Europe the belief—a belief which he himself probably entertained—that he was invincible: nor can we wonder at such a conviction being general. His wonderful successes at Marengo, at Austerlitz, at Jena, at Friedland, at Wagram, were indeed calculated to astonish and overawe the world.

With military talents so great as those which he undoubtedly possessed, there was however joined one fault, not a little reprehensible: this was his unconquerable obstinacy. It was seldom that he failed to take the most effectual measures for securing his ends, but if he had by chance erred, it was impossible to make him acknowledge his mistake. A character more decisive never perhaps belonged to any man; but Napoleon sometimes appeared to consider decision and obstinacy as the same things.

His talents as a legislator have been uniformly acknowledged, and the fault of his laws, where they are despotic and tyrannical, must be imputed to his disposition. Tyrant, he certainly was, as the restraints imposed upon the French press, upon free discussion, and upon personal liberty, abundantly prove. No considerations of duty or principle were ever suffered to interfere with the interests of his power. He could break his word, solemnly pledged; he could violate his treaties without shame or remorse; and play the hypocrite with admirable skill.

As a man, his character was much less exceptionable, than as a prince. In his personal habits, he was temperate, active, and indefatigable. In the domestic circle, he had the art of riveting the affections of his family and his household to his person; and to the princes of his own line, he displayed a partiality which frequently involved him in errors, and in part contributed to his fall.

No man perhaps was ever a greater favourite with the army—and with whatever coldness the rest of his subjects might look upon his rule, he always found in his soldiers an immutable affection. When he

returned from Elba, what French soldier hesitated to assume the tri-coloured cockade, or to shout "*Vive l'Empereur!*" Even after his final defeat at Waterloo, he was still a favourite, as many a well authenticated anecdote (some of them recorded in this work) will testify. Whatever Napoleon might be to his other subjects, to his army, at least, he was always an indulgent and liberal master: the spoils of conquered realms glittered in their tents, and around their homes. Highly disciplined and numerous as the imperial armies constantly were, still they would have been comparatively nothing, without that fervid enthusiasm with which their leader uniformly contrived to inspire their minds.

Few men have done more mischief in the world than Napoleon—and not many men have done more good. Whether, in the production of this good to mankind, Bonaparte was actuated by motives of disinterested virtue, or by motives of an opposite kind, matters little with regard to the simple effect. In giving liberty of conscience to professors of all religions, in finally destroying every vestige of the feudal system, in overturning the detestable power of the inquisition, and lastly, in the promulgation of his edict for the abolition of the slave-trade, whatever construction we may attach to the motives, we cannot but sincerely approve the deeds.

Napoleon's ruling passion was ambition; and whenever this appeared, it was sure to make every other consideration give way. This passion it was, which raised him to his dangerous eminence, and this which precipitated him from it. Ambition, joined with great talents, it has been said, constitutes a great man; and, taking this definition of greatness as just, there never existed a greater man than the late ruler of France. But the passion which burned within the breast of Napoleon, was not of that chastened and refined nature, which acts only for the general welfare, with comparatively little regard to the individual—No! his was a selfish, a gloomy, and a ruthless passion, whose flame served only to light to the object it was destined to destroy. Had this man, instead of pursuing the unsubstantial phantom of a conqueror's glory, given his hopes and exertions to the advancement of the real prosperity of his country, or the true welfare of his species, he might have lived honoured and revered, and have gone down to posterity as a pattern for the imitation of princes, and a name glorious and beloved among men.

CHAPTER IX.

BRITISH HISTORY:—Assembling of Parliament—Addresses carried in both Houses—Supplies voted—Adjournment—Parliament reassembles—Property Tax Act repealed—Estimated Expenses of peace Establishment—Bill for regulating the Importation price of Corn—Riots—Corn-bill passed into a Law—Derangement of the Ministers' Measures of Finance by the Return of Napoleon from Elba—War Taxes revived—Marriage of the Duke of Cumberland—Vote of thanks to the Duke of York as Captain-general and Commander-in-chief of the British Army—Death of Mr. Whitbread—His public Character—Conclusion of the Session of Parliament—Consequence of the War, and the Influence of Peace upon the agricultural, commercial, and financial Affairs of the Country—Exposition of the public Income and Expenditure during the War—Amount of the National Debt—Summary View of the Population, Property, and Annual Resources of the British Empire—Holy League—Establishment of Peace Societies in Europe and America—Situation of the Royal Family—Marriage of the Princess Charlotte of Wales to Prince Leopold of Saxe Cobourg.

THE proceedings of the British parliament in the session of 1815, so far as they regard the resolution taken once more to enter the lists against the French emperor, have been anticipated;* and as the other topics brought under discussion during this anxious session, were principally of a subordinate nature, they will demand only a cursory review. But if the parliamentary transactions of the year may be compressed within a narrow compass, the retrospect of the effects of the war, and of the consequences of the return of peace, upon the trade, the agriculture, the finances, and the general condition of the inhabitants of this country, afford an ample scope for historical statement, and present indeed a much wider field of inquiry than the circumscribed limits of the remaining portion of this history will allow.

On the 8th of November, 1814, parliament assembled for the despatch of business. The topics embraced in the speech of the prince regent, were, the continuance of the war with America—the opening of the congress at Vienna—and the state of the public revenue and commerce of Great Britain on the return of peace with the continent. On the first of these points, his royal highness affirmed, that the war with the United States had originated in the most unprovoked aggression on the part of that government, and that its tendency was to promote the designs of the common enemy of Europe. It was, however, his sincere desire to bring the contest to a conclusion upon just and honourable terms, and he was at the present moment engaged in negotiations for that purpose. The meeting of the congress at Vienna was next referred to; and although some delay had arisen from unavoidable causes, parliament was assured, that the endeavours of his royal highness would be used to consolidate the peace to which he

had been a party, by a just equilibrium among the powers of Europe. The state of the public revenue and commerce of this country, were represented in the speech as in the most flourishing condition; but the large expenditure, and the accumulated arrears, would demand, in the course of the present year, a considerable provision. It was in conclusion observed, that the peculiar character of the late war, as well as the extraordinary length of its duration, must have materially affected the condition of the countries engaged in it, as well as the commercial relations which formerly existed between them. Under these circumstances, it became expedient to proceed with due caution in the adoption of such regulations as might be considered necessary for the purpose of extending our trade and securing our present advantages; and his royal highness expressed his determination cordially to co-operate and assist in every measure calculated to contribute to the prosperity and welfare of his majesty's dominions.

Addresses, formed on the speech, were passed in both houses of parliament, without a division; and the commons voted with as little delay as the nature of the proceedings would admit, those supplies which the exigency of the government demanded, and to afford which, the session had commenced at an earlier period than usual. In pursuance of this purpose, Sir George Warrender, one of the lords of the admiralty, moved, on the 14th of November, that seventy thousand seamen, including fifteen thousand marines, should be voted for the service of the year 1815; also, that £1,615,250 should be granted to his majesty for wages for the same; both which proposals were carried. On a subsequent day, the chancellor of the exchequer moved, that a sum not exceeding eight millions should be granted to his majesty, to meet the bills drawn on the treasury for the extraordinaries of the army.

* See vol. ii. book V. page 336.

This motion, which called forth some observations from Mr. Tierney, was carried, and on the 1st of December, parliament adjourned till Thursday, the 9th of February, before which period it was presumed the proceedings of the congress of Vienna would terminate.

The deliberations of the congress extended to a period beyond the expectations of the British government, and on the reassembling of parliament on the 9th of February, ministers were still unprepared to offer any explanation regarding the political arrangements entered into at Vienna. During the parliamentary recess, numerous meetings had been held in various parts of the country, and on the reassembling of parliament, petitions from these meetings were presented to the house, against the longer continuance of the property tax. The loudly raised voice of the people fixed the wavering purpose of the chancellor of the exchequer; and on the 20th of February, that right honourable gentleman introduced his plan of finance for the current year, by announcing his determination to abandon the property tax. In abandoning this great measure of finance, the house, he said, would not consider itself at all precluded from resorting to it again, whenever the necessities of the country should render it expedient. This tax, in conjunction with the other war taxes, had supported the public credit, and finally enabled us to assist materially in effecting the deliverance of Europe. They had prevented a funded debt of between two and three hundred millions, and an annual charge of fourteen millions. The property tax alone had produced one hundred and fifty millions, and had saved a burden of one hundred and eighty millions, with nine millions annually of permanent taxes. In proposing the substitution of other measures, he stated, that on the 5th of January last, the public revenue amounted to £40,962,000; the principal charge upon which was the interest of the funded debt of £35,420,000. The annual expense of the peace establishment for four years, he estimated at from eighteen to nineteen millions. To meet this demand, there were in the first place about six millions of permanent annual taxes: he should in addition propose a continuance of the war taxes on the customs and the excise, for a limited time, which would produce a further sum of six millions, and he should lay before the house a plan for new taxes to the amount of five millions, making in the whole seventeen millions. The new taxes were multifarious, but consisted principally of taxes on the windows of green-houses, and shops, and warehouses; an augmentation of thirty per

cent. on the present tax on the rents of inhabited houses; eighty per cent. additional on servants, carriages and horses used for pleasure, with a still further rate of fifty per cent. on the servants, horses, and carriages of bachelors. The aggregate produce of the several sums would amount to two millions and a half. Coming next to the customs, he proposed an additional duty on tobacco and wine, and an increase upon the licenses of dealers in excisable articles. A tax of one penny upon the postage of newspapers, and a considerable advance on the stamp duties, completed the catalogue of the proposed imposts for the year. A peace establishment cast on a scale of expenditure requiring nineteen millions a year for four years, was deemed enormous by the members on the opposition side of the house; but before this question came to its ultimate decision, events had arisen that entirely deranged the proposed system of finance, and called for the revival of the property tax, and all the other war taxes.

The question of the corn laws, which had already engaged the attention of parliament in two successive sessions, was again brought forward in the house of commons on the 17th of February. During the last session, an act was passed for permitting the *exportation* of all kinds of grain duty free;* and the object of the friends of that measure was still further to extend relief to the agricultural interest, by prohibiting the free *importation* of corn, except when the average price of wheat in this country should amount to eighty shillings per quarter or upwards, and the price of other grain in the same proportion. The resolutions on which the proposed law was intended to be grounded, were introduced by the Right Honourable Frederick Robinson, vice-president of the board of trade, who, on behalf of the land-owners of the country, disclaimed any idea of making exorbitant profits to the detriment of the community. His own feelings was to do good to all parties; and in his opinion, the way to make corn ultimately cheap, as well as to guard against the evil of being dependent upon foreigners for a supply of this, the first necessary of life, was to extend legislative encouragement to its production at home. In conformity with the recommendation of the committee which sat the last session, he proposed that every species of grain, corn, meal, and flour, should be allowed to be landed and warehoused duty free (except with regard to flour in Ireland, which was at present prohibited by law), and should be as freely

* See vol. ii. book iv. page 65.

exported at all times. His next proposal was, that when the average price of wheat, for the six weeks immediately preceding the 15th of February, the 15th of May, the 15th of August, and the 15th of November, should have reached eighty shillings, importation should be entirely free, and pay no duty whatever; and finally, that with respect to corn imported from our North American colonies, the principle hitherto acted upon should be adhered to, and that the importation thence should be free after the price of wheat was sixty-seven shillings per quarter; being the same increase on the present standard of fifty-three shillings, which eighty was upon sixty-three shillings, the existing *maximum* against the admission of foreign grain to the British market. In conclusion, Mr. Robinson begged to submit his resolutions, amounting to nine in number, to the consideration of the house.*

During the progress of the corn bill, which passed through its different stages with unusual celerity, the public mind, particularly in the metropolis, became extremely agitated. Several of the houses of the members favourable to this measure were attacked with great violence, and the residence of Mr. Robinson, the mover of the regulations, suffered extremely by the ebullitions of popular fury. When the first attack was made, no material resistance was offered to the rioters;

but on Tuesday, the 7th of March, when a repetition of the excesses of the preceding day was attempted, several shots were fired from Mr. Robinson's parlour-window, by which two persons, a lieutenant in the navy, of the name of Edward Vize, and a female, of the name of Jane Watson, neither of them actively engaged in the outrage, were both mortally wounded, and died soon afterwards. At this period, the corn bill had passed a second time in the house of commons; and on the 6th of March, at the moment when the house was engaged in an animated debate on that clause of the bill by which the *maximum* price for regulating the importation was to be fixed, Mr. Lambton rose, and announced that a military force surrounded the several avenues to the house, and that the members were exposed to the danger of being over-awed by the presence of the soldiery. Such a proceeding, he pronounced to be extremely unconstitutional, and he moved an immediate adjournment. Lord Castlereagh said, the military force complained of by the honourable gentleman, had been called in to aid the civil power, to protect the members, and to prevent the house itself from being interrupted and over-awed in its deliberations by a mob. On the motion of Mr. Whitbread, the house was resumed, and the speaker stated from the chair, that before he came down to attend his parliamentary duty this day, having reason to apprehend the possibility of some disturbance, he had sent to the police magistrates, and to the high bailiff of Westminster, ordering them to have the several constables at their posts. Having done this, he thought he had made an adequate provision; but he was surprised to learn, that a noble lord (Castlereagh) had been attacked, and that he had escaped with some difficulty from a tumultuous mob, which obstructed the usual avenues, using insolent and threatening language. In consequence of this information, he (the speaker) sent for one of the civil magistrates, and directed him, if he found his force insufficient for the performance of his duty, to call in further aid; enjoining him at all events to keep the avenues clear, and to provide for the protection of the members. In pursuance of this direction, for which he held himself responsible, a military force had been called in. The attorney-general, and several other members, then stated, that at their entrance into the avenues they had been stopped by the mob, and interrogated as to the vote they intended to give on the corn bill. Sir Robert Heron complained that he had been bandied about like a shuttlecock between two battledores; and

* **SUBSTANCE OF THE RESOLUTIONS** regarding the Importation of Corn.

Resolved, That all sorts of corn, meal, and flour, not already prohibited, may be brought into the United Kingdom and warehoused duty free; that such corn, &c. may be taken out of the warehouses and again exported without the payment of any duty; that whenever foreign corn is admissible into the United Kingdom for home consumption, such corn, &c. may be taken out of the warehouses and entered for home consumption without payment of any duty; that such foreign corn &c. shall be permitted to be imported for home consumption without the payment of any duty whatever, when the average in this country is at or above the prices hereafter specified, namely,

Wheat, 80s.—*Rye, Peas, and Beans*, 53s.—*Barley*,

Beer, or Big, 40s.—*Oats*, 26s. per quarter; but whenever the average prices of British corn shall respectively be below the prices above stated, no foreign corn, &c. shall be imported, or taken out of the warehouses for home consumption. That such corn, &c. being the produce of any British colony or possession in North America, may be imported into the United Kingdom for home consumption, whenever the average price of British corn shall be at or above the following prices.

Wheat, 67s.—*Rye, Peas, and Beans*, 44s.—*Barley*,

Beer, or Big, 33s.—*Oats*, 22s. per quarter; but when the prices of British corn respectively shall be below these sums, the importations from the colonies shall no longer be allowed for home consumption.

Sir Frederick Flood declared, that he had been carried above a hundred yards on the shoulders of the mob, like mackerel from Billingsgate market, and that he thought they meant to quarter him. The police magistrates in attendance, on being ordered to appear at the bar, informed the house, that having found the civil power insufficient for the protection of the members, a troop of life-guards were called in, to act under the direction of the civil authorities. The presence of the guards served effectually to repress the riotous proceeding of the mob in the vicinity of Westminster-Hall, and the discussion on the corn question was again resumed, when the importation price was finally settled at eighty shillings per quarter. In the upper house of parliament, the corn bill, which was grounded upon the resolutions introduced into the house of commons on the 17th of February, and embraced all the material points in those resolutions, passed through its respective stages without being exposed to any very formidable opposition, and soon afterwards received the royal assent. The effect of the corn law upon the country, realized neither the sanguine expectations of the agriculturalists, nor the gloomy foreboding of the manufacturing and labouring classes. Both the friends and the adversaries of this act, entertained the expectation, that its natural and almost immediate consequence would be to advance the price of wheat to four pounds per quarter; and this assuredly would have been the case, had the demand exceeded the supply of British corn; but two years of plenty had given to the consumer the controul over the market, and had, for the present at least, rendered a measure of so much imaginary importance a mere dead letter.

The return of Bonaparte from Elba served to derange all the measures of finance proposed by the chancellor of the exchequer, and called for an entire revision of the ways and means already submitted to the consideration of parliament. Only a few months had elapsed, since the house of commons was engaged in discussing the provisions deemed necessary for a peace establishment; but scarcely had the ratification of the peace with America arrived, when an event that was felt as an electric shock throughout Europe, and again roused the world to arms, imposed upon parliament the necessity of providing for a war establishment, upon a scale of unparalleled extent. With a large arrear of former expenditure, combined with the necessity the country was placed under of providing the means to carry on a new war, the sum

which the exigencies of the state required for the present year, greatly exceeded all former periods. The chancellor of the exchequer, in submitting his statements to the house, on the 14th of June, interspersed them with a number of observations on the public spirit and resources of the country; and from an enumeration of the items, it appeared, that the aggregate sum of supplies required for the United Kingdom, amounted to 89,728,926*l*. The deduction for the Irish proportion of the joint charge was 9,572,814*l*.; and for the civil list and consolidated fund 188,000*l*. leaving a total for Great Britain of 79,968,112*l*. to be obtained from the following ways and means:—

Annual Duties,	- - - - -	3,000,000
Surplus of Consolidated Fund,	- - - - -	3,000,000
War Taxes,	- - - - -	22,000,000
Lottery,	- - - - -	250,000
Naval Stores,	- - - - -	508,500
Vote of Credit,	- - - - -	6,000,000
Exchequer Bills funded, and Loan } in 5 per cents,	- - - - -	18,135,000
Loan,	- - - - -	27,000,000
		£79,839,500

The chancellor of the exchequer had no hesitation in saying, that if it was at all probable that an equal expenditure would be incurred in future years, he should consider it proper to make an appeal to the public spirit and magnanimity of the people; but as the extraordinary expenses of the present year were not at all likely to continue, he had deemed it more wise to resort to a loan, as had been the case on former occasions; and he trusted, notwithstanding the largeness of the demand, that we should have no reason to regret the exertions we were making. The loan, which had been contracted for that day for the service of the present year, amounted to twenty-seven millions for England, and nine millions for Ireland, making a total of thirty-six millions, and the terms, he had no hesitation in declaring, would be found satisfactory, both to the contractors and to the public.

Mr. Tierney thought the present one of the most alarming budgets ever laid before parliament. The total amount of the supplies required for the year (independent of the interest on the national debt) was 89,728,000*l*.—a sum calculated to stagger even the most sanguine. It was useful to mark the progress of the expenditure, till it had at length arisen to its present portentous amount. In 1806, the war expenditure amounted to forty-five millions; in 1809, to fifty millions; in 1810, to forty-six millions; in 1811, to fifty-two millions; in 1812, to fifty-five millions; in 1813, to

fifty-seven millions; in 1814, to sixty-three millions; and in 1815, to seventy-two millions!!

These facts were not disputed; but it was held that the expenditure of the present year, though enormous, was rendered indispensable by the situation of this country and of Europe, and the resolutions of the chancellor of the exchequer were agreed to without opposition.

A message from the prince regent was presented to parliament on the 27th of June, announcing that his royal brother, Prince Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, had, with the consent of his royal highness, contracted an alliance in marriage with the Princess of Salm, and recommending that a suitable provision should be made by parliament, in order to enable their royal highnesses to support the rank and dignity becoming their station. Lord Castlereagh, in moving that the message should be taken into consideration, stated, that the junior branches of the royal family had each an allowance of eighteen thousand a year, and moved that an addition of six thousand should be made to the Duke of Cumberland, the same to be settled on the duchess during her life. The motion for the proposed grant was resisted, on account of the present state of the country, and the many large and merited claims upon its liberality. The royal family, it was observed, had already an income from the nation amounting to a million sterling annually. The unsuitable nature of the marriage was urged as another objection to the grant. The king, it was said, would never have consented to a union that would operate to the prejudice of domestic virtue. The queen had expressed herself strongly against the alliance, and said, that the Duke of Cumberland ought not to have married a person whose marriage with the Duke of Cambridge had been broken off. It was presumed also that the princess herself must have had some fortune from her former husbands, Prince Louis of Prussia, and the Prince of Salm; but even supposing that she had no fortune, yet eighteen thousand a year on the continent would be equal to thirty thousand in this country, and with such an income, all the splendour and dignity of their rank might be maintained. The proposed addition to the duke's income, which was discussed with much animation in every stage of its progress, was finally lost in the house of commons, by a majority of a single vote.

Another question, much more gratifying to the royal family in its result, and more in unison with the feelings of the nation, was brought before parliament on the 4th

of July. On this occasion, Sir John Majoribanks, after disclaiming all personal views in the motion, moved "That the thanks of this house be given to his royal highness the Duke of York, captain-general and commander-in-chief of the British forces, for his continual, effectual and unremitting attention to the duties of his office during a period of more than twenty years, during which time the army has improved in discipline and in science to an extent unknown before, and has, under Providence, risen to the height of military glory." After several other members had delivered their sentiments, Mr. Whitbread said, he knew not how to object to the motion, without the appearance of ingratitude, after the noble tribute paid to his royal highness by the Duke of Wellington on his late memorable triumph. Under such circumstances, he could not withhold his sanction from the present vote.

This vote terminated the parliamentary life of one of the most able and upright men that ever held a seat in the British senate. In two days afterwards, Mr. Whitbread, the incorruptible friend of his country and of his species, breathed his last—but not according to the common ordination of our nature. The loss of such a man, under any circumstances, would have inflicted a deep wound on the feelings of his country; but his premature death, by his own hands, put the national fortitude to a trial of singular severity. For several months past, a morbid melancholy and lethargic stupor were observed to be fast stealing over the once powerful mind of Mr. Whitbread. His talents for public business became impaired; his conversation, at intervals, was incoherent, and imbecile; and to aggravate his malady, he was himself fully sensible of the rapid decay of his mental energies. Frequently, he was heard to complain that his public life was extinct—that he was derided—in short, that he had become "an outcast of society." These feelings were succeeded by decided symptoms of mental alienation, and in the morning of the 6th of July he was found in his room, with his throat cut from ear to ear, and that tongue for ever mute from which listening senates had so frequently drawn instruction and delight. Men of all parties bore testimony to the public and private worth of this distinguished statesman. "Accustomed to defend his opinions with earnestness and warmth, the energies of his admirable and comprehensive mind would never permit the least appearance of tameness or indifference; but no particle of animosity ever found a place in his breast, and, to use his own words on another melancholy occasion—"he never

carried his political animosity beyond the threshold of the house of commons.' His eloquent appeals in favour of the unfortunate—appeals exhibiting the frankness and the honesty of the true English character, will adorn the pages of the historian; although at the present moment they afford a subject of melancholy retrospect to those who have formerly dwelt with delight, on the benevolence of a heart which always beat, and on the vigour of an intellect which was always employed, for the benefit of his fellow creatures."* "Well had the character of Mr. Whitbread been termed 'a true English character.' Even his defects, trifling as they were,—and what man is altogether without them?—were those which belong to the English character. Never had there existed a more complete Englishman. All who knew him must recollect the indefatigable earnestness and perseverance with which, during the course of his life, he directed his talents and the whole of his time to the public interest. When he conceived that his duty to the public required such a sacrifice, he had shown that he was capable of controlling the strongest feelings of personal attachment. Even those who differed from him on many political questions, nevertheless considered him one of those public treasures, the loss of which all parties would deplore. The important assistance which his zeal and ability had afforded in promoting the abolition of the slave-trade, could never be forgotten. On every occasion, indeed, in which the condition of human beings was concerned, (and the lower their state the stronger their recommendation to his favour,) no man was more anxious to apply his great powers to increase the happiness of mankind."† "To the friends of the deceased senator, it must afford consolation, to know that those who differed most from him in politics did justice to his manly character, honoured the virtues of his heart, and never for a moment doubted that in all he did he was actuated solely by a love of his country."‡ His private life, however amiable, was merged in the superior importance of his public character. He died in the 57th year of his age, leaving Lady Elizabeth, his wife, (sister of Earl Grey) with two sons and two daughters, to lament a loss great to society, and to them irreparable.

The melancholy death of the illustrious commoner, the friend of peace, the advocate of reform, and the zealous and consist-

ent supporter of religious freedom, cast a gloom over the close of the session of parliament, which even the splendid conquest of our arms could not wholly dispel. On the 12th, parliament was prorogued; and the prince-regent, in his speech from the throne, congratulated the members on the glorious and ever-memorable victory obtained at Waterloo, by Field-marshal the Duke of Wellington, and Prince Blücher—a victory which had exalted the military reputation of the country beyond all former example, had delivered from invasion the dominions of the King of the Netherlands, and in the short space of fifteen days placed the city of Paris and a large part of the kingdom of France, in the military occupation of the allied armies. The brilliant and rapid successes of the Austrian arms at the opening of the campaign, had led to the restoration of the kingdom of Naples to its ancient sovereign, and to the deliverance of that portion of Italy from foreign influence and dominion. His Christian majesty had been again restored to his capital. The restoration of peace with America had been followed by a negotiation for a commercial treaty, which he had every reason to hope would be terminated upon conditions calculated to cement the good understanding subsisting between the two countries, and equally beneficial to the interests of both. His royal highness had great pleasure in acquainting his parliament, that the labours of the congress at Vienna had been brought to an end by the signature of a treaty, which would be laid before them at their next meeting. He could not release them from their attendance, without assuring them, that it was in a great degree to the support they had afforded him, that the success of his earnest endeavours for the public welfare was to be ascribed; and in the further prosecution of such measures as might be necessary to bring the great contest in which we were engaged to an honourable and satisfactory conclusion, he relied with confidence upon the experience, zeal, and steady loyalty, of all classes of his majesty's subjects.

The restoration of the Bourbons, referred to in the speech from the throne, led almost immediately to a state of peace with France. The allied armies, indeed, were not withdrawn, but hostilities ceased. The war had been of short duration; and while it continued, it could scarcely be said to have disturbed or impeded in England the operation of the effects of the peace which was concluded in the summer of the former year. The era of peace may therefore be dated from the 30th of May, 1814, and its influence upon the agricul-

* The Marquis of Tavistock.

† Mr. Wilberforce.

‡ The chancellor of the exchequer.

ture, the trade, and the finances of Great Britain, traced up to that time. In all wars, the real and actual effects which they are calculated to produce, cannot possibly be known or even accurately conjectured, till they are brought to a close; but this remark, though of general application, has peculiar force and propriety as bearing upon the revolutionary wars, from which Great Britain had just extricated herself. The nature and object, as well as the duration, of these wars, were so different from any that had ever before been waged; their scale was so extensive, and the means employed so extraordinary, that the country was disabled from anticipating in their progress in what state she would be left at their termination. It was known indeed that depression, lassitude, and weakness, in the body politic, as well as in the natural body, bear an exact proportion to the stimulus by which both have been raised to exertion; that while that stimulus lasts, no fatigue is felt; that we seem to be endued with supernatural vigour and strength, and to be unconscious of our approaching weakness; but no sooner is the stimulus withdrawn, than more than usual weakness falls upon us. So it is with nations; the evil is not in peace, but in war. The cause of debility in a man accustomed to indulge in the use of ardent spirits, is not sobriety, but intoxication. The lassitude is, to be sure, felt when he is sober, but it is contracted by intemperance. If, therefore, our agriculture, trade, and finances now feel an unusual degree of depression, the evil is not to be imputed to the country having too soon returned to a state of peace, but to the necessity, no matter how created, under which she was placed, of so long continuing the war.

At the commencement of the revolutionary wars, and until France had overrun part of the continent, British agriculture was affected only by these as by former wars. But just about the time when the victories of France had enabled her to close some of the most productive parts of the continent against us, this country was visited by a scanty harvest. The natural and necessary consequences followed; the price of all kinds of grain rose suddenly and enormously; the profits of the farmer rose nearly in the same proportion; the demand for farms became urgent; rents were advanced excessively; and the price of corn, which had been increased by accidental circumstances, was thus sustained by a certain and regular cause. The success of the French still continued, and the efforts of Napoleon being directed uniformly to our exclusion from the continent, it followed,

that though our harvests produced an average crop, yet, from the causes just stated, operating with the increased capital of the farmer, the waste of war, and the facilities created by an extensive issue of paper money, as well provincial as national, the price of corn still continued high; the competition for farms rather increased than diminished, and in a few years the rents of land were doubled. As a collateral consequence of this state of things, the wages of the labouring classes were advanced; the farmer could no longer be contented with that mode of living which his forefathers had pursued; his profits, he conceived, justified him in aspiring to a more elevated sphere, and rents, profits, and labour, all conspired to elevate and sustain the price of agricultural produce. This state of things continued, with few interruptions, till the power of Napoleon began to decline. The ports of the continent then in succession resumed their intercourse with Great Britain, foreign grain was poured into the home market, and the British farmer under the pressure of heavy rents, increased taxes, and high wages, was under-sold in his own market. To avert the ruin with which agriculture was threatened, particularly in Ireland, where the operation of this revulsion was first felt, the prospectus of a corn-bill, for allowing the free exportation and increasing the importation price of corn, was submitted to the British parliament. The progress of this measure, or rather this series of measures, has been already detailed; and it has been seen that, as a measure of relief, no immediate benefit flowed from it to that class of society which it was intended to assist. A much more effectual and permanent remedy is to be found in the reduction of rents and taxes; as to the former, it is due to the landowners to say, that a considerable reduction has already taken place in almost every district in the kingdom; and of the latter, that the final repeal of the property tax will afford a considerable portion of relief to every branch of the agricultural interest.

When the first French revolutionary war commenced, Great Britain, having thoroughly recovered from the effects of the American war, had sprung rapidly forward in the career of improvement in all those branches of industry which constitute the strength, and contribute to the wealth of a nation. It was soon ascertained, that the new contest in which she was engaged, as it differed from all preceding wars in its origin, would also differ from them in its effects upon our manufactures and commerce. Preceding wars had for the most part been purely belligerent, in the usual acceptance of that term; they were directed

solely to the destruction or curtailment of the naval and military power of the adverse nations, the commerce of which suffered indeed, but only incidentally, and in a comparatively trifling degree. But in the wars of the French revolution, the case was widely different: it was soon perceived by the French government, that Great Britain was the soul of the alliances formed against them; and they were equally convinced that the strength of Britain lay in her manufactures and her commerce. All the varying governments of France, therefore, republican, consular, and imperial, each in succession, and each with more vigour than that by which it was preceded, directed their utmost efforts against British commerce. For some years, while France was at war with the nations of the continent, she could not of course extend her edicts beyond her own shores; but as soon as she had overrun the greater part of Europe, she compelled the subjected sovereigns and states to co-operate in her measures of hostility, and to close their ports against the commerce of Great Britain.

All the efforts of the French government could not prevent the introduction of British merchandise on the continent; but it certainly was not introduced with so much regularity, or in such quantities, as before the war; and although the total exclusion of the manufactures and the produce of England and her colonies, could not be effected to the extent of Napoleon's wishes, yet the efforts of France were successful to a considerable degree, in exciting the people of the continent to manufacture for themselves, and in infusing into them a jealousy of British superiority in trade. Notwithstanding all that this country had done and suffered to rescue continental Europe from the tyranny of France; notwithstanding that those very burdens which enhanced the price of her merchandise, were brought upon her by a determined perseverance in the common struggle; yet her manufactures, even now that peace had returned, were viewed with jealousy, and peace, instead of opening to her wider and better markets for her goods, has in fact sealed many of the ports of her friends and allies against her, more firmly than they were closed by the Berlin and Milan decrees. When peace returned, the continent indeed was in a state very unpropitious to the introduction of British manufactures. The people had either changed their habits, or they had been impoverished, or they had accustomed themselves to their own manufactures. The sovereigns of Europe, even those who were most indebted to this country, and had drawn from it such enormous

loans and subsidies, were naturally solicitous to cherish and support the infant manufactures of their own countries; and to this end they adopted those measures which had been so efficacious in rearing and protecting the manufactures of Great Britain—they either totally prohibited the introduction of our manufactures, or imposed upon them duties that amounted almost to a prohibition.

That nation is undoubtedly not only the most powerful, but also the most virtuous and happy, in which the individuals of which it is composed do not exhibit the extremes of enormous wealth and abject poverty. It is also equally true, with respect to commerce, as with respect to manufactures, that that wealth which results from patient and unwearied industry, is not only favourable to the morals and happiness of the individual, but it is also indicative of the real strength of the nation. But the wars from which we are happily at length emancipated, had a strong tendency to alter the wholesome character of British commerce and the honourable character of the British merchant, by introducing into his commercial transactions a spirit of adventure, bordering closely upon the spirit of gambling. Commerce became a game of hazard; the stake was generally deep; if the enterprise succeeded, the profits were large; but if it failed, embarrassment, and too often bankruptcy, was the consequence. Scarcely had the return of peace opened the continent of Europe, before it was glutted with British merchandise. The merchant did not consider that he was sending his goods to nations impoverished by a long war; and on that account unable to purchase to any great extent, even if the disposition had existed. But the wants and desires of the inhabitants had undergone a change, and they had learned to supply themselves with many of those articles which they formerly had received from us. The price, too, operated greatly to our disadvantage; in the progress of the war, owing to the causes already adverted to, the articles we had to offer to our former connexions actually cost the British merchant nearly double the amount formerly paid by his foreign correspondents for similar articles. From these combined causes, the demand became so much diminished, that the buyer had the complete control of the market, and the seller was obliged to accept of almost any price that was offered to him. This glut of British merchandise was not confined merely to the continent of Europe, but extended in an equal degree to America; and in the early part of the year 1816, the manufactures of Eng-

land were actually selling in the commercial cities of the United States at a lower price than the same articles would have obtained in the home markets.

While great complaints were heard from all quarters, of the stagnation of trade, it appears, from the official returns laid before parliament, that the value of our exports in 1815 exceeded those of any former year in the annals of British commerce! This fact, however, only shows how futile it is to rely upon the amount of exports as a criterion of the prosperous state of the trade of the country. A peace is concluded with nations that have been long at war with us; our merchants immediately use all their capital and credit in purchasing goods to send to foreign markets; the official return of exports thus presents a greatly increased value; but mark the result: the goods arrive in such abundance that the markets become overstocked, and most of those who thus embarked their capital, or bought upon their credit, either suffer themselves, or inflict sufferings on others.

It is not easy to point out the method by which the commerce of this country may regain its honourable character and wholesome and nourishing qualities; nor to foresee into what state it will settle, should peace continue for several years. With regard to this latter topic, some conjecture may however be formed, from a survey of the advantages we still possess, and the disadvantages under which our commerce labours, as compared with other nations. With regard to our advantages, we possess a capital far exceeding any which foreign nations can hope to acquire for a great number of years; and this capital, if we keep at peace, must accumulate at a much more rapid rate than it has hitherto done. Our next advantage may be stated to be our coal mines, so beneficial, and indeed indispensable, to the prosperity of manufactures, where machinery is extensively introduced, and where that most potent and valuable of all machines—the steam-engine, is in continual operation. A third advantage consists in the peculiar excellency of our workmen, uniting in themselves qualities which are not found combined in any other workmen in the world. In other countries, the workmen may be more active, but their activity soon dies away; whereas a British operative manufacturer or mechanic goes on steadily and unweariedly. Other workmen may possess greater quickness of intellect, but none with so much perseverance unite so much command of thought, and produce so many advantageous practical results.

The disadvantages under which the manufactures and commerce of Great Bri-

tain labour, are found, first, in an immense taxation. The price which her manufacturers obtain for their articles in foreign markets, must not only replace what has been paid for the raw material, and what has been consumed during the process of the manufacture, as well as the profit of the manufacturer, but it must also pay a certain sum to the national creditor, at the same time that it contributes to the current expenses of the state. Another disadvantage opposed to our capital and skill, may arise from the higher rate of labour in this country, and from the master-manufacturer requiring larger profits, as occupying a higher rank in society here than upon the continent. This disadvantage may, however, be considered dubious, because it is not fair to compare the wages of a workman in this country with the wages of a workman abroad; the proper comparison is between the price paid in Great Britain and other countries for the same quantity of work. For it is evident, that a workman here, being more persevering and expert, and especially with the assistance of machinery, will produce more work in the same time, and is in reality deserving of much higher wages. With respect to the greater profits expected by the master-manufacturer, it may be remarked, that greater profits may arise either from a larger percentage on the same capital, or the same per centage on a larger capital; and it is undoubted, that in this country the per centage of profit upon the capital is smaller than on the continent, the larger profits arising from the greater capital employed, and the rapid improvements made in every branch of our manufacture.

A short exposition of the financial situation of the country at the close of the revolutionary wars, will follow with propriety the cursory review just taken of our agriculture, our manufactures, and our commerce. The observations on these topics have been drawn principally from a publication amply stored with materials for history, and which may be consulted with advantage by the politician and the man of business.* The expenses of all descriptions, incurred during the wars of the French revolution, far exceed those incurred during any former wars. The hostile operations, both as regards Great Britain herself and the powers she subsidised, were on a much larger scale; the value of money had greatly depreciated; and the duration and inveteracy of the contest called forth exertions, and demanded sacrifices, unexampled perhaps in the annals of the world. A war of such a nature,

* New Annual Register.

comprising gigantic naval and military operations,* and employing at one and the same time more than a million of warriors,† of various descriptions, could not be conducted without an expense greatly exceeding any national expenditure ever recorded in history; especially when it is considered that Great Britain was the general paymaster of Europe,‡ and that

* During the principal part of the war, there were in commission, refitting, and in ordinary, 261 ships of the line, 36 ships of 50 guns each, 264 frigates, 177 sloops, 14 bombs, 172 brigs, 46 cutters, and 64 schooners, navigated and fought by 147,000 seamen, and 32,000 marines.

† MEN IN ARMS IN THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN 1812.

(Collected from Official Returns.)

Land Forces:

British Army,	301,000
Local Militia in Great Britain,	196,446
Volunteers in Great Britain,	88,000
Militia and Yeomen in Ireland,	80,000
Militia and Fencibles in the Colonies,	25,000
Foreign corps in the British service,	30,741

721,187

Sea Forces:

British Navy,	147,262
Marines,	32,668—179,930

East India Company's service:

British Forces in India,	20,000
Native Army,	140,000
Marines,	913—160,913

Total men in arms, 1,062,020

The year 1812 may be considered as a fair standard whereby to judge of the national force in the latter years of the war.

‡ The loans and subsidies granted by Great Britain to the powers of Europe during the wars of the French revolution, amount to sixty-eight millions sterling, in the following proportions:—

Total.

To Prussia—Subsidies in 1794, 670,000 <i>l.</i> : in 1807, 180,000 <i>l.</i> : in 1813–14–15 and 16, 6,303,996 <i>l.</i>	17,153,996
Austria—Loans in 1795, 4,600,000 <i>l.</i> : in 1797, 1,620,000 <i>l.</i> : Subsidies in 1809, 1814–15 and 16, 4,667,473 <i>l.</i>	6,320,000 <i>l.</i> \$ 10,887,473
Portugal—Grants in 1797 and 1801, 800,000 <i>l.</i> : Loan in 1809, 600,000 <i>l.</i> : Grants in 1810, 980,000 <i>l.</i> : in 1811–12 and 13, 6,000,000 <i>l.</i> : in 1814–15 and 16, 3,600,000 <i>l.</i>	11,980,000
Spain—In drafts, cash, and stores, from 1809 to 1816,	5,724,079
Sweden—Grants in 1808, 1809, 1812, and 1813, 2,706,736 <i>l.</i> : in 1814–15 and 16, 2,857,865 <i>l.</i>	5,564,601
Sicily—Subsidies in 1808, 300,000 <i>l.</i> and 400,000 <i>l.</i> annually from 1809 to 1813, 2,000,000 <i>l.</i> : in 1814 and 15, 916,666 <i>l.</i>	3,216,666

\$ No provision has been made by the emperor for the payment of either the principal or interest on these loans, which, like the Portuguese loan, must fall upon the Consolidated Fund of Great Britain.

she was in no instance assisted by other countries, not even when her armies were fighting the battles of her allies on their own soil.

Rapid as was the advance of the national taxes, still they were found incapable of keeping pace with the public expenditure; and although the sum annually collected from the people, in the latter years of the war, amounted to from seventy to eighty millions sterling; yet the national funded debt up to the first of February, 1816, had accumulated to the tremendous magnitude of eleven hundred and twelve millions, of which sum, however, three hundred and twenty millions had been redeemed, principally by the powerful operation of the sinking fund.

Long before the national debt had attained one-tenth part of its present magnitude, it was confidently predicted by some of the first political writers of the age, that it had nearly approached its utmost limits, and that if ever it should amount to one hundred millions, a national bankruptcy must be the inevitable consequence. At that period, the latent means of the country had not been brought into public view; parliament had not fathomed and measured the wealth of the people; their power and resources had not disclosed themselves, nor could it have been believed that they were so ample, or capable of such an extension. Indeed, many of the sources of wealth which have since opened upon us were then unknown. The population of the British empire, which at that period, perhaps, taking into the account all her dependencies, did not exceed twenty millions, has since swelled to sixty millions of souls, and the property of the nation, public and private, has undergone a proportionate augmentation.*†

Contrasting the period when the present sovereign of these realms ascended the throne, with the power and resources of the country, even at the conclusion of one of the most expensive and exhausting contests the world ever witnessed, it must be admitted that the most sanguine imagination could not have anticipated such an accession of territory, population, and power. In every region of the world, in Europe Asia, Africa, and America, the colonial dependencies of Great Britain have increased

Russia—Subsidies in 1812, 286,237 <i>l.</i> : in 1813, 1,666,666 <i>l.</i> : in 1814–15 and 16, 7,555,928 <i>l.</i>	9,508,721
French Emigrants, and other foreigners, from 1794 to 1814,	3,956,013
Minor Powers of Europe, during the war, about,	10,000,000

*†For the notes to these references, see p. 520.

* SYNOPSIS,

Showing the Annual Increase of the British Revenue and Expenditure, and the Amount of the Public Loans, from the year 1790 to the beginning of the year 1816.

[The Finance Accounts are made up to the 5th of January in each year.]

Period of Peace.	REVENUE.						EXPENDITURE.						Period of War.	LOANS.	
	Year.	Paid into Ex.	Year.	Navy.	Army.	Ordinance.	Miscellan. ¹	Total.	Year.	Paid into Ex.	Year.	Paid into Ex.			
{	1790	1,159,986,068	1790	12,483,636	1,609,574	1,455,872	11,363,515	15,912,597	1790	1,159,986,068	{	1790	1,159,986,068		
	1791	16,631,000	1791	4,008,405	2,062,548	594,678	9,303,547	15,969,178	1791	16,631,000					
	1792	13,882,435	1792	1,985,482	1,819,460	422,001	10,729,914	14,956,857	1792	13,882,435					
	1793	17,674,396	1793	3,971,915	3,993,715	783,776	8,908,069	17,657,456	1793	17,674,396					
{	1794	17,440,809	1794	5,525,331	6,641,060	1,345,008	6,716,720	20,228,119	1794	17,440,809	{	1794	17,440,809		
	1795	17,374,890	1795	6,315,623	11,610,008	2,321,010	8,560,724	28,507,265	1795	17,374,890					
	1796	15,243,876	1796	11,883,693	14,911,899	1,954,665	16,169,386	44,913,643	1796	15,243,876					
	1797	18,668,925	1797	13,093,673	15,488,083	1,643,056	12,500,000	42,664,812	1797	18,668,925					
{	1798	20,618,780	1798	13,449,388	12,852,814	1,303,580	14,874,761	42,490,643	1798	20,618,780	{	1798	20,618,780		
	1799	23,607,945	1799	13,642,000	11,840,000	1,500,000	15,658,000	42,610,000	1799	23,607,945					
	1800	29,604,008	1800	13,619,079	11,941,767	1,695,956	15,665,051	42,941,817	1800	29,604,008					
	1801	28,089,829	1801	15,857,037	12,117,039	1,639,055	15,967,971	45,581,102	1801	28,089,829					
{	1802	28,221,183	1802	13,833,573	11,211,795	1,952,274	20,892,123	47,889,766	1802	28,221,183	{	1802	28,221,183		
	1803	38,401,738	1803	10,211,378	11,786,619	1,125,921	24,656,506	47,780,424	1803	38,401,738					
	1804	49,335,978	1804	12,350,606	19,152,739	3,737,091	17,717,087	52,957,523	1804	49,335,978					
	1805	49,652,471	1805	15,035,630	18,616,898	4,456,994	23,641,484	61,751,006	1805	49,652,471					
{	1806	53,698,124	1806	14,466,998	17,019,728	4,732,286	37,580,597	73,799,609	1806	53,698,124	{	1806	53,698,124		
	1807	58,902,291	1807	16,084,027	15,111,490	4,511,064	37,072,137	72,778,718	1807	58,902,291					
	1808	61,524,113	1808	16,775,761	15,388,550	4,190,748	39,315,582	75,670,641	1808	61,524,113					
	1809	63,042,746	1809	17,467,892	17,201,061	5,108,900	42,202,659	81,980,612	1809	63,042,746					
{	1810	66,029,349	1810	19,236,036	18,463,094	4,374,184	42,903,934	84,977,248	1810	66,029,349	{	1810	66,029,349		
	1811	64,427,371	1811	20,058,412	18,635,299	4,682,331	47,302,109	90,548,151	1811	64,427,371					
	1812	63,327,432	1812	19,540,678	23,869,359	4,567,509	47,940,113	95,907,659	1812	63,327,432					
	1813	66,444,108	1813	20,500,339	30,302,800	4,252,409	45,469,468	100,525,106	1813	66,444,108					
{	1814	70,926,216	1814	21,996,624	29,469,520	3,404,527	64,002,142	118,872,813	1814	70,926,216	{	1814	70,926,216		
	1815	75,324,084	1815	21,961,566	33,795,556	4,480,729	66,252,095	125,489,946	1815	75,324,084					
	1816	79,948,670	1816	16,373,870	33,172,136	2,963,891	60,298,397	102,808,294	1816	79,948,670					

¹Including the Interest on the National Debt, the sum paid to the Sinking Fund, Subsidies, Loans to Ireland, and the Civil List.

† NATIONAL DEBT.

	Principal.	Ann. Int.
Debt at the commencement of the wars of the French Revolution in 1793	1,233,733,609	18,176,336
Increase during the first war	327,469,665	12,952,152
Increase during the peace of 1802-3	561,903,274	20,428,468
	40,207,806	307,478
Debt at the commencement of the war in 1803	601,411,080	20,735,956
Increase to the 1st of February, 1815.	511,006,352	21,413,884
Total funded debt February 1st, 1816.	1,112,417,432	42,149,850
Deduct—Redeemed, and standing in the name of the commissioners for the reduction of the debt.	140,392,540	
Debt transferred to the commissioners for life annuities.	3,097,551	
Cancelled by redemption of land tax.	25,155,056	
Cancelled, and the funds thereof charged with new loans, as per acts 53 and 45 Geo. III. Cap. 59.	251,738,858	
	1,320,384,005	

Debt unredeemed, and due to the public creditor February 1st, 1816. 1,793,033,437

The unredeemed debt stands thus:—in the 3 per cents. 1,591,913,204

4 per cents. 74,076,764

5 per cents. 126,043,479

Which being all rendered into 5 per cents. reduces the funded national debt of Great Britain to 540,452,596*l.* in actual money sterling; of which sum about eighteen millions only are owing to foreigners residing abroad, (as appears from the claims of exemption made under the property tax,) and the remainder to British subjects residing in this country.

On the 5th of January, 1816, the unfunded debt of Great Britain, as stated in the finance accounts, amounted to 58,725,357*l.*: and at the same period, the public debt of Ireland, rendered into sterling money, amounted to 45,000,000*l.*, which sums, added to the funded debt of Great Britain, constitutes an aggregate of 634,177,953*l.* the amount of the national debt in sterling money; exclusive of the Imperial and Portuguese loans, amounting together to about six millions.

The total annual charge for interest, management, &c. of the funded national debt of Great Britain, as stated in the finance report, February 1st, 1816, amounts to 42,149,850*l.*, of which 12,798,225*l.* is payable to the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt.

beyond all former example; and it may now be averred that the sun in his course never sets upon the flag of Great Britain. In the progress of the war, all the colonial territories of her enemies in the eastern and the western hemisphere, fell in succession under the power of her arms, and the once numerous and powerful natives of the belligerent states of Europe, were either annihilated or rendered inactive. At no period of the world, was the dominion of the seas so entirely British, as during the latter years of the wars of the French revolution; and such had been the efficiency of our naval power, that on the return of peace, Great Britain was enabled to make a voluntary surrender to France, Holland, and Denmark, of no less than fourteen colonies.*

But ample, as the national resources have hitherto proved themselves, there is a point beyond which it would be ruinous to draw upon them, and to that point we have probably attained. Statesmen of all parties seem to agree, that taxation, at least, has attained its utmost limit. Under such circumstances, the government is imperiously called upon to use the most rigid economy in every branch of the public expenditure; to reduce the peace establishment as low as the relative situation of this country with the other states of Europe, will admit; and to abolish every office of emolument in the state, which is not either an office of efficient duty, or that has not been conferred as a reward for public service.

The great art of government is to secure the happiness of the governed;† and the

** SUMMARY VIEW of the Population of the British Empire, at the Conclusion of the Wars of the French Revolution in 1815.*

	Europeans.	Free persons of colour.	Negro labourers.	Total number of souls.
Population of England, exclusive of the army and navy,.....	9,538,827			
of Wales,.....	611,788			
of Scotland,.....	1,805,688			
of Ireland,.....	4,500,000			16,456,303
British subjects in the different dependencies in Europe,.....	180,300			180,300
In the British possessions in North America,...	486,146			486,146
In the British West India colonies,.....	64,994	33,081	634,096	732,171
In the British settlements in Africa,.....	20,678	108,299		128,977
In her colonies and dependencies in Asia,....	61,059	1,807,496	140,450	2,009,005
East India Company's territorial possession,...	25,246	40,033,163		40,058,408
British navy, army, and foreign corps in the..				
British service.....	671,341			671,341
Total amount of the population of the British empire.....	17,965,967	41,982,038	774,546	60,722,551

† ESTIMATE of the Public and Private Property in the British Empire.

Value of landed, and other property, public and private, in Great Britain and Ireland,.....	£2,736,640,000
in 9 dependencies in Europe.....	22,161,330
in 7 settlements in North America.....	46,575,360
in 14 colonies in the West Indies.....	100,014,864
in 4 settlements in Africa.....	4,770,500
in 5 settlements and colonies in Asia.....	38,721,090

39

2,948,883,144

Estimated value of the property, public and private, in the dominions under the control and management of the East India Company,.....	1,072,427,751
Total estimated value of the property of the British Empire,.....	£4,021,310,895

ESTIMATE of the Annual Income arising in Great Britain and Ireland.

From Agriculture.....	£216,817,624
Manufactures,	
Cotton goods.....	123,000,000
Woollens.....	18,000,000
Leather.....	12,000,000
Linsens.....	6,000,000
Hardware, &c.....	6,000,000
Other articles.....	45,230,000
From mines and minerals.....	9,000,000
Inland trade.....	31,500,000
Foreign commerce and shipping.....	46,373,748
Coasting trade.....	2,000,000
Fisheries, exclusive of colonial.....	2,100,000
Banks.....	3,500,000
Foreign income.....	5,000,000
	213,703,740

Making an aggregate annual income £430,521,371

1 COLQUHOUN on the Wealth, Power and Resources of the British Empire.

first duty of a legislator is, to supply the efficient, that is, the industrious part of the population, with the means of comfortable support; to preserve the labouring classes from falling into the rank of paupers, and the manufacturers and smaller tradesmen from descending to the situation of labourers. If these classes be upheld, all the higher orders will stand erect. They are the pedestal upon which the column of society rests, and when they sink in great numbers, the whole edifice is endangered. No change so important as that which had just taken place—a change from a state of war to a state of peace—can arise, without its influence being felt in every part of the empire. For years, we have commanded the commerce of the world; now, all other nations are at liberty to meet us in the foreign markets. Hitherto, large armies were to be clothed that are now disbanded, and obliged to content themselves with more scanty apparel, less frequently renewed. The cessation of war has not only deprived a large body of officers and men engaged in belligerent pursuits, of their accustomed employment, but it has sunk into penury many of those who have for years been supported by their labour in fabricating and finishing the various articles required both for the sea and land service. All these have suddenly become idle, or now divide that employment, which was before scarcely sufficient, with the labours in agriculture and the manufactories. This reaction, however, must be imputed, not to the natural, but to the artificial state of society—not to peace, but to war. Peace indeed is the immediate cause of the evil; but war, which diverted the nation from the wholesome state of prosperity in which it was found in the year 1793, and has burdened us with an enormous debt, and an oppressive taxation, is solely to blame for that share of public distress which does at present exist, and for all those miseries that may continue to prevail till the country shall again revert back to a period of settled peace and prosperity. Had it been the good fortune of Great Britain not to have mixed herself with the revolutionary wars, her prosperity would at the present moment have attained to an elevation unknown among the nations of Europe, and many of those difficulties with which she has at present to struggle, would have had no existence. But it is in vain to reason on the past, except for the government of our future conduct; it is with that view, that statesmen should examine the subject now under consideration; and if they come to the inquiry with unbiassed minds, they will, no doubt, arrive at the conclusion, that war is one of

the greatest of national evils, and that nothing short of a case of absolute necessity should at any time cause a commercial nation to unfurl the standard of hostility. Such is the line of conduct recommended by sound policy; but if we carry our views still higher, if we act under the influence of the principles of the Christian religion, which imperial and sovereign princes have at length laid down as the standard of their conduct, and the cement of their alliances,* governors will be cautious how they bring upon their countries the guilt of

* CONVENTION, USUALLY CALLED THE
HOLY LEAGUE,

*Between the Emperors of Russia and Austria
and the King of Prussia.*

In the name of the Most Holy and Indivisible Trinity, their majesties have agreed to the following articles:—

Art. I.—Conformably to the words of the Holy Scriptures, which command all men to consider each other as brethren, the three contracting monarchs will remain united by the bonds of a true and indissoluble fraternity; and, considering each other as fellow countrymen, they will, on all occasions, and in all places, lend each other aid and assistance; and, regarding themselves towards their subjects and armies as fathers of families, they will lead them in the same spirit of fraternity with which they are animated, to protect religion, peace, and justice.

Art. II.—In consequence, the sole principle in force, whether between the said governments, or between their subjects, shall be, that of doing each other reciprocal service, and of testifying, by unalterable good will, the mutual affection with which they ought to be animated, to consider themselves all as members of one and the same Christian nation; the three allied princes, looking on themselves as merely delegated by Providence to govern three branches of one family, namely, Austria, Prussia, and Russia, thus confessing that the Christian nation, of which they and their people form a part, has in reality no other sovereign than him to whom alone power really belongs, because in him alone are found all the treasures of love, science, and infinite wisdom; that is to say, God, our Divine Saviour, the Word of the Most High, the Word of Life. Their majesties consequently recommend to their people, with the most tender solicitude, as the sole means of enjoying that peace which arises from a good conscience, and which alone is durable, to strengthen themselves every day more and more in the principles and exercise of the duties which the Divine Saviour has taught to mankind.

Art. III.—All the powers who shall choose solemnly to avow the sacred principles which have dictated the present act, and shall acknowledge how important it is for the happiness of nations, too long agitated, that those truths should henceforth exercise over the destinies of mankind all the influence which belongs to them, will be received with equal ardour and affection into this holy alliance.

Done at Paris, on the 26th of Sept. 1815.

(Signed) ALEXANDER.

FRANCIS.

FREDERICK WILLIAM.

[This treaty is signed, not, as is usual, by the respective ministers, but by the sovereigns themselves, with their own signatures.]

blood, and the people in future times will guard against being made the instruments of hostile factions. An examination of the public expenditure of Great Britain from 1790 to 1816, as exhibited at page 519 of the present volume, will show that the expenses of the war, to this country alone, have amounted to 1,153,014,311*l.*;* but to calculate the loss of human life sustained by all the states engaged in this contest, is impossible. Hecatombs of victims, high as Olympus, have been offered to the furies of war, during the last five-and-twenty years, and in estimating the aggregate amount of human sacrifices within that period, at a sum equal to the whole male adult population of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, no exaggeration is perhaps committed. If this be a fact, and the assertion will, we apprehend, scarcely be disputed, it must be admitted that the appeal to the sword is the last appeal that should be made by nations. Whether offensive wars, as they are styled, are in any case justifiable, is a question that may fairly admit of dispute; but it is clear that war is utterly irreconcilable with the principles professed by Christian communities, except when every effort has been exerted in vain to obtain a redress of the wrongs of which the aggrieved party complains. Wrongs indeed are seldom redressed by war, unless revenge be redress, and multiplied injury satisfaction; and in general that success is the most truly glorious and satisfactory, which is peaceably obtained.†

* The average annual expenditure of Great Britain from 1794 to 1816, amounts to 66,854,399*l.*—From 1790 to 1794, to 16,723,272*l.*

Constituting an annual excess of 50,131,057*l.* which, multiplied by twenty-three, the number of years, produces an aggregate increased expenditure within that period of 1,153,014,311*l.*

† One of the most remarkable consequences of the late wars is the establishment of various societies in Europe and America for the abolition of this scourge of nations, and for the diffusion of a general spirit of peace. The first society formed for this purpose was instituted on the 28th of December, 1815, in the state of Massachusetts, in North America, under the auspices of several of the leading men of that state; and the object of the Massachusetts society, as defined by its members, is to promote the cause of peace, by exhibiting with clearness and distinctness the pacific nature of the Christian dispensation, and by turning the attention of the community to the nature, spirit, causes, and effects of war. It is hoped, by the concurrence of the friends of peace in all nations, and by the gradual illumination of the Christian world, a pacific spirit may be communicated to governments, and that in this way the occasions of war, and the belief of its necessity, will be constantly diminished, till it shall be regarded by all Christians with the same horror with which they now look back on the exploded and barbarous customs of former ages. To this end, it is proposed to encourage the formation of peace societies both in America and in foreign countries,

The power, strength, and resources of this country, as developed in the foregoing pages, if wisely administered, may yet conduct the nation to a state of prosperity. Time will no doubt be required to overcome the difficulties under which we labour, but time and prudence are alone necessary to effect that purpose. Of military and naval glory, Great Britain has laid in a stock on which she may draw for ages without exhausting the fund. She may afford to cultivate the arts of peace; to engage freely in the pursuits of a peaceful industry; and, availing herself of the security of her insular situation, and her renown in arms, view, with a dignified composure, the agitations of surrounding nations, while she herself engages in no contest but the contests of commerce, conciliation, and benevolence.

by the dispersion of tracts, by correspondence, and by other suitable means. Various facts and considerations have conspired to excite a hope, that a change may be effected in public sentiment, and a more happy state of society introduced; governors in the holy league above referred to, have solemnly declared their unalterable determination to adopt for the only rule of their conduct both in the administration of their respective states, and in their political relations with every other government, the precepts of the Christian religion—the precepts of justice, of charity, and of peace; and while monarchs have erected so exalted a standard for the regulation of their conduct, it is known that a great majority of the people in every civilized country, when free from the delusions of party passions and prejudices, have such an aversion to public hostility that they would rejoice if any plan could be devised which would secure their rights, and absolve them from the burdens and sufferings of war. "A late treaty of peace,"† says the Massachusetts society, "has suggested the practicability of such a plan, and given an admirable lesson on the subject. From this treaty, it seems, that when two governments are inclined to peace, they can make some friendly power the umpire, and last resort for settling points of difference; and this ray of pacific light will, it is hoped, shine more and more to the perfect day. If questions about territory—questions which as frequently, and as justly, generate wars as any other, may be honourably settled by an impartial umpire, where," it is inquired, "is the impracticability of constituting, by general consent, a grand tribunal of empires—a high court of equity, to pass sentence in all matters of dispute between particular governments?"

An institution similar in its objects to the peace societies on the opposite shores of the Atlantic, was instituted in London, on the 14th of June, 1816, at the head of which stands the name of Thomas Clarkson, the zealous and successful promoter of the abolition of the African slave-trade. The society, and its auxiliaries, like the peace societies of America, address themselves to no particular religious or political community, but wish to embrace those of every denomination, in the attainment of an object not limited by local attachments nor circumscribed by geographical boundaries, but extending to the whole human race.

† The treaty of Ghent between Great Britain and America, see vol. ii. book v. p. 411.

In summing up the events of the long and arduous struggle in which the nation has been engaged, the peculiar circumstances and situation of the royal family call for some observations. The venerable sovereign of these realms, whose afflictions have so long engaged the sympathies of the nation, has survived the contest, but his mental alienation has not permitted him to participate in the exultation which the splendid achievements of his arms have so universally called forth.

The reign of his son, if that epithet may be applied to an authority exercised in the name of another, has been irradiated with wreaths of imperishable renown. No sovereign, ancient or modern, can perhaps display within so short a period, such a series of splendid actions as Britain has achieved during the exercise of the royal functions by the prince-regent. When the reins of government were committed to his hands, the affairs of Europe presented a prospect calculated to dismay the stoutest heart, and the situation of his own country was by no means cheering. The power of Napoleon seemed so firmly rooted in the affections of the French nation, and so strongly consolidated by the subjugation of the continent, as to bid defiance to every attempt to shake its stability. But scarcely was unrestricted authority given to the prince, when our victories in Spain burst forth upon an astonished world, and laid the foundation of the overthrow of Bonaparte, and the restoration of the Bourbon line. Yet, with all this military glory beaming upon his throne, no British prince had perhaps ever less hold upon the affections of the people. Several causes conspire to produce this want of popularity: the political vacillation of the prince—his personal habits—his attachment to foreign manners—and above all, his separation from, and the judicial proceedings against his royal consort, have all contributed to alienate the affections of the people.

The Princess Charlotte, his daughter, the only offspring of that unhappy marriage, has, since the departure of her mother from England, had a large share of popular favour transferred to her royal person. The high spirit of this illustrious female, as evinced in her unshaken attachment to the cause of her mother, and in her determination to exercise her right of freedom of choice in the most interesting and important of all human contracts, called forth the approbation of her country, and was hailed as a happy omen by the people over whom she was destined to reign. In the month of May, 1814, Prince Leopold, of Saxe Cobourg, after having sustained a distinguished part in the cam-

paigns of that and the preceding year, accompanied the sovereigns of Russia and Prussia to England, and remained in this country about a month after the departure of the royal visitors. It was during this period, that he had first the happiness to attract the particular attention of the royal family, and absence did not obliterate the favourable impression he had made on the heart of the princess. On the return of Napoleon from Elba, Prince Leopold, who was at that time at the court of the house of Austria, hastened from Vienna to join the allied armies on the Rhine, and soon afterwards marched to Paris. The affairs of his family detained him for some time in the French capital, after which he proceeded by way of Cobourg to Berlin, and here it was that the invitation of the prince-regent of England intimated to him the high destiny to which he was called. In the month of February, 1816, he returned to this country in the avowed character of the intended husband of the Princess Charlotte of Wales. Two months served to complete the arrangements of the royal nuptials, and on Thursday, "the 2d of May, at nine o'clock in the morning, the solemnity of the marriage of her royal highness the Princess Charlotte Augusta, daughter of his royal highness George Augustus Frederick, Prince of Wales, Regent of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, with his serene highness, Leopold George Frederick, Duke of Saxe, Margrave of Meissen, Landgrave of Thuringen, Prince of Cobourg of Saalfeld, was performed in the great crimson room at Carlton-house, by his grace the Archbishop of Canterbury, in the presence of her majesty the queen, his royal highness the prince-regent, their royal highnesses the Dukes of York, Clarence, and Kent, their royal highnesses the Princesses Augusta Sophia, Elizabeth, and Mary, her royal highness the Duchess of York, her royal highness the Princess Sophia of Gloucester, their serene highnesses the Duke and Mademoiselle D'Orleans, the Duke of Bourbon, the great officers of state, and the ambassadors and ministers of foreign states assisting at the ceremony."* Previously to the marriage, a parliamentary grant of 60,000*l.* per annum was settled upon the royal pair, of which sum 10,000*l.* a year was to form the privy purse of her royal highness. In the event of the demise of the princess, it was stipulated in the treaty of marriage, that 50,000*l.* a year should be continued to the prince; and to prevent those embarrassments to which the royal family had been so often subject,

* London Gazette.

50,000*l.* was voted by parliament as an outfit.

His serene highness Prince Leopold is the third son of the late Duke Francis Frederick Anthony, Field-marshal of the Roman empire, and commander-in-chief of the allied armies in the Netherlands at the breaking out of the wars of the French revolution. Before the treaty of congress, signed at Vienna in 1815, the possessions of the house of Saxe Cobourg Saalfeld comprised seventeen and a half German square miles, with a population of 57,366 souls; and in 1806, on the succession of Ernest Anthony Charles Lewis, the reigning duke, his revenue amounted to about 435,413 florins, or nearly 50,000*l.* sterling,* but by the treaty of Vienna, about twenty thousand inhabitants, with a proportionate increase of revenue, were added to his resources. The reigning family of Saxe Cobourg are members of the Lutheran church, and their subjects, who are for the most part of the same religious persuasion, are chiefly employed in trade and manufacture.

Prince Leopold, who at the period of his marriage was in the 26th year of his age, was born on the 16th of December, 1790; and the character of this prince, in which the English nation feels so lively an interest, is thus drawn by an historian of the house of Saxony.† "In his early youth, he manifested an excellent understanding, and a tender and a benevolent heart. As he advanced in years, he displayed a strong attachment to literary and scientific pursuits, and even at that time, all his actions were marked with dignified gravity and unusual moderation. His propensity to study was seconded by the efforts of an excellent instructor, and as he remained

a stranger to all those dissipations with which persons of his age and rank are commonly indulged, his attainments, so early as his fifteenth year, were very extensive. His extraordinary capacity, particularly unfolded itself in the study of the languages, history, mathematics, botany, music, and drawing, in which last he has made a proficiency that would be creditable to a professor. The vicissitudes to which his house was exposed from French hostility, seem only to have contributed to preserve the purity of his morals; and they have certainly had a most powerful influence in the development of that rare moderation, that ardent love of justice, and that manly firmness, which are the predominant traits in the character of this prince. Necessitated at so early an age to attend to a variety of diplomatic business, he acquired, partly in this school, and partly in his extensive travels, a thorough knowledge of men in all their relations; and though his experience has not always been of the most agreeable kind, still it has not been able to warp the kindness and benevolence of his nature. In his campaigns, and in the field of battle, where all false greatness disappears, Leopold has given the most undeniable proofs, that courage, and a profound sense of religion and liberty, are innate in his soul; and that clear intelligence and unshaken fortitude are his securest possessions. With such qualities of the head and heart, with a character and principles that so completely harmonize with the feelings, the notions, nay, even the prejudices, of the British nation, this illustrious prince authorizes us to anticipate, from his union with the heiress to the throne, results equally conducive to the welfare of the people at large, and to the happiness of that distinguished family of which he is become a member."

* Storch's Staats und Adress Handbuch.

† Schöberl.

CHAPTER X.

FOREIGN HISTORY: Policy of the Court of Naples—Murat espouses the Cause of Napoleon—Attack the Troops of Austria—Is conquered and dethroned—Retires to the South of France—Makes a hostile Descent in Calabria—Is taken, tried, and executed—Louis XVIII. dissolves the Chambers—Character of the new Deputies—Proscription Lists—Total Extinction of the Freedom of the periodical Press in France—Ordinance for disbanding the old, and organizing a new Army in France—Trial and Execution of Colonel Labedoyere—Fate of Marshal Brune—The Louvre dismantled—Triumph of the Ultra-royalist Party in the French Cabinet—Change of Ministry—Meeting of the Chambers—Persecution of the Protestants in the South of France—Trial and Execution of Marshal Ney—Trial and Conviction of General Count Lavalette—His Escape—Negotiations between France and the allied Powers—General Treaty of Peace with France—Treaty of Alliance and Friendship entered into by the allied Powers.

THE affairs of Europe were now fast tending towards the system of political restoration. Napoleon, the founder of the new dynasties, had fallen, and none of the thrones erected by that extraordinary character, the throne of Sweden alone excepted, had survived his fall. In Holland, Spain, and Germany, the Napoleon race had in succession disappeared from the list of sovereign princes; and in Italy, the sceptre of Joachim Murat was, within the period of the second reign of his imperial relative, wrested from his grasp. During the exile of Napoleon in the isle of Elba, an active correspondence had been carried on between Porto Ferrajo and the court of Naples. At this time, two contending parties existed in that court—the French and the Neapolitans. The attachments of the king were manifestly to the former, and on the return of Napoleon to the French capital, little difficulty was found by this party in fixing their sovereign in alliance with the prince to whom he owed his crown, and to whose friendship alone he began to suspect that he must be indebted for its preservation.* The policy of Murat was to preserve his kingdom; and the same motives which induced him to join the allies in 1814, now led him to espouse the cause of the French emperor. No sooner had the intelligence of the triumphal entry of Bonaparte into Lyons arrived at Naples, than Joachim quitted his capital to place himself at the head of his army. On the 19th of March, he arrived at Ancona, and forcing a passage through the dominions of the pope, proceeded from the Marches to the Legations, where, on the

30th of the same month, he commenced hostilities by attacking the Austrian army posted at Cesena. The immediate consequence of this act of hostility was a declaration of war issued by the Emperor of Austria against the King of Naples, and it cannot be doubted that the emperor and his allies seized with satisfaction so favourable an opportunity of dethroning a sovereign, whose crown, conquered from its hereditary possessor, made a breach in the system of restoration. The grand object of Murat was to unite Lombardy, and the other states of Italy, against the house of Austria, and one of his first acts, on the breaking out of the war, was to issue a proclamation, dated from Rimini, on the 31st of March, invoking the Italians to repair to his standard, and to drive from among them all foreign power. "One cry," says this proclamation, "echoes from the Alps to the straits of Scylla—'The independence of Italy.' What right have strangers to rob you of independence, the first right and blessing of all people. It is in vain that nature has given you the Alps for a bulwark, and the invincible discrepancy of your character, as a barrier still more insurmountable! No! no! let every foreign domination disappear from the soil of Italy. Formerly masters of the world, you have expiated that fatal glory by a servitude of twenty centuries. Let it now be your glory to have masters no longer. Eighty thousand Italians at Naples hasten to you under the command of the king; they swear never to rest till Italy be free; and they have proved more than once that they know how to keep their oaths. Arise, Italians, and march in the closest union; and at the same time that your courage shall assert your internal independence, let a government of your choice, a truly national representation, a constitution worthy of you and of the age, guarantee your internal liberty, and protect your property. I invite all brave men to come and combat with me; I invite all enlightened men, who have reflected on

* The fact had been suffered to transpire, that during the negotiations at Vienna, Talleyrand had addressed a note to Lord Castlereagh, urging England to declare in favour of the legitimate sovereign of Naples, Ferdinand IV.; and much sophistry was used by the same statesman, to prove, that although Austria had, by an existing treaty, guaranteed the kingdom of Naples to her present sovereign, yet that the emperor might, without any breach of faith, become a party to this political intrigue.

the wants of their country, to prepare, in the silence of the passions, the constitution and laws which must in future govern happy and independent Italy."

At first, Murat seemed rapidly advancing to the completion of his object. The imperial General Bianchi retired before the Neapolitan army, the Grand-duke of Tuscany quitted his capital, and on the 6th of April the enemy entered Florence, which was evacuated by the Austrian General Nugent. But notwithstanding this success, the Italians did not repair to the standard of independence in any considerable numbers, or display any material portion of that zeal which was altogether indispensable in order to resist with success the imperial armies. In the mean time, the Austrian forces were collected under Marshal Bellegarde, who, in a proclamation, dated the 5th of April, reminded the people of Italy, that Murat, the denouncer of foreign influence, was himself a foreigner! No sooner had the main body of the Austrian armies come in contact with the Neapolitan troops, than the latter fell back to Ancona, pursued by the Austrian Generals Bianchi and Frimont. Murat, perceiving the magnitude of his danger, determined to sue for an armistice, alleging, that he had not advanced for the purpose of aggression or conquest, but in order to render the treaty existing between Austria and Naples respected. His overtures, however, were rejected; and finding himself in danger of being cut off from the Roman and Neapolitan states, he abandoned Ancona, and marched in the direction of Macerata, to Tolentino. At this place, a series of bloody engagements were fought between the armies under Murat and General Bianchi, on the 2d and 3d of May; and for some time victory seemed to hover between the contending armies; but at length she fixed her standard on the side of the imperialists, and the disorderly retreat of the panic-struck Neapolitans, rendered it sufficiently evident that the star of Murat's glory had for ever set.

In consequence of arrangements made between Lord Burghersh, the English minister at Florence, and Captain Campbell of the Tremendous man of war, the latter, accompanied by a frigate and a sloop of war, sailed at the beginning of May to the Bay of Naples. On his arrival, Captain Campbell demanded the surrender of the Neapolitan navy, with an intimation, that if his demand were not immediately complied with, he should proceed without delay to bombard the city. Intimidated by the threatened danger, Madame Murat, to whose hands the administration of the go-

vernment was committed in the absence of the king, sent Prince Cariati to negotiate for the surrender of the fleet, which was ultimately placed at the joint disposal of the English government and of Ferdinand IV. of Sicily. The war in Italy was now drawing rapidly to a close: the party of King Ferdinand began to show themselves in great strength in the capital; the army under Murat, after sustaining several defeats, was reduced to about sixteen thousand men; and Lord Exmouth, better known as Sir Edward Pellew, had on the 18th of May, stationed his squadron before that city. Under this complication of adverse circumstances, all hopes of saving his kingdom vanished, and on the 30th of May a military convention was concluded between General Niepperg, on the part of Austria; General Coletta, on that of Naples, and Lord Burghersh, on the part of Great Britain; by which it was stipulated, that Murat should abdicate his throne, and that the kingdom of Naples, its fortresses and arsenals, with all its military forces, and other resources, should be surrendered to the Emperor of Austria and the King of Great Britain, to be returned to the lawful sovereign of the country, Ferdinand IV.

After an absence of nine years, the King of the Two Sicilies made his public entry into Naples on the 17th of June, and was greeted with a degree of popular enthusiasm which apparently was not the mere temporary homage paid to existing power. How far the restoration of the Bourbon line in Naples may be favourable to the tranquillity of the government and the happiness of the people, it is impossible accurately to predict; but it is known that the Neapolitans, in losing a soldier of fortune, as remarkable for his courage in the field as for his indecision in the cabinet,* have obtained a prince without talents, destitute of personal dignity, and, "without exception, the worst educated sovereign in Europe."†

Brief as is generally the interval between the deposition and the death of a sovereign, the fate of Murat succeeded his fall with more than usual celerity. Having effected his escape from Italy, he retired to Provence, in the south of France, and for some time took up his residence at Toulon, while Madame Murat and her family found an asylum in the Austrian states. The events attendant upon the battle of Waterloo obliged Murat to quit France, and in the month of September he appeared in the island of Corsica,

* Lord William Bentinck.

† Sir William Hamilton.

where he assembled a number of partisans, and in imitation of the great and successful enterprise which had taken place in France in the early part of the same year, determined to invade the kingdom of Naples for the purpose of reascending the throne from which he had been so recently expelled. Although the Neapolitan coast was guarded by a line of armed vessels, Marshal Murat, with two small vessels, sailed directly for Calabria Ulterior, and at mid-day on the 8th of October disembarked on the coast of Pizzo, with a suite of thirty persons, among whom were General Franceschette and Marshal Natali. From the coast, the invaders marched without interruption to the first village, where Murat, hoping to excite a rising of the people in his favour, exclaimed—"I am Joachim, your king; it is your duty to acknowledge me."* These words served to rouse the people to arms—not to aid, but to crush, a desperate enterprise, which threatened to involve their country in the horrors of a civil war. Murat and his suite, perceiving, when it was too late, that popular feeling in this part of Italy was against them, sought refuge in the mountains, whence they attempted to open themselves a way to the coast, for the purpose of re-embarking; but, overcome by the numbers of their pursuers, they were made prisoners, and conducted, in spite of the most gallant resistance, to the fort of Pizzo. Immediately after his capture, Murat was brought to trial before a military commission, by whom he was condemned to be shot, in company with his followers; and at three o'clock in the afternoon of the 13th of October, the apprehensions of the reigning family were extinguished in the blood of their rival.

As a soldier, Murat might rank, for bravery and enterprise, among the first military characters of the age; and as a prince, his endeavours were assiduously directed to correct the vices, and to ameliorate the condition of his subjects; but as a statesman, he was weak and irresolute—"brave in the field, but more cowardly than a woman or a monk when not in the presence of the enemy;"† and though the desertion of the cause of the allies cost him his crown and his life, his treachery to Napoleon, to whom he was indebted for every thing, will be esteemed by an impartial posterity as the vital error of a career short, splendid, and fatal.

In France, where, as well as in Italy, the cause of legitimacy had again triumphed,

the king published an ordinance on the 13th of July, announcing the dissolution of the chamber of deputies, and convoking a new assembly, to meet on the 14th of August. In order that the people should enjoy a more numerous representation than at that time existed, the number of members was increased by this edict from 262 to 395; but the mode of election was exposed to great objections. During the whole period of Napoleon's imperial sway, no vacancies whatever had been supplied in the electoral colleges, and from death and other causes, the members, on the second restoration of the Bourbons, were reduced to nearly one half their original number. Instead of referring to the primary electors to supply these vacancies, the king, by an ordinance, dated the 20th of July, judged it proper to direct, that the prefects of the departments, all of them newly appointed men, of high royalist principles, should make up the complement, by nominating, of their own authority, twenty members for each college. As might have been expected, these supplementary members, with very few exceptions, proved to be of the same character as the prefects, and the deputies chosen under such auspices, instead of being the representatives of the commons of the land, became the devoted servants of the court—or rather of that ultra-royalist party, whose views of the omnipotence of the royal prerogatives far exceeded those either of the king or his ministry.

The edict for dissolving the chamber of deputies was followed by two other ordinances, both dated the 24th of July, by the former of which, a number of peers, who had accepted seats in the *soi-disant* chamber of peers, named and established by Napoleon, since the 20th of March, were declared to have acted in a manner incompatible with their dignity, and to have forfeited their right to the peerage of France. By the first article of the second ordinance, it was directed that a number of general and other officers, who had betrayed the king before the 23d of March, or who had attacked France and the government with arms in their hands, and those who by violence had obtained possession of power, should be arrested, and carried before the competent councils of war, in their respective divisions. By the second article, in the same edict, it was ordered that a number of other individuals should quit the city of Paris in three days, and should retire into the interior of France, to places pointed out by the minister of police, where they should remain under his superintendence, until the chambers should decide upon such as should be sent out of

* Official Journal of the Two Sicilies, dated October 13, 1815.

† Letter from Bonaparte to the Queen of Naples, dated Feb. 17, 1814.

he country, or delivered over for trial to the tribunals.*

The policy of these measures of rigour was strongly questioned by one portion of the king's ministers, and their natural influence tended still further to increase the disunion of that heterogeneous body. The Duke of Otranto in particular, by whom, as minister of police, the latter of these ordinances was countersigned, so much disapproved of this proceeding, as to declare, that if he could have effaced several of the names inscribed in the proscription lists by placing there his own, he should not have hesitated. But all minds, says this minister, had been occupied with the fatal mistake, that the throne had been subverted by the result of a vast conspiracy, and that a great mass of individuals were comprised in the plot which had re-seated Napoleon on the throne. The idea of a conspiracy, he adds, had been propagated by those who wished for proscription, and in consenting to sign the ordinance of the 24th of July, and to remain in administration under such circumstances, his only wish was to impose silence on revenge, to suffer the passions gradually to become calm, and to enable justice to resume her course.

The freedom of the press, from which a royal ordinance had, soon after the return of the king from Ghent, removed all restrictions, was soon deemed too potent an instrument in the hands of the disaffected; and on the 8th of August, a second ordi-

nance, signed by the king, and countersigned by the Duke of Otranto, was issued, revoking all the licenses given to public journals of every kind, and suspending their further appearance till fresh authority was received by each of them from the minister-general of police; and, that not a vestige of freedom might continue to be enjoyed by any branch of the periodical press, it was further directed, that all periodical writings, should be submitted to the examination of a commission of censorship, whose members should be appointed by the king, on the presentation of the minister of general police. So gross an infraction of the provisions of the constitutional charter, rendered nugatory a representative form of government, for where the people cannot, through the medium of the press, be brought acquainted with the conduct of their representatives in the senate, the national voice, expressed in such assemblies, is divested of one of its most important attributes. How is the public to know the truth when the journals are under the restraint of the ministers? or how shall the ministers and the chambers ascertain the public opinions, if the press, the tongue of the people, be not free? When the press is unrestrained, foreign powers have no right to complain of the government on account of any article that may appear in the public papers; but if the ministers have the guidance and control of the press, they render themselves responsible to other states for all its abuse.*

A higher tribute to the salutary influence of the press, is scarcely to be found on record, than that presented by one of the ministers of Louis XVIII. at the very moment when fresh shackles were forging by the French government for that organ of public illumination. In a correspondence between Lord Castlereagh, the British minister for foreign relations, and Prince Talleyrand, which took place in the months of August and September, regarding the possible revival of the African slave-trade, which Napoleon had abolished, the French minister informs his lordship, that it was with regret, that last year, the king, his master, had stipulated for the continuance of this traffic for a few years. This he had done because there existed in France prejudices which it was desirable to soothe; but since that time these prejudices had been attacked, (through the medium of the press,) and with such effect, as to enable the king, without delay, to follow the dictates of his own inclinations, and to do an act agreeable to the government and people of Great Britain, by issuing directions, on

* PROSCRIPTION LISTS.

Peers expelled.—Counts—Clement de Ris, Colchen, Cornudet, d'Aboville. Marshals—Lefebvre, Duke of Dantzic. Counts—De Croix, Dedeley d'Agier, Dejean, Fabre de l'Aude, Gassendi, Lapepe, Latour Maubourg. Dukes of Prasline, Plaisance, Le Brun. Marshals—Duke of Elchingen, (Ney;) Albufera, (Suchet;) Corneigliano, Moncey;) Treviso, (Mortier;) Counts—De Barral, Archbishop of Tours; Boissy d'Anglas. Duke of Cadore, (Champaigny.) Counts—De Canclaux, Sarrasbiana, De, Montesquiou, Pontecoulant, Ramon, Segur, Valence, and Belliard.

Proscribed Officers and Public Functionaries—To be arrested and brought to trial.—Ney, Laboyere, the two Lallemands, Drouet d'Erlon, Lefebvre Desnouettes, Ameilh, Brayer, Gilly, Mouton Duvernet, Grouchy, Clausel, Laborde, Debelle, Bertrand, Drouet, Cambronne, Lavalette, and Lovign.

Proscribed Officers and Public Functionaries—To quit Paris, and await the decision of the Chambers.—Scout, Alix, Excelmans, Bassano, Marbot, Felix Lepelletier, Boulay de la Meurthe, Mehee, Fresinet, Thibaudreau, Carnot, Vandamme, Lanarque, Lobau, Harrel, Pere, Barrere, Arnault, Pommereuil, Regnault de St. Jean d'Angely, Arighi, (Padua;) Dejean, (the son;) Garnau, Real, Souvieu, Demoulaud, Merlin de Douay, Durbach, Dirat, Defermont, Bory St. Vincent, Felix Desportes, Garnier de Saintes, Mellinet, Hullin, Duys, Courtin, Forbin Janson, (the eldest son,) and Lorgne Dideville.

* Chateaubriand.

the part of France, that the traffic in slaves should cease, from the present time, everywhere, and for ever.

Nothing was of more importance to the security of the French government than the proper organization of the army, and one of the first acts of the king, after his return to Paris, was to promulgate a decree, dated the 23d of March, for disbanding the army, which had been seduced by the chiefs, and had passed under the temporary command of Napoleon. The publication of this ordinance was accompanied by a decree, dated the 16th of July, directing that a new army should be organized without delay. The great mass of this force was to consist of eighty legions of infantry, each legion to contain 1687 men, including 103 officers; to this force, were to be added twelve regiments of artillery, and forty-seven regiments of horse; constituting an aggregate military force of about two hundred thousand regular troops. In order to place this military force on a principle which should constitute a truly national army, and to put it henceforth in harmony with the liberal dispositions of the constitutional charter, it was directed, that one legion should be raised in every department of France, to bear the name of that department, and that each disbanded soldier should be allowed to enter, after examination, into the legion of the department to which he belonged. Marshal Macdonald had at this time been appointed to the command of the army of the Loire, in the place of Marshal Davoust, and the measure of disbanding the old, and organizing the new levies, encountered no material difficulty.

In the mean time, it was determined to bring to justice, with suitable promptitude, those individuals whom the proscription lists had denounced as traitors; and the first officer brought before the tribunals was Colonel Labedoyere, on a charge of treason, rebellion, and the seduction of his troops from their allegiance. On Monday, the 12th of August, Labedoyere was arraigned before a military tribunal, held at Paris, in which M. Bertier de Sauvigny exercised the office of president. Before the prisoner was introduced, the judge-advocate read over the order for bringing him to trial, and the minutes of his examination before the minister of police were also read. In this latter document, he protested that he had held no intercourse whatever with the Isle of Elba; that he had never been present at any meeting in which the recall of Napoleon had been agitated; and that in ranging himself and his troops under the imperial standard, he had been influenced solely by a regard to the interests

of his country. On his introduction to the court, he returned the following answers to the interrogatories of the president:—

"I am called Charles Angelique François Huchot de Labedoyere; I am 39 years of age, a general officer, and a native of Paris. On the 1st of March, 1815, I was a lieutenant-colonel of the 7th regiment of the line. I received my commission from the king. The regiment received the white flag at Chamberry. I suppose an oath was taken, but I was not there. I was an officer of the legion of honour, and a knight of the iron crown. I never received the cross of St. Louis. When I heard of Bonaparte's landing, I was at Chamberry, where I received from Major-general Devilliers orders to proceed with my regiment to Grenoble. It bivouacked on the ramparts of Grenoble. It quitted its posts, by my orders, to proceed to Gap, and I gave the word *Vive l'Empereur!* On leaving the suburbs of Grenoble, I presented to it the eagle, which had been preserved in a box as a curiosity, because it had been honourably distinguished in the Spanish war. General Devilliers spoke to me of the ties which I was breaking, and the probable consequences of my proceeding; but I answered, that the interest of my country prevailed over all other considerations."

The facts admitted by the accused were proved by General Devilliers and other officers; and the judge-advocate, in recapitulating the evidence, contended that the defection of Labedoyere had given the first signal of revolt, and had paved the way to the general defection of the army.

The colonel, in his defence, which appeared to be written in haste, and without method, declared that he had no intention to deny facts public and notorious. His only anxiety was to defend his honour. He who had led brave men to death, knew how to die. He might have been deceived—misled by illusions, by recollections, by false ideas of honour; his country might have spoken a chimerical language to his heart, but he was no conspirator. He hoped his death would make reparation to his country for his errors; that his memory would not be held in horror; and that his wife and infant son would not be reproached with his name. He had misunderstood the intentions of the king, in whom all promises were fulfilled, all guarantees consecrated, and the constitution rendered perfect. After a long deliberation of the council, the president, with visible expression of grief, pronounced the prisoner guilty of treason and rebellion, and condemned him to suffer death and degradation of military rank.

When his family learned that the council of revision had confirmed the sentence passed upon Colonel Labedoyere by judges, his wife, clad in mourning, appeared before the king as he was entering his carriage, and falling at his feet, exclaimed, "Pardon! Pardon, sire!" "Madame," said Louis, "I know your sentiments, and those

of your family, and never was it more painful to me to pronounce a refusal. If M. Labedoyere had offended only against me, his pardon should have been granted; but all France demands the punishment of a man, who has brought upon her all the scourges of war. I promise my protection to you and your child." The mother of the unfortunate officer now pressed for admission, but was prevented from seeing the king by those who surrounded him.

Execution followed soon after the sentence of the court, and Colonel Labedoyere displayed, in his last moments, the most heroic fortitude. His appeal to the court of reversion was heard on the morning of Saturday, the 19th of August. At half-past one o'clock, his judgment was confirmed, and at half-past six, on the same day, he was led to the plain of Grenelle. After receiving on his knees the benediction of the confessor, he stood erect, and without waiting for his eyes to be bandaged, laid open his breast to his military executioners, saying—"Surtout, ne me manquez pas," (Above all, do not miss me.) The veterans wept, and in an instant he was no more.

The day after the execution of Labedoyere, Marshal Ney, who had been apprehended in the department of Lot, and brought to Paris, underwent his first examination at the Conciergerie, but the final proceedings in the marshal's case did not take place till towards the close of the year. In the same month, another of the French marshals, and one of the generals of Napoleon, Marshal Brune, finding himself exposed to the indignation of a royalist mob at Avignon, took refuge in a tavern in that city, and at the moment when he conceived that the door of his asylum was about to be forced, terminated his life with a pistol. This act of desperation was not sufficient to rescue him from the fury of his persecutors; after placing his body on a hurdle, they promenaded it ignominiously through the streets, and concluded the savage procession by casting the remains of their victim into the Rhone.

The pride of the French nation had been greatly humbled by the second conquest of their country; but the humiliation was not so complete as to permit the inhabitants of the metropolis to submit to the degradation that awaited them, without the most bitter complaints against the injustice and rapacity of their conquerors. Soon after the allied armies entered Paris, Prince Blucher visited that vast depository of the arts, called the Louvre, and insisted upon sending back to his country all the pictures and other works of art which had been seized by the French, not only in Prussia Proper, but all those also which

had been taken from Cologne and Aix-la-Chapelle, cities on the left bank of the Rhine. This example was some time afterwards followed by the other states of Europe; the Emperor Francis, on behalf of Florence, Modena, Milan, Parma, Verona, and Venice, claimed for those cities every painting of value, of which they had been deprived. The Duke of Wellington, in support of the rights of the King of the Netherlands, demanded the pictures stripped from the catholic churches in the Belgic provinces; while the Spaniards, claiming their share in the general distribution, seized on an exhibition made up of the subjects of the Spanish school. The seizure of the valuable products of art and literature, which had been carried away from Rome, and which had made part of the price of the treaty of Tolentino, consummated this system of restitution, by which the galleries of the Louvre were dismantled of nine-tenths of their treasures.*

On the subject of the reclamations made by the Duke of Wellington, on behalf of the sovereign of the Netherlands, his grace addressed a long letter to Lord Castlereagh, justifying the conduct of the allied powers, and showing, that in divesting the museum of Paris of its exotic plumes, they had performed not only an act of favour towards their own subjects, but had, by this act of justice, given to the French nation a great moral lesson. In this letter, the duke very successfully rebuts the charge brought against him, of having violated the 11th article of the convention of Paris, which provides for the inviolability of public property. That article, the duke maintained, had no reference whatever to the gallery of paintings, to secure which, an article was introduced into the original *projet* of the convention by the French commissioners, but that article was rejected. This refusal, it appears, did not arise

* The following were among the number of the works of art reclaimed by the allies:—by Prussia, an exquisite bronze statue, known by the name of the Ganymede of Sans Souci; two pictures by Corregio, and the pictures of St. Cloud, which had been taken from the apartments of the Queen of Prussia. The picture of St. Jerome by Corregio; the Titians from Venice, and the Greek *chef-d'œuvre*, were claimed by the Italian States; while the four Corinthian horses, once destined to be harnessed to the chariot of the sun, were made to descend from their gilded car, at the entrance of the palace of the Tuileries, in order to proceed on their travel towards St. Mark's church, at Venice, whence they had been removed. Those inimitable pieces of statuary, the Venus de Medicis and the Belvidere Apollo, were at the same time, both removed from their pedestals, to be transferred to their original station; and with the invaluable picture of the Transfiguration, and the Madonna della Soglia, were destined once more to enrich the classical regions of Italy.

so much from any decision taken with respect to the museum by the Duke of Wellington, who, having no instructions on the subject, declined to prejudice the question, but because Prince Blücher, supported by the public opinion of his country, insisted upon a restoration of that property, which Louis XVIII. had previously promised to restore. On these grounds, this affair was left for the decision of the sovereigns when they should arrive in Paris. Upon that decision he had acted; nor had France any just cause of complaint; she had desired to retain the works of art wrested from other countries, because they had been acquired by conquest; but now, when she was no longer the conqueror, it became proper that she should surrender the trophies of conquest into the hands of their original possessors.

In the midst of the irritation produced in Paris by the dismantling of the Louvre, the conflicts of parties raged with considerable violence. In the cabinet, the contest lay principally between the friends and the enemies of proscription, between those who recommended measures of conciliation, and those who preferred the influence of rigorous retribution. The former wished to cast a veil of clemency and oblivion over the past, and to retain whatever was valuable in the institutions of the country, although of a date subsequent to the period of the revolution; while the younger branches of the royal family, ranging themselves at the head of the latter party, called for justice upon the heads of the regicides, and wished to bring back France to the ancient *regime*. The princes and their party—more loyal than the king, laboured incessantly to effect the removal of the existing administration; and the influence of these ultra-royalists at length prevailed over the advice of the Duke of Wellington and other ministers of the allied sovereigns. A total change in the ministry was the consequence and the evidence of this triumph, and on the 25th of September, the following list of the new cabinet was published through the medium of the French official gazette:—

The Duke of Richelieu, for foreign affairs.
The Duke of Feltra, for war.
Viscount Dubouché, for marine and colonies.
Count de Vaublanc, for the interior.
The Sieur de Cases, for general police.
Count Barbe de Marbois, keeper of the seals.
Count Corvetto, for the finances.

Before this change was announced, the Duke of Otranto, perceiving the growing influence of the party to whom he was opposed, after two applications for that purpose, obtained permission from the king to resign his office; and Prince Talleyrand,

finding that another administration would be more agreeable to the princes, “when it was necessary to gratify,” gave in his resignation. Immediately on the appointment of the new ministry, the Duke of Otranto was sent to Dresden, in the capacity of ambassador from the French court; but this was only a prelude to a decree of exile soon afterwards issued against all those who, three and twenty years before, had voted for the death of Louis XVI. Prince Talleyrand was treated in a manner less rigorous and absurd; a trifling office was assigned to him near the person of the king, and his name was announced among the members of his majesty’s privy council. The members of the new cabinet disappointed the hopes of the party to whom they were indebted for their elevation, by pursuing a line of conduct, resembling, in its prominent features, the policy marked out for the government of the state by their immediate predecessors.

During the conflicts of contending parties, the crown was gradually establishing its authority, and obtaining that ascendancy which hereditary monarchy can scarcely fail to acquire if administered with prudence and moderation. The completion of the ministerial arrangements was succeeded by the meeting of the legislative body, which, after repeated delays, assembled at length on the 7th of October. After deploring the suffering brought upon his people by a criminal enterprise, seconded by the most inconceivable defection, the king, in his opening speech, proceeded to say, “In order to put a period to a state of things, more burdensome than even war itself, I have concluded with the powers, which, after having destroyed the usurper, still occupy a great part of our territory, a convention which regulates our present and future relations with them.” The sacrifices which France was compelled to make had filled his heart with profound grief, but the safety of the kingdom demanded them, and himself and his family had determined to share the privations which imperious circumstances had imposed upon his people. A considerable portion of the revenue of the civil list he had ordered to be paid into the public treasury, and in every department of the government the strictest economy should be preserved. In the creation of new peers, and the enlargement of the number of deputies for the departments, he had sought to give more weight to the deliberations of the chambers, and he felt the sweetest satisfaction in the full confidence, that they would never lose sight of the fundamental bases of the happiness of the state, by a frank and loyal union with the

king, and respect for that constitutional charter, which he had weighed with care before he gave it, and to which reflection attached him more and more closely. "Many other objects of importance," said the king, in conclusion, "require our labours; to make religion re flourish, purify morals, found liberty upon respect for the laws, render the laws more analogous to these general views, give stability to credit, recompose the army, heal the wounds that have too deeply torn the bosom of our country; and, in fine, make France respected abroad by insuring tranquillity at home."

At the conclusion of the speech, the Duc d'Angoulême, the Duc de Berri, and the Duc d'Orléans, swore "fidelity to the king, and obedience to the constitutional charter and the laws of the kingdom." The names of the peers and deputies being then called over, each of them took the same oath as the royal dukes, adding, "and to conduct myself in every thing that appertains to my situation as a good and loyal peer [or deputy] of France."

The character of the chambers presented a strange anomaly in politics. The chamber of deputies, instead of manifesting a bias towards the democratical side of the constitution, and maintaining a vigilant jealousy against royal encroachments on popular rights, sought on all constitutional questions to enlarge the prerogatives of the crown; and the great difficulty on the part of the court was to restrain their zeal, and keep them within the limits of moderation. The chamber of peers, nominated as they were by the king alone, as the bulwark and aristocratical fence of the monarchy, were much less subservient than the deputies. In the upper house, just and enlightened views of the situation of the country, and the duties of the government, were frequently elicited; but among the deputies, the prevailing fear was directed against popular encroachment, and the prevailing wish to restore the government of France to the standard and principles of 1788. Under these circumstances, one session was sufficient to prove that the spirit and temper of the representative body were incompatible with the existence of that charter which they had sworn to maintain, and, before the meeting of the second session, the king very patriotically presented the electoral colleges with an opportunity of making a more discreet choice by dissolving that assembly.

One of the principal benefits of the French revolution, was the demolition of religious intolerance, and one of the first acts of the revolutionary government, was

the admission of the professors of the Protestant faith to a participation in the religious privileges, and the political rights, of their Catholic countrymen. The distinguished merit of redressing many of the grievances under which the Protestants had laboured before the accession of Louis XVI. to the throne, belonged to that monarch; the republican government advanced still further in the work of amelioration; and Napoleon, by the provisions of the *concordat*, placed their religion on precisely the same footing as the Catholic faith, in point both of establishment and privilege. The Protestants, with feelings natural to men, could not but applaud and admire measures by which they were raised, from being outcasts of society, and from a state of degradation and infamy, to that of citizens, with equal rights and privileges; but that they were revolutionists and Bonapartists in any peculiar degree, seems to be altogether a misrepresentation. In common with their fellow subjects, they felt the weight of taxation with which France became burdened under the rule of Napoleon; and the incessant demands of the conscription, had, long before the restoration, alienated their minds from the emperor, and induced them, when Louis XVIII. ascended the throne of France, to rejoice in the auspicious prospects which they then conceived were opening upon their country. Unfortunately, however, during the succeeding ten months, a considerable change of opinion took place; the royal charter declared the Catholic religion to be the established religion of France, and the Protestants again became only the tolerated sect; persons who had long been absent, returned, with all their old prejudices; the distinction of Catholic and Protestant was revived in a hostile sense; and evident indications were exhibited of a wish to return to the ancient regime. During this period, the Protestants in the south of France, were insulted by the populace on the ground of their religion, and songs and exclamations, menacing them with the revival of the horrors of St. Bartholomew's day, became familiar to their ears.*

It has been urged against the Protestants, that, during the second reign of Bonaparte, acts of the greatest violence were committed by them in the department of the Gard,* and that when Nismes again became a royal town on the 15th of July, the atrocities which ensued were merely a reaction retaliative of these excesses.† But

* Speech of Sir Samuel Romilly, in the house of commons, May 23d, 1816.

† Speech of Lord Castlereagh, in the house of commons, May 23d, 1816.

we look in vain for the confirmation of this assertion; on the contrary, no acts of violence were committed during this interval—no persons were insulted—for were any houses attacked, in the town of Nismes, at least, although, from some subsequent convictions which took place at Montpellier, it appeared that some stragglers of the Duke of Angouleme's army were murdered, in the adjoining department. The first acts of outrage committed in Nismes, were perpetrated by a body of peasants, who, in supposed obedience to the king's orders, had assembled as volunteers, under the command of one Beaucaire, at the invitation of commissioners invested with powers from the Duke of Angouleme. On the 17th, two days after the white flag was suspended, these royal volunteers, as they were called, rushed into the city, and summoned the garrison, which occupied the place in the name of Napoleon, to surrender. The troops, consisting of about two hundred men, consented to lay down their arms, and to surrender their artillery; but, instead of allowing them to depart unmolested, the volunteers fell upon the unarmed soldiers with the fury of demons, and the whole garrison, with the exception of a few who contrived to make their escape unperceived, were massacred as they left the barracks.* The greater part of the city guard of Nismes, which had hitherto preserved tranquillity, was now disarmed; strangers paraded the city; and the houses of the principal inhabitants of the Protestant persuasion were attacked and plundered. The more opulent citizens were driven from their dwellings; arrests and proscriptions, directed, not against the oppressors, but against the oppressed, immediately followed, and the only ground of these merciless persecutions was religious opinions.* For several months, the Protestant population of Nismes was exposed to outrages of every kind. The cry of down with the Hugonists! *Vive la St. Barthelemi!* resounded through the streets;† their houses were plundered or pulled down; the rich were laid under ruinous contributions; the looms of the poor manufacturers were destroyed; and women were stripped and scourged in the streets. No fewer than thirty females were subjected to these atrocities, eight of whom died, either under the hands of their persecutors, or in consequence of their stripes. Two hundred and forty persons

were murdered in cold blood, of whom one hundred and fifty were in Nismes, and ninety in other parts of the Gard; and more than two thousand other persons became the subjects of this persecution, either in their persons or in their property.* A wretch of the name of Trestailon, was the chief leader in the atrocities at Nismes; but this man, though twice taken into custody, was never brought to his trial by the French government. At this place indeed the murderers were exonerated from the punishment of the most numerous of their crimes, by an official order, directing that no examination should be made into the disorders at Nismes previous to the 1st of September.† Besides Trestailon, there was another notorious murderer, of the name of Graffan, alias Quatre Tailon, the scene of whose bloody exploits was at Uzès, sixteen miles from Nismes; and although this wretch is said to have killed fourteen persons with his own hands, he, like Trestailon, entirely escaped punishment.

The rage of bigotry at length rose to a height calculated to excite the indignation of the surrounding states, and obliged the French government to interfere with a strong hand. The Duke of Angouleme, who had repeatedly visited Nismes during the murders, and whose devoted attachment to the Catholic religion had rendered him suspected of conniving at the persecution of the Protestants, issued an order for the reopening of the Protestant places of worship, which, ever since the month of July, they had been obliged to keep closed. On quitting the place, orders were left by the duke with General La Garde, himself a member of the reformed church, to afford protection to the persons and property of the Protestants, and to guard their temples against outrage. Under this guarantee, public worship was resumed; but on Sunday, the 12th of November, at the moment when the general was performing the duty confided to him, a furious mob assembled to resist the opening of the Protestant churches, and a villain of the name of Boisset, levelled a pistol at the general, and shot him through the breast. The wound was severe, but not mortal, and the assassin was seized by the military, but he was afterwards suffered to escape. The king, on receiving intelligence of this atrocity, issued an ordinance, which, after recognising the liberty of worship granted by the royal constitutional charter to dis-

* Petition to Louis XVIII. from the principal Protestant inhabitants of Nismes, dated July 30th, 1815.

† Helen Maria Williams, "on the late Persecution of the Protestants in the South of France."

* Speeches of Sir Samuel Romilly, in the house of commons, February 28th, and May 23d, 1816.

† Decree of the court of cassation.

sentiments from the established church, directed that proceedings should be instituted against the authors of the assassination; and that troops should be sent to Nismes, there to remain, at the expense of the inhabitants, till the criminal and his accomplices should be brought to justice; and that all such of the inhabitants as were not entitled to form a part of the national guard, should be disarmed. These proceedings, which, however, never received their consummation in the punishment of the delinquents, served to check the reign of persecution, and on the 25th of December, the Protestant churches were reopened for the performance of public worship; but there is too much reason to fear, that a spirit of animosity and violence has been engendered in the south of France by these outrageous proceedings, which the present generation may not see wholly extinguished.

The enslaved state of the French press prevented the voice of the persecuted Protestants from being heard in their own country. The police would not suffer a single document, nor even a paragraph, to appear in any of the public papers respecting their sufferings, while the conductors of those shackled mediums of public information were permitted, and even solicited, to publish sentiments calculated to gloss over the enormities of their oppressors, and to swell the tide of popular fury, which had set in so strongly against them. Even in the chamber of deputies, where of all other places, the voice of the sufferers ought to have been heard; on one of the representatives of the people, M. d'Argenson, stating, that persecutions existed in the south of France, a great part of the assembly arose, in a tumultuous manner, and, in the coarsest terms, insisted that he should be silenced by being called to order. The president, yielding to this clamour, enforced the cry of order, and obliged the speaker to desist from entering into the details. Of this disgraceful scene, Sir Samuel Romilly was a spectator, and it is on the authority of that enlightened senator and philanthropist that the above fact is introduced into this history.

In England, however, where the liberty of the press, like the air we breathe, is essential to our existence, the situation of the French Protestants, as depicted in the public papers, excited a lively interest, especially among the Protestant dissenters. Public meetings were held in London and other parts of the country, the interference of the British government in favour of the sufferers was implored, and subscriptions to a considerable amount were raised for the purpose of ameliorating the condition of men persecuted to death by their

fellow subjects, and feebly protected by the government of their own country. There were not, however, wanting, at this time, persons in high military and diplomatic situations, who maintained that the French "government had done all in their power to put an end to the disturbances which had prevailed in the south of France, and to protect the King's subjects, in conformity with the royal charter, whatever might be their religious persuasion."* It was further contended by Lord Castlereagh, "that the miseries of the Protestants were the result only of a local feud, such as was often to be seen in Ireland; and that it would be impolitic for the government of Great Britain to interfere with the internal affairs of another country, more especially with respect to religious opinions."† It was on the same authority, held, that the Protestants having acquired an extent of power, and that from Bonaparte, they felt interested in the continuance of his power; that their conduct had evinced this feeling, and that it was to this cause the disturbances now complained of were to be attributed. This was not, Lord Castlereagh said, a gratuitous persecution of that sect. "The Protestants were identified with Bonaparte, and imputed to the Catholics jealousies and political dislikes, while the Catholics, who adhered to the Bourbons, were afraid of the designs of the Protestants." The disturbances at Nismes were, it was admitted, carried to a perilous extent, but those who committed them were of the lowest class of the Catholics; the richer Protestants suffered in their property and their houses. The crimes, however, were greatly exaggerated, and many of the accounts were entirely forged. "The number of lives lost in the department of the Gard, was less than a thousand!‡ and at Nismes, less than two hundred."

Whatever difference of opinion might exist, as to the causes of these excesses, and as to the conduct of the government under which they were so long suffered to prevail, it was agreed on all hands that great violence had been committed, and that many lives had been sacrificed, and much property plundered and destroyed. ‡

* Letter from the Duke of Wellington to the secretaries of the Protestant Society, dated Paris, November 28th, 1815.

† Speech of Lord Castlereagh, in the house of commons, May 23d, 1816.

‡ The Rev. Clement Perrot, a clergyman of unimpeachable veracity, who, at the invitation of the committee of the Dissenting Ministers of the Three Denominations in London, repaired in the early part of the year 1816 to the south of France, for the purpose of examining on the spot, and in the French capital, the real condition of the Protestants, states, in his report made on the subject

It was further proved, that 'in whatever cause these outrages originated, the Protestants alone had been their victims; that no other than Protestant places of worship were attacked, and that their religious services were alone molested; that the proclamation of the king to the inhabitants of the Gard, charged the offenders with violating that article of the constitution which promised protection to dissentients from the established church; and, lastly, that a number of French families, after this persecution had raged for some months, and in order no doubt to escape from its horrors, had abjured their religion, and "returned into the bosom of the Romish church."*

These circumstances, which were too notorious to be denied, gave to the sanguinary atrocities in the Gard, to which department they were principally confined, the character of a religious persecution; it is, however, more than probable that the Protestant inhabitants of the south were less favourable towards the second restoration of the Bourbons than the Catholics, and the impartial judgment of history will pronounce the persecution of which they so justly complained, to have had for its actuating causes a compound of religious bigotry and political animosity; to which motives, may be added, the thirst for plunder, the free indulgence of which served to excite and to gratify the cupidity of the mob. That a government, whose authority, at the moment when these persecutions prevailed, was supported by the presence of nearly two hundred thousand foreign troops, should not have had the power instantly to coerce the offenders into subjection, is a political enigma that can

of his mission, that "the number of Protestants pretty accurately ascertained to have been killed in the department of the Gard, is four hundred and fifty, and about the same number have been missed for several months, and are supposed to have been murdered in the vineyards, and on the roads, when they fled." p. 21. "Hundreds," it is added, "have redeemed their lives at the expense of all they possessed, and have been thus reduced to extreme want. Hardly one Protestant but has suffered, either in his person, property, family, or business, from this mode of vexation, throughout the department of the Gard. The number of fugitives, when stated at ten thousand, as applied to the reformed inhabitants of the department in general, is, perhaps, below the truth." pp. 29 and 30. In Nismes, about 250 houses have been pillaged, and many of them demolished. "The largest manufactories are shut up; the proprietors have fled; and the silk trade, so prosperous in that city under the late government, is entirely ruined. It is difficult to calculate the loss of property, but," says Mr. Perrot, "I have heard it estimated at 5,000,000 francs."

* See the *Journal du Gard*, published at Nismes, December 23, 1815.

find its solution only in the fact, that, of all the persons concerned in these numerous atrocities, though many of them were well known, not a single individual engaged in their perpetration was brought to punishment;* nor does it appear that any atonement whatever was made, either to the sufferers or to the violated laws of their country.

The first indication of that system of vigour so loudly demanded by the ultra royalists of France, and so confidently anticipated from the new ministry, was displayed in the trial and execution of Marshal Ney, the Duke of Elchingen. The crime with which the marshal stood charged, was high-treason, and the tribunal before which he was arraigned in the first instance, was a court-martial, consisting of four French marshals,† and four other general officers. Against a court so constituted, the marshal protested, alleging that, as a peer of France, he had a right to be tried by his peers; and after two days deliberation, the validity of the objections was admitted by the court. Chagrined at this decision, the Duke of Richelieu, addressing himself to the chamber of peers, in the name of France and of Europe, conjured them to judge the accused marshal. On the 4th of December, the peers, having erected themselves into a criminal tribunal, Marshal Ney was impeached at their bar. It appeared from the evidence, verbal and documentary, that, till the 7th of March, the prisoner was ignorant of the landing of Napoleon in the south of France; and that on the 9th he received instructions from the minister of Louis XVIII. to repair to the head of his government, at Besançon, for the purpose of arresting the progress of the invader. Before his departure from the capital, he obtained an audience of the king at the Tuileries, and during the conference with which he was honoured, he observed, "that, should Bonaparte be taken, he would deserve to be conducted to Paris in an iron cage;" and on departing, he kissed the king's hand. For some days, he remained faithful to the royal cause; but his subsequent conduct proved that he soon began to drink in the general spirit of disaffection which pervaded the great mass of the army. On his arrival at Lons-le-Saulnier, four days after his audience with his sovereign, he addressed a proclamation to his troops, beginning with these words—"The cause of the Bourbons is for ever lost;" and soon afterwards himself and his whole corps joined the invad-

* Sir Samuel Romilly's speech, in the house of commons, May 23, 1816.

† Marshals Jourdan, Marmen, Augereau, and Mortier.

ing army.* To palliate an act of treachery, too notorious to be denied, and too flagitious to admit of any justification, the marshal stated in his defence, that the proclamation bearing his name, was transmitted to him by Marshal Bertrand, in the night between the 13th and 14th of March; that it was written, not by himself, but by Bonaparte; and that it had appeared in Switzerland before he himself had seen it. He further urged, that it was the conduct of his troops that hurried him on to defection; and that he deserted the royal cause merely to prevent his country from suffering the horrors of a civil war; and finally, that Napoleon had transmitted to him the strongest assurances that Austria was his ally, and that England favoured his designs. Whatever truth there might be in these assertions, and however reluctant the marshal might feel to betray his duty to his king, it was proved, that no sooner was his decision taken, than he manifested the most ardent zeal in favour of the emperor, and even caressed, with a kind of frantic joy, the humblest individuals in his army, the moment they had given unequivocal proofs of their determination to range themselves once more under the imperial standard.

Finding it impossible to resist the proof of Marshal Ney's treasonable disaffection, his counsel rested his defence chiefly on the impunity granted to the marshal as a resident in Paris, by the twelfth article of the capitulation of that city, which provided that no person in the capital should be disturbed or called to account for his political conduct;† and subsequently, that should any doubt arise as to the interpretation of any article of the capitulation, the interpretation should be made in favour of the besieged. Instead of fairly meeting this objection, which was indeed unanswerable, the attorney-general interrupted the counsel, and required that the advocates of the accused should be formally interdicted by the court from availing themselves of the convention of the 3d of July, on the ground, that this military convention was the work of foreigners, and was neither signed nor ratified by the king!!! Marshal Ney, incapable of brooking an injustice which he conceived indicative of a determination to sacrifice him, declared that he would rather not be defended at all, than have only the shadow of a defence. "I am accused," exclaimed he, "contrary to the faith of treaties, and they will not suffer me to justify myself. I will act like Moreau—I will appeal to Europe and

to posterity. I forbid my counsel from uttering another word." A profound silence now reigned in the chamber for some time, which was at length broken by the attorney-general expressing his determination to waive the right of reply, since the marshal had declined all further defence.

The trial, which had been continued by adjournment for three successive days, terminated in a unanimous award of guilty; and of the one hundred and sixty peers who voted, one hundred and thirty-nine doomed the culprit to death, while seventeen voted for banishment, and four declined to give any vote on the sentence. The fortitude and equanimity of Marshal Ney never forsook him in any stage of the proceedings; and when the secretary, reporter of the chamber of peers, repaired to his apartments, to announce to him his sentence, the marshal begged that he would, without apology or circumlocution, proceed directly to the fact. When, in reading the fatal sentence, his titles were detailed, he said—"What good can this do now—Michel Ney, then, a heap of dust—that is all." The day of execution immediately followed that of conviction, and at four o'clock in the morning of the 7th, the marshal, his wife, with his four children, and Madame Gamon, her sister, took their last farewell. At first, the marshal had declined the aid of a confessor, observing, that he did not require a priest to teach him how to die; but after the interview with his family, which seemed to soften and subdue him, he requested that the rector of St. Sulpice might be sent for.

At nine o'clock precisely, the marshal, attended by his confessor, stepped into the carriage prepared for their reception, which drove across the garden on the Luxembourg, to the grand alley leading to the observatory, the place appointed for his execution. A picket of veterans, sixty strong, awaited his arrival. The marshal, having descended from the carriage, faced his executioners, and after taking off his hat with his left hand, and placing his right hand on his breast, he exclaimed, with a loud and unflinching voice—"Comrades, straight at the heart—fire." The officer gave the signal at the same moment with his sword, and he fell dead without a struggle. Twelve balls had taken effect; three of them in the head. There were but few persons present, for the populace, believing that the execution would take place on the plain of Grenelle, where Labedoyere was shot, had repaired thither.

The execution of Marshal Ney deeply affected the public feelings, but no tumult on the part of the populace, nor any insubordinate disposition among the military,

* See vol. ii. book v. p. 438.

† See the 12th article of the Capitulation of Paris vol. ii. book v. p. 497.

was manifested on the occasion. When the trial was pending, the marshal had written a letter to the Duke of Wellington, claiming the indemnity stipulated for by the convention of Paris. The duke, in his answer, replied, that the convention of the 3d of July was clearly and expressly a military convention, and that it could not, and did not, promise pardon for political offences, on the part of the French government. But it may be observed, that by whatever name this document was designated, there was in it an article which said, as plainly as words could express it, that no person should be punished for political opinions or conduct. The attorney-general, feeling the force of this argument, enlarged the ground of the objection, and insisted, that the convention was obligatory merely on the allies, but left the king, who was no party to its engagements, at liberty to punish offences against his person or his government. The usages of nations however form a sufficient reply to this distinction: foreign powers have no right to punish the inhabitants of a conquered state for political opinions or conduct, and the convention either bound Louis, on whose behalf the allied armies took possession of Paris, or its twelfth article was nugatory. Further, it was in virtue of this treaty that the king entered Paris, and having reaped its benefits, he ought to have considered himself bound by its obligations. This was, at least, a case calculated to produce one of those differences of interpretation, all of which were, according to the convention, to be made in favour of the army and the inhabitants of Paris. That a traitor, who had betrayed his sovereign, under the guise of devoted loyalty, should have been suffered to escape his merited punishment, under the guarantee of a sweeping article, might have been a subject of just regret; but it is much more to be regretted, that the allied powers, and the French monarch, who had exclaimed so loudly against Bonaparte for his infraction of treaties, should have exposed themselves to the same imputation.*

* The intelligence of the fate of Marshal Ney, was first communicated to Bonaparte at St. Helena by Mr. Warden, the surgeon of the Northumberland, on which occasion the following conversation, illustrative of this passage of history, took place:—On being informed, says Mr. Warden, that the French news just received through the medium of the English journals, related principally to the trial and execution of Marshal Ney—"Napoleon advanced a step nearer to me, and, without the least change of countenance, said, 'What!—Marshal Ney has been sentenced to be shot.' I replied, it was even so: he addressed the ministers of the allied sovereigns, but in vain: he urged in his defence, the twelfth article of the

General Count Lavalette, a relative by marriage of the family of Bonaparte, was the next person of eminence put upon his trial by the French court. Having held the office of director of the posts under the former government, Lavalette took forcible possession of the post-office of Paris in March, when Napoleon was at Fontainebleau, on his way from Elba, and thus, by suppressing the king's proclamation, and circulating the intelligence of the invader's progress, contributed essentially to the re-establishment of his government. Of this crime, he was clearly convicted, and sentenced to death as a traitor. The generous interference of Marshal Marmont procured for Madame Lavalette an opportunity of imploring in person the royal clemency, but her petition could not be complied with, and her husband was ordered for execution on Thursday, the 21st of December. What the prayers of Madame Lavalette, poured into the royal ear, could not effect, her skill and courage accomplished; and her husband was indebted for his life to the same stratagem, which, in 1621, had rescued Grotius from perpetual imprisonment in the fortress of Louvestein, and in 1716, snatched Lord Nithisdale from the fate that awaited him in the Tower of London. At three o'clock in the afternoon of the day preceding Lavalette's intended execution, his wife, accompanied by her daughter and her governess, repaired to the Conciergerie, in a sedan-chair, for the purpose of dining with her husband. The countess, who had recently been confined, and was still in a bad state of health, came to the prison, wrapped up in an ample mantle, and the sedan-chair was permitted to be brought into the room adjoining her husband's apartment. About seven o'clock, she prepared to depart, but while the jailer was despatched on some errand to an adjoining room, she threw her dress in a moment over her husband, and receiving his cloak in exchange, sunk back into his chair, while Lavalette, arrayed in his dis-

convention: he pleaded on his trial that he was deceived by you: that the proclamation of which he was accused, and made a part of the charges against him, was written by Major-general Bertrand; and that he was deceived by your report of Austria and England.—Count Bertrand, who was in the room, quietly observed, that Marshal Ney had a right to save himself if he could; and if fabricated stories would answer his purpose, he could not be blamed for employing them. But he added, 'respecting the proclamation, it was an assertion equally false and ridiculous; Marshal Ney could write himself, and wanted not my assistance.'—Napoleon made no comments on the account which had been given him. One solitary expression, indeed, broke from him, and that was—'Marshal Ney was a brave man.'—*Letters from St. Helena, by William Warden. pp. 119, 120*

guise, quitted the prison, and supported by his daughter and one of the turnkeys, descended to the sedan. No sooner had the chair reached the quay, beyond the gates of the prison, than Lavalette stepped into a cabriolet, prepared for the purpose, and after driving about Paris for two hours to prevent all traces by the police, took refuge in the house of one of his friends. In the mean time, Madame Lavalette personated her husband, and, with a book before her face, appeared absorbed in meditation. After the lapse of nearly an hour, the jailer spoke to his captive, but receiving no answer, he advanced nearer the chair, when the lady with a smile, succeeded by strong convulsions, exclaimed—*Il est parti*—He is gone. The alarm was instantly given, but no traces of the fugitive could be discovered. The keeper of the Conciergerie and the turnkey were immediately ordered into custody by the police; and Madame Lavalette was for some time detained in prison, in the same chamber which her husband had occupied, exulting, no doubt, in the success of her enterprise, but still agitated with apprehension regarding its final result. For several days, the search after Lavalette was continued with the most unremitting assiduity, but without success; and the enraged ministers, conceiving that he had completely escaped, directed that the criminal should be executed in effigy! Twelve days had now elapsed, and M. Lavalette was in reality still in Paris. To effect his escape from the French territory, became an affair of extreme difficulty. His friends, placing their hope and confidence in a young Englishman, whose noble mind, and chivalrous character, presented him to them as alone capable of completing that design which Madame Lavalette had so auspiciously begun, addressed a letter on the 2d of January, 1816, to Mr. Crawford Bruce, confiding to him the secret that M. Lavalette was still in Paris, and imploring his friendship and assistance. Moved solely by the commiseration which the fate of the unfortunate man excited, after some deliberation he embarked in the enterprise. The adventure of Lavalette's escape from prison appeared to the glowing mind of Mr. Bruce to have in it something romantic, and even miraculous, which forcibly struck his imagination, and excited in him an interest for the person of the captive. To effect his escape without assistance was impossible; Mr. Bruce, therefore, pressed into this hazardous service Captain Hutchinson, a young officer in the guards, and Sir Robert Wilson, an officer well known in Europe, not only for his military, but also for his literary services,

against Bonaparte. Through the agency of these three Englishmen, aided by another military gentleman, of the name of Ellister, Lavalette, disguised in a British uniform, accompanied by Sir Robert Wilson, left Paris in an open carriage at half-past seven o'clock in the morning of Monday, the 8th of January; and taking the route of Compeigne, Cambray, and Valenciennes, passed the French frontier at Mons in the afternoon of the following day.

After receiving the assurance of eternal gratitude from Lavalette, Sir Robert Wilson returned to Paris in the evening of the 10th of January. The vigilance of the police, though incapable of preventing the escape of Lavalette, succeeded in discovering his benefactors. These generous men, with a disinterested self-devotion that vulgar minds cannot appreciate, had purchased the plaudits of the present generation, and the admiration of posterity, by a violation of the laws of France; they had consummated the heroic enterprise of Madame Lavalette, and saved the life of her husband at the price of their own liberty. On the 13th of January, Sir Robert Wilson, Mr. Bruce, and Captain Hutchinson, were arrested, and committed to the Abbaye: and after remaining in that prison till the 22d of April, they were put upon their trial. The accused parties, with a generous emulation worthy of their character, seemed principally anxious to rescue each other from the vengeance of the law, by taking the offence upon themselves. Mr. Bruce said, it was at his instance that Sir Robert Wilson had joined in the efforts in favour of Lavalette, and that if there was any person culpable in this business, he was the culpable party. Captain Hutchinson said, he had lent his co-operation for the same object, and both of them avowed that they had not the slightest intention to conspire against the French government. Sir Robert Wilson, like Mr. Bruce and Captain Hutchinson, declared himself wholly unconnected with Lavalette, in family or in friendship. Captain Hutchinson, he said, had acted solely under his influence, and Mr. Bruce, in speaking to him of Lavalette, had addressed himself to his heart. No Frenchman was engaged in the affair. Lavalette's case was not, in his opinion, foreign to an Englishman. There existed a convention—the convention of Paris, signed by an English general, and ratified by the English government; and the trial of Lavalette he held to be a manifest violation of the twelfth article of that convention. The political opinions of Lavalette had not at all operated on his mind; his only object

had been to save an unhappy man, who had addressed him as the arbiter of his life or death. After a trial continued for two days, the three Englishmen were pronounced guilty, and sentenced to three months imprisonment—the most lenient punishment allowed by the French laws.*

No sooner had Louis XVIII. reascended the throne of France, than the negotiation of a general treaty of peace with the allied powers, began to occupy the attention of his ministry. The treaty of 1814 was simple in its principle, and easy of arrangement in its details; but the negotiations which now took place involved points of considerable intricacy, and the allied sovereigns declared, that nothing short of a just indemnity for the past, and solid security for the future, would satisfy their expectations. For this purpose, bases, much less indulgent than those of the former year, were prescribed by the conquerors. The boundaries of France, as they stood in 1790, from the North Sea to the Mediterranean, formed the fundamental principles of the territorial arrangements, and on this point it was determined that the boundaries of former Belgium, of Germany, and of Savoy, which by the treaty of Paris of 1814, were annexed to France should now be separated from that kingdom. It was further determined, that France, should pay to the allied powers, by way of pecuniary indemnity for the expenses of the last armaments, the sum of seven hundred millions of francs; and that a line, consisting of seventeen fortresses on the eastern side of the kingdom, should be occupied by one hundred and fifty thousand foreign troops. This army, the primary object of which was the suppression of any revolutionary commotion, was to be placed under the command of a general chosen by the allied sovereigns,

and to be wholly maintained at the expense of France. Five years was the time mentioned as the longest duration of this military occupation, with a reservation, that at the end of three years that term might be shortened by the consent of the allied sovereigns, acting in concert with the King of France.

After various declarations and conferences, treaties grounded on these bases were concluded at Paris, on the 20th of November, at which time it was announced to the French minister, by the plenipotentiaries of Austria, England, Russia, and Prussia, that the chief command of the troops appointed to remain in France was confided by their sovereigns to Field-marshal the Duke of Wellington, and that the troops under his command had directions to support the king with their arms against all revolutionary convulsions, tending to overturn by force the state of things actually established.

For the purpose of guaranteeing the tranquillity of the countries bordering on France, it was determined by a military convention, entered into for that purpose, that a proportion of the total sum of seven millions of francs should be appropriated to the erection of fortifications on the frontiers of these states, and that the principal part of the remaining sum should be divided between Prussia, England, Austria, and Russia.*

A treaty of alliance and friendship between the sovereigns of Great Britain, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, concluded and consummated the diplomatic proceedings at Paris, on the 20th of November. The objects of this treaty were to guarantee Europe against the dangers to which she might be exposed from the claims of the fallen dynasty of France—against the prevalence of the revolutionary principles which had so long convulsed that country—and against any attack which might be made on the allied troops appointed to hold military occupation of the French line of

* When the circumstance of Lavalette's escape came to the knowledge of Napoleon, in his exile, and when he was told how much the fortunate postmaster-general was indebted to Sir Robert Wilson for his life and liberty, the ex-emperor proposed the following very natural inquiry to Mr. Warden, the surgeon of the Northumberland:—"Pray can you tell me from what motive this officer has acted in the escape of Lavalette, the decided and avowed friend of the man he has so wantonly calumniated?" "Doubtless from honourable motives; and probably from an adventurous and romantic spirit;" was the substance of the reply. "I believe every word you have said," cried Napoleon, "but I desire you also to give your particular attention to my opinion, which is a decided one—That this act of Sir Robert Wilson, is the commencement of his recantation of what he has written against me."

* Apportionment of the seven hundred millions of francs to be paid by France to the allies:—

Francs.

For the erection of fortifications on points most exposed to aggression,	137,500,000
Quota to Spain, Portugal, Denmark, and Switzerland,	12,500,000
To Great Britain and Prussia, one hundred and twenty-five millions each,	250,000,000
To Austria and Russia one hundred millions each,	200,000,000
To the minor states of Germany,	100,000,000
	700,000,000

To be discharged day by day, in equal proportions, in the space of five years.

fortresses. For the attainment of these objects, the engagements already existing between the allied sovereigns, were renewed; and it was determined to consolidate the connexion which already existed between them, by reassembling, at a fixed period, for the purpose of consulting upon their common interests, and for the consideration of the measures which at each of these periods should be considered the most salutary for the repose and prosperity of nations, and for the maintenance of the peace of Europe.

The tone and spirit of these treaties sufficiently indicated the view entertained by the powers of Europe of the unsettled state of France, and the prevailing anxiety felt in the courts of the allied monarchs to secure the authority of legitimate sovereigns against the influence of popular infraction. But while precautions were adopted to guard the government of France against revolutionary commotions, which might endanger the stability of the throne, and put to hazard the safety of other states, it was intimated to Louis XVIII. by his allies, that he ought to forget the past, in the contemplation of the future, and to secure himself on the throne of his ancestors by the moderation of his conduct, and the justice and equity of his rule.

GENERAL TREATY WITH FRANCE.

The allied powers having by their exertions, and the triumph of their arms, preserved France and Europe from the convulsions with which they were threatened by the late enterprise of Napoleon Bonaparte, and by the revolutionary system introduced into France for its support; as they now participate with his most Christian majesty in the wish, by the inviolable maintenance of royal dignity, and by restoring the validity of the constitutional charter, to confirm the order happily re-established in France, and to bring back between France and its neighbours those relations, founded upon reciprocal confidence and good will, which the mournful consequences of the revolution and system of conquest had so long interrupted; and as they are convinced that their last object cannot be attained, except by an arrangement calculated to give them just indemnity for the past, and solid security for the future—they have therefore, in common with his majesty the King of France, deliberated on the means of bringing about such an arrangement; and as they have convinced themselves that the indemnities due to the powers cannot consist wholly either in cessions of territory or in pecuniary payments, without greatly injuring the essential interests of France in one way or the other, and that

it is better so to unite them, as to avoid both disadvantages. Their imperial and royal majesties have therefore taken this as the basis of the present negotiations, and have also agreed upon it as a basis, that it is necessary, during a certain time, to keep the frontier provinces of France occupied by a certain number of the allied troops; and have agreed to unite in a definitive treaty the several dispositions founded upon these bases. In this view, and to this end, his majesty the King of Great Britain and Ireland, for himself and his allies, on one side, and his majesty the King of France and Navarre, on the other side, have appointed for their plenipotentiaries to discuss, agree on, and sign the definitive treaty, (here are the names and designations of the ministers;) their full powers having been exchanged and found in due order, have signed the following articles:—

Art. I.—The frontiers of France remain as they were in 1790, with the exception of the reciprocal modifications in this article.

1. In the North, the frontier line remains as it was fixed in the treaty of Paris, till opposite Quevornin, thence it goes along the ancient frontiers of the Belgic provinces, of the former bishopric of Liege, and of the duchy of Bouillon, as they were in 1790, so that the territories of Marienburgh and Phillippeville, with the fortresses of the same name, and the whole duchy of Bouillon, remain without the French frontiers. From Villars, by Orval, on the frontiers of the department of the Ardennes, and the duchy of Luxembourg, as far as Perle, on the road leading from Thionville to Treves, the frontier line remains as it was fixed in the treaty of Paris. From Perle, it goes over Launsdorf, Wallnich, Eschardorf, Nuderweiling, Pelleweller, which places, with their banlieus, all remain to France, to Honore, and along the old frontiers of the district of Saarbruck, so that Searious, and the course of the Saar, with the places on the right of the above-mentioned line, with their banlieus, will come without the French frontiers. From the frontiers of the district of Saarbruck, the frontier line shall be the same which now separates the departments of the Lower Rhine from Germany, as far as to the boundary, to its junction with the Rhine, the whole of the territory lying on the left bank of the Lanta, including the fortresses of Laudan, shall belong to Germany. The town of Weissenberg, however, which is intersected by this river, remains wholly to France, with a rayon on the left bank; this rayon must not exceed 1000 toises, and will be more particularly determined by the commissioners who will hereafter be appointed to regulate the frontiers.

2. From the mouth of the Lanter, along the departments of the Lower Rhine, the Upper Rhine the Doubs, and the Jura, as far as the canton of Vaud, the frontiers remain as they are fixed in the treaty of Paris. The Thalweg of the Rhine shall be the line of separation between France and the German states, but the property of the island, as it will be determined in consequence of a new examination of the course of that river, shall remain unchanged, whatever alterations the course of the river may in process of time undergo. Commissioners shall be appointed within three months by the high contracting powers, on both sides, in order to make the said examination. The half of

the bridge between Strasburg and Kehl shall belong to France, and the other half to the grand-duchy of Baden.

3. To restore a direct communication between the canton of Geneva and Switzerland, that part of the territory of Gex which is bounded on the east by the lake of Geneva, on the south by the territory of the canton of Geneva, on the north by the canton of Vaud, and on the west by the course of the Versoix, and a line which comprehends the communes of Collex, Bosoy, and Megreis, but leaves the commune of Ferney to France, is ceded to the Swiss confederation, and united with the canton of Geneva.

4. From the frontier of the canton of Geneva to the Mediterranean, the frontier line is the same as that which, in 1796, separated France from Savoy and the county of Nice. The relations which the treaty of 1814 had re-established between France and the principality of Monaco, shall for ever cease, and the same relations take place between that principality and the kingdom of Sardinia.

5. All territories and districts included within the frontier of France, as fixed by the present article, remain united to France.

6. The contracting powers shall appoint, within three months after the signature of the present treaty, commissioners to regulate every thing respecting the fixing of the frontiers on both sides, and as soon as those commissioners have finished their labours, maps shall be made, and frontier posts set up, to mark the respective boundaries.

Art. II.—The fortresses and territories, which, by the preceding article, are no longer to form a part of the French territory, will be given up to the allied powers, in the period specified in the military convention, annexed to the ninth article of the present treaty; and his majesty the King of France renounces for ever, for himself, his heirs, and successors, the rights of sovereignty and property which he hitherto exercised over the said fortresses and territories.

Art. III.—As the fortifications of Huningen have always been a ground of uneasiness to the city of Basle, the high contracting powers, to give to Switzerland a fresh proof of their care and good will, have agreed among themselves to have the fortifications of Huningen razed, and the French government engages, for the same reasons, never to repair them, and not to erect any other fortifications within three leagues of the city of Basle.

The neutrality of Switzerland shall be extended to that piece of territory which lies north of a line to be drawn from Ugine, that place included, on the south of the Lake of Annecy, over Favergne, (in the Bremen Gazette, *Ta Verveye*,) to Lecheroinne, and thence to the Lake of Bourget, and the Rhone, in the same manner as is fixed by the twenty-second article of the final act of the congress of Vienna, in respect to the province of Chablais and Fancigny.

The troops, therefore, which the King of Sardinia may have in these provinces, whenever the powers adjacent to Switzerland are in a state of open hostility, or are on the eve of such a state, shall retire, and may for that purpose take, in case of need, the way over the Vallois; but no armed troops of any other power can pass through, or be

stationed in, the above provinces, except such as Switzerland thinks fit to send thither; but this state of things must not hinder the administration of these countries, as the civil officers of the King of Sardinia may employ the municipal guard for the maintenance of good order.

Art. IV.—That part of the indemnity to be given by France to the allied powers, which consists in money, is fixed to the sum of seven hundred millions of francs. The manner, the periods, and the securities, of the payment of this sum, shall be regulated by a separate convention, which shall be equally valid and binding as if they were inserted word for word in the present treaty.

Art. V.—As the state of confusion and fermentation which France necessarily feels after so many violent convulsions, and particularly after the late catastrophe, notwithstanding the paternal intentions of the king, and the advantages which all classes of the subjects necessarily derive from the constitutional charter, make some measures of precaution and temporary guarantee necessary, for the security of the neighbouring states, it has been considered as absolutely requisite to occupy, for a fixed time, positions along the frontiers of France, by a corps of allied troops, under the express reservation that this occupation shall not infringe on the sovereignty of his most Christian majesty, nor on the state of possession, as fixed by this treaty; the number of troops shall not exceed 150,000: the commander-in-chief is named by the allied powers. This army will occupy Conde, Valenciennes, Bouchain, Cambrai, Quesnoy, Maubeuge, Landrecies, Avosnes, Rocroy, Givet, with Charlemont, Mezieres, Montmedy, Thionville, Longwy, Bitsch, and the *tete-de-pont* of Fort Louis. As France is to provide for the maintenance of this army, every thing relative to this object shall be regulated in a separate convention. In this convention, which shall be as valid as if inserted word for word in this treaty, the relations shall be fixed between the occupying army, and the civil and military authorities of the country. This military occupation cannot last above five years, and may end before that period, if the allied sovereigns, after an expiration of three years, and after they have first, in agreement with the King of France, maturely weighed the situation and mutual interests, as well as the progress which the re-establishment of order and peace may have made in France, shall recognise in common that the motives which induced this measure no longer exist.—But, whatever may be the result of this deliverance, all the places and positions occupied by the allied troops, will, at the expiration of five years, be evacuated

without further delay, and given up to his most Christian majesty, or his heirs and successors.

Art. VI.—All the other foreign troops, not belonging to the army of occupation, shall quit the French territory in the periods fixed in the military convention annexed to the ninth article of the present treaty.

Art. VII.—In all countries which shall change sovereigns, as well in virtue of the present treaty as of the arrangements which are to be made in consequence thereof, a period of six years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications shall be allowed to the inhabitants, natives or foreigners, of whatever condition and nation they may be, to dispose of their property, if they should think fit so to do, and to retire to whatever country they may choose.

Art. VIII.—All the dispositions of the treaty of Paris of the 30th of May, 1814, relative to the countries ceded by that treaty, shall equally apply to the several territories and districts ceded by the present treaty.

Art. IX.—The high contracting parties having caused representation to be made of the different claims arising out of the non-execution of the nineteenth and following articles of the treaty of the 30th of May, 1814, as well as of the additional articles of that treaty signed between Great Britain and France, desiring to render more efficacious the stipulations made thereby, and having determined by two separate conventions, the line to be pursued on each side for that purpose, the said two conventions, as annexed to the present treaty, shall, in order to secure complete execution of the above-mentioned articles, have the same force and effect as if the same were inserted word for word herein.

Art. X.—All prisoners taken during the hostilities, as well as all hostages which may have been carried off or given, shall be restored in the shortest time possible. The same shall be the case with respect to the prisoners taken previously to the treaty of the 30th of May, 1814, and who shall not already have been restored.

Art. XI.—The treaty of Paris of the 30th of May 1814, and the final act of the congress of Vienna of the 9th of June, 1815, are confirmed, and shall be maintained in all such of their enactments which shall not have been modified by the articles of the present treaty.

Art. XII.—The present treaty, with the conventions annexed thereto, shall be ratified in one act, and the ratifications thereof shall be exchanged in the space of two months, or sooner, if possible. In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries

have signed the same, and have affixed thereunto the seals of their arms.

Done at Paris, this 30th day of November, in the year of our Lord, 1815.

(Signed) (L. S.) CASTLEREAGH.
(L. S.) WELLINGTON.
(L. S.) RICHELIEU.

ADDITIONAL ARTICLE.

The contracting powers, sincerely desiring to give effect to the measures on which they deliberated at the congress of Vienna, relative to the complete and universal abolition of the slave-trade, and having, each in their respective dominions, prohibited without restriction their colonies and subjects from taking any part whatever in this traffic, engage to renew conjointly their efforts, with the view of securing final success to those principles which they proclaimed in the declaration of the 4th of February, 1815, and of concerting, without loss of time, through their ministers at the courts of London and of Paris, the most effectual measures for the entire and definitive abolition of a commerce, so odious, and so strongly condemned by the laws of religion and of nature. The present additional article shall have the same force and effect as if it were inserted, word for word, in the treaty signed this day. It shall be included in the ratification of the said treaty. In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereunto the seals of their arms.*

Done at Paris, this 20th day of November, in the year of our Lord, 1815.

(Signed) (L. S.) CASTLEREAGH.
(L. S.) WELLINGTON.
(L. S.) RICHELIEU.

* DECLARATION

Of the Plenipotentiaries of the allied Sovereigns, regarding the Abolition of the Slave-trade.

The plenipotentiaries of the powers who signed the treaty of Paris, of the 30th of May, 1814, met in conference, having taken into consideration that the commerce, known by the name of the African slave-trade, has been viewed by just and enlightened men in all ages, as repugnant to principles of humanity and universal morality; that the particular circumstances to which that commerce owed its birth, and the difficulty of suddenly interrupting its course, served to cover to a certain extent the odiousness of its continuance; but that the public voice has at length been raised in every civilized country, demanding that it should be suppressed as soon as possible; that since the character and the details of this commerce have been better known, and the evils of every kind which accompany it completely unveiled, several European governments have adopted the resolution of putting a stop to it; and that successively all the powers possessing colonies in the different parts of the world, have recognised, either by legislative acts, or by treaties and other formal engagements, the obligation and the necessity of

SEPARATE ARTICLE SIGNED WITH RUSSIA
ALONE.

In execution of the additional article of the 30th of May, 1814, his most Christian majesty engages to send, without delay, to Warsaw, one or more commissioners, to concur in his name, according to the terms of the said article, in the examination and liquidation of the reciprocal claims of France and the late duchy of Warsaw, and

abolishing it: that by a separate article of the last treaty of Paris, Great Britain and France engaged to join their efforts at the congress of Vienna, to cause to be pronounced by all the powers of Christendom, the universal and definitive abolition of the slave-trade; that the plenipotentiaries assembled in the congress could not more honour their mission, fulfil their duty, and manifest the principles which guide their august sovereigns, than in labouring to realize that engagement, and in proclaiming, in the name of their sovereigns, the desire of putting a termination to a scourge which has so long afflicted Africa, degraded Europe, and afflicted humanity: the said plenipotentiaries have agreed to open their deliberations as to the means of accomplishing this grand and useful object, by a solemn declaration of the principles which have directed them in that undertaking. In consequence, and duly authorized by this act of unanimous adhesion of their respective courts to the principle announced in the said separate article of the treaty of Paris, they declare in the face of Europe, that, regarding the universal abolition of the trade in negroes as a measure particularly worthy of their attention, conformably to the spirit of the age, and the generous principles of their august sovereigns, they are animated with the sincere desire of concurring in the most prompt and efficacious execution of this measure by all the means in their power, and to act in the employment of these means with all the zeal and all the perseverance which they owe to so great and so good a cause.

Too well acquainted, however, with the sentiments of their respective sovereigns, not to foresee, that however honourable their object, they will not pursue it without a just regard for the interests, the habits, and even the prejudices of their subjects; the said plenipotentiaries recognizing at the same time, that this general declaration shall not prejudice the term which each particular power may view as the most agreeable for the definitive abolition of the negro trade. Consequently, the determination of the epoch when this commerce is to cease universally, shall be an object of negotiation between the powers, understanding always, that no proper means shall be neglected of assuring and accelerating its march, and that the reciprocal engagement contracted by the present declaration between the sovereigns who are parties to it, shall not be considered as fulfilled till the moment when complete success shall have crowned their united efforts. In publishing this declaration to all Europe, and all the civilized nations of the earth, the said plenipotentiaries flatter themselves that they will induce all other governments, and especially those who, in abolishing the negro slave-trade, manifested the same sentiments, to support them with their suffrage, in a cause, of which the final triumph will be one of the fairest monuments of the age which shall have embraced it, and brought it to a glorious termination.

Vienna, February 4, 1815.

in all the arrangements relative to them. His most Christian majesty recognises, in respect to the Emperor of Russia, in his quality of King of Poland, the nullity of the convention of Bayonne, it well understood that this disposition cannot receive any application but conformably to the principles established in the conventions mentioned in the ninth article of the treaty of this day. The present separate article has the same force and validity as if it were inserted word for word in the treaty of this day. It shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at the same time. In testimony whereof the plenipotentiaries have signed it, and affixed to it the seal of their arms.

Done at Paris the 20th of November, year of grace, 1815.

[The Signatures.]

TREATY OF ALLIANCE AND FRIENDSHIP BETWEEN HIS BRITANNIC MAJESTY AND THE
EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA..

Signed at Paris, the 20th of November, 1815.

In the name of the Most Holy and Undivided Trinity.—The purpose of the alliance concluded at Vienna, the 25th day of March, 1815, having been happily attained by the re-establishment in France of the order of things which the last criminal attempt of Napoleon Bonaparte had momentarily subverted; their majesties, the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, the Emperor of Austria, King of Hungary and Bohemia, the Emperor of all the Russias, and the King of Prussia, considering that the repose of Europe is essentially interwoven with the confirmation of the order of things founded on the maintenance of the royal authority, and of the constitutional charter, and wishing to employ all their means to prevent the general tranquillity (the object of the wishes of mankind, and the constant end of their efforts) from being again disturbed; desirous moreover to draw closer the ties which unite them for the common interests of their people; have resolved to give to the principles solemnly laid down in the treaties of Chaumont, of the 1st of March, 1814, and of Vienna, of the 25th of March, 1815, the application the most analogous to the present state of affairs, and to fix beforehand, by a solemn treaty, the principles which they propose to follow, in order to guarantee Europe from the dangers by which she may still be menaced; for which purpose, the high contracting parties have named to discuss, settle, and sign the conditions of this treaty, namely—[Here follow the names and titles of the plenipotentiaries, viz: Lord Castlereagh, Duke of Wellington, Prince of Metternich, and Baron of

Vassenberg]—who, after having exchanged their full powers, found to be in good and due form, have agreed upon the following articles:—

Art. I.—The high contracting parties reciprocally promise to maintain, in its force and vigour, the treaty signed this day with his most Christian majesty, and to see that the stipulations of the said treaty, as well as those of the particular conventions which have reference thereto, shall be strictly and faithfully executed in their fullest extent.

Art. II.—The high contracting parties, having engaged in the war which is just terminated, for the purpose of maintaining inviolable the arrangements settled at Paris last year, for the safety and interest of Europe, have judged it advisable to renew the said engagements by the present act, and to confirm them as mutually obligatory, subject to the modifications contained in the treaty signed this day, with the plenipotentiaries of his most Christian majesty, and particularly those by which Napoleon Bonaparte and his family, in pursuance of the treaty of the 11th of April, 1814, have been forever excluded from supreme power in France, which exclusion the contracting powers bind themselves, by the present act, to maintain in full vigour, and should it be necessary, with the whole of their forces. And as the same revolutionary principles which upheld the last criminal usurpation, might again, under other forms, convulse France, and thereby endanger the repose of other states; under these circumstances, the high contracting parties, solemnly admitting it to be their duty to redouble their watchfulness for the tranquillity and interests of their people, engage, in case so unfortunate an event should again occur, to concert among themselves, and with his most Christian majesty, the measures which they may judge necessary to be pursued for the safety of their respective states, and for the general tranquillity of Europe.

Art. III.—The high contracting parties, in agreeing with his most Christian majesty that a line of military position in France should be occupied by a corps of the allied troops during a certain number of years, had in view to secure, as far as lay in their power, the effect of the stipulations contained in articles one and two of the present treaty, and uniformly disposed to adopt every salutary measure calculated to secure the tranquillity of Europe, by maintaining the order of things re-established in France, they engage, that in case the said body of troops should be attacked, or menaced with an attack, on the part of France; that the said powers should be again obliged to place themselves on a war establishment against that power in order to maintain either of the said stipulations, or to secure and support the great in-

terest to which they relate, each of the high contracting parties shall furnish, without delay, according to the stipulations of the treaty of Chaumont, and especially in pursuance of the seventh and eighth articles of this treaty, its full contingent of sixty thousand men, in addition to the forces left in France, or such part of the said contingent as the exigency of the case may require should be put in motion.

Art. IV.—If, unfortunately, the forces stipulated in the preceding article should be found insufficient, the high contracting parties will concert together, without loss of time, as to the additional number of troops to be furnished by each for the support of the common cause; and they engage to employ, in case of need, the whole of their forces, in order to bring the war to a speedy and successful termination, reserving to themselves the right to prescribe, by common consent, such conditions of peace as shall hold out to Europe a sufficient guarantee against the recurrence of a similar calamity.

Art. V.—The high contracting parties having agreed to the dispositions laid down in the preceding articles, for the purpose of securing the effect of their engagements during the period of the temporary occupation, declare, moreover, that even after the expiration of this measure, the said engagements shall still remain in full force and vigour for the purpose of carrying into effect such measures as may be deemed necessary for the maintenance of the stipulations contained in the articles one and two of the present act.

Art. VI.—To facilitate and to secure the execution of the present treaty, and to consolidate the connexions which at the present moment so closely unite the four sovereigns for the happiness of the world, the high contracting parties have agreed to renew their meeting at fixed periods, either under the immediate auspices of the sovereigns themselves, or by their respective ministers, for the purpose of consulting upon their common interests, and for the consideration of the measures which at each of those periods shall be considered the most salutary for the repose and prosperity of nations, and for the maintenance of the peace of Europe.

Art. VII.—The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged within two months, or sooner, if possible.—In faith of which, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed it, and fixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at Paris, the 20th of November, A. D. 1815.

Signed, (L. S.) CASTLEREAGH.
(L. S.) WELLINGTON.
(L. S.) METTERNICH.
(L. S.) VASSENBERG.

NOTE.—Similar treaties were signed on the same day by the plenipotentiaries of his majesty, with those of the Emperor of Russia, and the King of Prussia, respectively.

CHAPTER XI.

Retrospect of the Epochs of the Wars of the French Revolution from the Rupture of the Treaty of Amiens to the Conclusion of a General Peace—Remarks on the General Treaty of Vienna—Copy of that Treaty.

DURING the eventful interval between the breaking out of that tremendous convulsion, the French Revolution, in 1789, and the final adjustment of the affairs of Europe, II.

rope, at the congress of Vienna, in 1815, a generation of men, and more than a race of sovereigns, have passed away. The first grand division of this important por-

tion of history is formed by the peace of Amiens, and the epochs of the war up to that period have already passed in rapid review.*

The interval of peace was of short duration. Mutual confidence, the main ingredient in all compacts between nations, was wanting; and little more than twelve months passed over between the ratification of the treaty of Amiens and the new war by which it was succeeded. For more than two years, the contest was carried on between France and Great Britain single-handed; and within that period, the consular government in France, which had been erected upon the ruins of the republic, gave place to the imperial dignity, and Napoleon, under favour of public suffrage, became Emperor of France, to which was soon afterwards added the title of King of Italy.

Awakened to a sense of the magnitude of the danger with which French aggrandizement menaced surrounding states, the imperial courts of St. Petersburg and Vienna became parties to a league with England, the avowed object of which was the establishment of an order of things in Europe, which might effectually guarantee the security and independence of the different states, and present a solid barrier against future usurpations. This coalition, sharing the fate of those by which it was preceded in the revolutionary wars, was dissolved on the field of Austerlitz, and the peace of Presburg once more prostrated continental Europe at the feet of the conqueror. In the same year, British prowess annihilated the naval power of France and Spain in the ever-memorable battle of Trafalgar, where Nelson fell in the arms of victory, leaving to his beloved country, as his last legacy, the uncontrolled dominion of the seas. The following year numbered with the dead two of the most distinguished statesmen that ever figured in British history, and left the political arena open to the contentions of those who, during the life of the great leaders, had been satisfied to move in their respective trains.

Prussia, with the hopes of retrieving the fallen fortunes of the house of Brandenburg, at the expense of neighbouring states, accepted Hanover from France, and consented to close her ports against Great Britain. But a union dictated by fear, and cemented by cupidity, necessarily proved of short duration, and the discovery that France had offered to the King of England, as the price of peace, the complete restoration of his electoral dominions, induced

Frederick William once more to take up arms against his powerful, but treacherous ally. The field of Jena, where the last stake of Prussia was thrown for, witnessed the complete prostration of that kingdom; and the battles of Eylau and Friedland, followed by the treaty of Tilsit, produced an imperial union, formed between Napoleon and Alexander on the waters of the Niemen.

The power of the Emperor Napoleon, and the splendour of his reign, had now attained their zenith. Allied by solemn treaties to the sovereigns of Austria, Russia, and Prussia; possessing an extent of dominion in the heart of Europe unknown to his predecessors; and fortified in his power by a confederation of princes more numerous than were ever before engaged in the support of any throne of modern times; the power of Napoleon seemed founded upon a rock, against which the billows of adverse fortune might beat in vain. But ambition, like its kindred vice, avarice, knows no bounds; in an evil hour, the sceptre of Spain, wielded as it was by a weak and irresolute hand, attracted the notice of Napoleon, and was marked out as a destined prize for a member of his family.

Austria, whose strength had been broken by the disasters of Ulm and Austerlitz, and whose dominion and resources had been curtailed by the peace of Presburg, resolved to convert to her advantages the war in which France was engaged with the patriots of Spain, aided by the powerful co-operation of Great Britain, and by a grand effort to regain her independence and power. With this purpose, she once more took the field; but Napoleon, whose strength was yet unbroken, and whose vigilance never slumbered, quitting Spain, appeared, as if by enchantment, in the capital of the Huns, and the battle of Wagram, succeeded by the peace of Vienna, closed the fourth Punic war.

The terms of this treaty, when promulgated to the world, were thought liberal in the extreme; but a subsequent event sufficiently explained the cause of the conqueror's moderation; and to the astonishment of the world, a daughter of one of the descendants of the Cæsars soon shared with the French emperor the splendour of his throne. Placed in a station that dazzled by its splendour, as much as it endangered by its elevation, Napoleon began to draw closer the shackles of despotism, with which his own subjects had long been manacled; and actuated by a strong antipathy against England, which had now become the most prominent feature of his policy, he endeavoured to extend his sys-

* See vol. i. book ii. p. 403.

tem of commercial interdiction over every state of the continent, and to deprive the great European family of the advantages and enjoyments derived from foreign intercourse. For the achievement of this insane project, he plunged into the heart of Russia, at an advanced season of the year, at the head of the finest army that the world ever beheld. Here, the elements warred against the invader, and in his own emphatic language, he ought to have died the day he entered Moscow. From that moment, disaster has been his continual companion, and from the Moskwa to the Vistula, the track of his retreating army was written in characters of blood. The French army indeed perished, though its chief, by an energy almost supernatural, effected his escape from the field of horrors to the French capital.

Another campaign, accompanied by combats the most sanguinary, served to extinguish the power of France in Germany; and Holland, Italy, and Spain, in the same year, expelled the invaders, and obtained their independence. A third campaign placed the allied armies in possession of the French capital, and transferred the sceptre of Napoleon from Paris to Porto Ferrajo. On the restoration of Louis XVIII. to the throne of his fathers, the principal sovereigns of Europe, attended by their own ministers, and by plenipotentiaries from other states, assembled at Vienna, to adjust in congress the complicated affairs of Europe. While this august assembly was still sitting, and when expedients were devising for placing the Emperor of Elba in a situation less hazardous to the public tranquillity than that which he then occupied, that extraordinary personage again appeared on the stage of his former greatness, and on debarking from his vessel, with an audacity peculiarly his own, declared the congress to be dissolved! Astonishment and dismay filled all Europe; and the people of France, with a mixed feeling of surprise and returning attachment, suffered him to march at the head of the army, by which he was speedily joined, from the coast to the capital, and once more to possess himself of the throne, which Louis, under the alarm of the general defection, had judged it proper to vacate. One hundred days was the duration of the second reign of Napoleon; and on the field of Waterloo he saw his laurels wither, after a well-fought day, before the skill and energy of the hero of the peninsula, and the *vainqueur du vainqueur de la terre*. Following in the victorious train of the allied armies, the head of the Bourbon race was once more reinstated on the throne of France, and the political life of

Napoleon terminated in the island of St. Helena.

In the midst of the din of arms, the congress continued its deliberations; and on the 9th of June, some days before the decisive battle in Flanders, a general treaty was signed at Vienna. By this treaty, which embraced in one common transaction the various results of the negotiations of the congress, nearly the whole of the smaller states of Europe, as well as some of the larger, were cast in a new mould. The numerous changes which the successive rulers of France had introduced into the old continental system of territorial arrangement, were abrogated, and other changes, scarcely less important, were effected, for the purpose of giving to the different states of Europe a just equilibrium, and a proper share of political power.

The hope that Poland would be erected into an independent kingdom, governed by its own laws, and ruled by a sovereign free from foreign control, expired with the promulgation of the general treaty of Vienna. The duchy of Warsaw, with a few exceptions, was, by the provisions of this treaty, irrevocably united to the Russian empire, and the Emperor Alexander assumed with his other titles that of Czar, King of Poland; but in order to soothe the wounded feelings of the Poles, a promise was held out that the respective Polish subjects of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, should obtain representative governments and national institutions.

The Emperor Napoleon, in the plenitude of his power, wishing to remain master of the west of Europe, exerted his utmost influence to drive back Russia, and to place her frontier not merely beyond the Vistula, but behind the Niemen. For this purpose, the duchy of Warsaw was erected, and the Poles were amused with the expectation that they were destined once more to become a nation. A very different policy actuated the proceedings of the congress of Vienna; by the accession of the duchy of Warsaw, Russia was permitted to plant herself on the borders of East Prussia, to touch the frontiers of Austria, and to establish herself in the centre of Europe. The apprehensions entertained of French ascendancy during the reign of Bonaparte, was, without doubt, well grounded, but the danger to neighbouring states from the continually increasing power of Russia, when at any future time the sceptre of the czars may be swayed by an ambitious sovereign, though more remote, is not less substantial.

The cessions made to Prussia by Saxony, Austria, and Hanover, have swelled the

dominions of Frederick William to an extent unknown in Prussian history, and the acquisitions she has now to boast, has placed Prussia in the first rank of European states. The territories ceded by Austria and Hanover were voluntary transfers, made by mutual consent, and were unattended by any difficulty, either on the part of the sovereigns or of their people; but in the duchy of Saxony the case was widely different; the king, whose paternal sway had endeared him to his subjects by all the ties of an ardent loyalty, made the surrender demanded of him with extreme reluctance, and the Saxon people passed under the Prussian yoke with a feeling towards their new sovereign amounting almost to detestation.

The annexation of the ancient united provinces of the Netherlands to the late Belgic provinces, serve to create a new kingdom in Europe, under the sovereignty of his royal highness the Prince of Orange Nassau, King of the Netherlands, and will revive a union which existed in former times with reciprocal advantage.

The territories acquired by Austria from the treaty of Vienna, extend over the Tyrol and the northern part of Italy, and contribute to restore the dilapidated dominions of the head of the Germanic body to their ancient splendour and extent.

The system of policy which suggested the propriety of equalizing the dominions of the greater powers of Europe, and consolidating and uniting the smaller states, led to the determination to suffer the dominions of the ancient republic of Genoa to merge into the kingdom of Sardinia; and it was in pursuance of these arrangements, that Hanover was erected into a kingdom; and that the Vallais, the territory of Geneva, and the principality of Neuchâtel, were united to Switzerland.

In perusing the articles of this voluminous treaty, with which, like the congress of Vienna, we shall, for the present, close our historical labours, it will be observed, that a very laudable desire has existed on the part of the allied powers, to extend the privileges and secure the liberty, of the people. The guarantees respecting a representative form of government, the institution of trial by jury, and the provisions for the liberty of the press, will rank among this number; and if any cause of regret exists upon these points, it will arise from the consideration that these salutary provisions are not general, and that they do not form a distinct and prominent feature of the treaty. In one respect, however, all Europe must be inclined to applaud, not only the general principles,

but also the particular provisions of the treaty of Vienna; and when perfect liberty of conscience, and a complete equality of rights, to Christians of all religious denominations, are proclaimed, it is fair to infer, that sovereigns, as well as their subjects, are advancing in the knowledge and love of just and liberal sentiments on religious liberty. In all ages, and in all countries, despotism has been greatly supported by religious intolerance; but now, when the shackles of superstition and bigotry are beginning to burst under the expansion of royal intellect, political intolerance must gradually subside, and sovereigns will acknowledge, with the enlightened Fenelon, that the principal object of society is the general happiness, and that the people do not exist for a few individuals, but that rulers exist for the people.

GENERAL TREATY,

SIGNED IN CONGRESS AT VIENNA, JUNE 9TH, 1815.

In the Name of the Most Holy and Undivided Trinity.—The powers who signed the treaty concluded at Paris on the 30th of May, 1814, having assembled at Vienna in pursuance of the thirty-second article of that act, with the princes and states their allies, to complete the provisions of the said treaty, and to add to them the arrangements rendered necessary by the state in which Europe was left at the termination of the last war, being now desirous to embrace in one common transaction the various results of their negotiations, for the purpose of confirming them by their reciprocal ratifications, have authorized their plenipotentiaries to unite in a general instrument the regulations of superior and permanent interest, and to join to that act, as integral parts of the arrangements of congress, the treaties, conventions, declarations, regulations, and other particular acts, as cited in the present treaty; and the above-mentioned powers having appointed plenipotentiaries to the congress, that is to say—

[Here follow the names of the plenipotentiaries, in the same order as the signatures at the end.]

Such of the above plenipotentiaries as have assisted at the close of the negotiations, after having produced their full powers, found in good and due form, have agreed to place in the said general instrument the following articles, and to affix to them their signatures.

Art. I.—The duchy of Warsaw, with the exception of the provinces and districts which are otherwise disposed of by the following articles, is united to the Russian

empire, to which it shall be irrevocably attached by its constitution, and be possessed by his majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, his heirs, and successors in perpetuity. His imperial majesty reserves to himself to give to this state, enjoying a distinct administration, the interior improvements which he shall judge proper. He shall assume with his other titles that of Czar, King of Poland, agreeably to the form established for the titles attached to his other possessions.

The Poles, who are respective subjects of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, shall obtain a representation and national institutions, regulated according to the decree of political consideration, that each of the governments to which they belong shall judge expedient and proper to grant them.

Art. II.—The part of the duchy of Warsaw which his majesty the King of Prussia shall possess in full sovereignty and property, for himself, his heirs, and successors, under the title of the grand duchy of Posen, shall be comprised within the following line:—

Proceeding from the frontier of Eastern Prussia to the village of Neuhoft, the new limit shall follow the frontier of Western Prussia, such as it subsisted from 1772 to the peace of Tilsit, to the village of Leibitsch, which shall belong to the duchy of Warsaw; thence, shall be drawn a line, which, leaving Kompania, Grabowice, and Szczytno to Prussia, passes the Vistula near the last-mentioned place, from the other side of the river, which falls into the Vistula opposite Szczytno, to the ancient limit of the district of the Netze, near Gross Opoczko, so that Sluzewo shall belong to the duchy, and Przyranowa, Hollander, and Maciejewo, to Prussia. From Gross Opoczko, it shall pass by Chlewiska, which shall remain to Prussia, to the village of Przybyslaw, thence, by the villages of Piaski, Chelmce, Wito-wiczki, Kobylinka, Woyczyn, Orchowa, to the town of Powidz. From Powidz, it shall continue by the town of Slupee to the point of confluence of the rivers Wartha and Prosna. From this point, it shall reascend the course of the river Prosna to the village of Koscielnawies, to within one league of the town of Kalisch. Then leaving to that town (on the side of the left bank of the Prosna) a semi-circular territory measured upon the distance from Koscielnawies to Kalisch, the line shall return to the course of the Prosna, and shall continue to follow it, reascending by the towns of Grabow, Wiernezow, Boleslawice, so as to terminate near the village of Gola, upon the frontier of Silesia opposite Pitschin.

Art. III.—His imperial and royal apos-

tolie majesty shall possess, in full property and sovereignty, the salt mines of Wieliczka, and the territory thereto belonging.

Art. IV.—The way or bed of the Vistula shall separate Gallicia from the territory of the free town of Cracow. It shall serve at the same time as the frontier between Gallicia and that part of the ancient duchy of Warsaw united to the states of his majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, as far as the vicinity of the town of Zawichost. From Zawichost to the Bug, the dry frontier shall be determined by the line drawn in the treaty of Vienna of 1809, excepting such modifications as by common consent may be thought necessary to be introduced. The frontier from the Bug shall be re-established on this side between the two empires, such as it was before the said treaty.

Art. V.—His majesty the Emperor of all the Russias cedes to his imperial and royal apostolic majesty the districts which have been separated from Eastern Gallicia in consequence of the treaty of Vienna of 1809, from the circles of Zloozow, Brzezan, Tarnopole, and Zalesczk; and the frontiers on this side shall be re-established, such as they were before the date of the said treaty.

Art. VI.—The town of Cracow, with its territory, is declared for ever to be a free, independent, and strictly neutral city, under the protection of Austria, Russia, and Prussia.

Art. VII.—The territory of the free town of Cracow shall have for its frontier upon the left bank of the Vistula, a line, which, beginning at the spot near the village of Wolica, where a stream falls into the Vistula, shall ascend this stream by Clo, and Koscielniki, as far as Czulice, so that these villages may be included in the district of the free town of Cracow; thence, passing along the frontiers of these villages, the line shall continue by Dziekanowice, Garlice, Tomaszow, Karniowice, which shall also remain in the territory of Cracow, to the point where the limit begins which separates the district of Krzeszowice from that of Olkusz; thence, it shall follow this limit between the two said provinces, till it reaches the frontiers of Silesian Prussia.

Art. VIII.—His majesty the Emperor of Austria, wishing particularly to facilitate as much as possible on his part, the commercial relations and good neighbourhood between Gallicia and the free towns of Cracow, grants for ever to the town of Podgorze the privileges of a free commercial town, such as are enjoyed by the town of Brody. This liberty of commerce shall extend to a distance of five hundred

toises from the barrier of the suburbs of the town of Podgorze. In consequence of this perpetual concession, which, nevertheless, shall not affect the rights of sovereignty of his imperial and royal apostolic majesty, the Austrian custom-houses shall be established only in places situated beyond that limit. No military establishment shall be formed, that can menace the neutrality of Cracow, or obstruct the liberty of commerce which his imperial and royal apostolic majesty grants to the town and district of Podgorze.

Art. IX.—The courts of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, engage to respect, and to cause to be always respected, the neutrality of the free town of Cracow and its territory. No armed force shall be introduced upon any pretence whatever. On the other hand, it is understood, and expressly stipulated, that no asylum shall be afforded in the free town and territory of Cracow, to fugitives, deserters, and persons under prosecution, belonging to the country of either of the high powers aforesaid; and in the event of the demand of their surrender by the competent authorities, such individuals shall be arrested and given up without delay, and conveyed, under a proper escort, to the guard appointed to receive them at the frontier.

Art. X.—The dispositions of the constitution of the free town of Cracow, concerning the academy, the bishopric and chapter of that town, such as they are specified in the seventh, fifteenth, sixteenth and seventeenth articles of the additional treaty relative to Cracow, which is annexed to the present general treaty, shall have the same force and validity as if they were textually inserted in this act.

Art. XI.—A full, general, and special amnesty, shall be granted in favour of all individuals, of whatever rank, sex, or condition they may be.

Art. XII.—In consequence of the preceding article, no person in future shall be prosecuted or disturbed in any manner, by reason of any participation, direct or indirect, at any time, in the political, civil, or military events in Poland. All proceedings, suits, or prosecutions, are considered as null, the sequestrations and provisional confiscations shall be taken off, and every act promulgated on this ground shall be of no effect.

Art. XIII.—From these general regulations on the subject of confiscations, are excepted all those cases in which edicts or sentences, finally pronounced, have already been fully executed, and have not been annulled by subsequent events.

Art. XIV.—The principles established

for the free navigation of rivers and canals, in the whole extent of ancient Poland, as well as for the trade to the ports, for the circulation of articles the growth and produce of the different Polish provinces, and for the commerce, relative to goods in transitu, such as they are specified in the twenty-fourth, twenty-fifth, twenty-sixth, twenty-eighth, and twenty-ninth articles of the treaty between Austria and Russia, and in the twenty-second, and twenty-third, twenty-fourth, twenty-fifth, twenty-eighth, and twenty-ninth articles of the treaty between Russia and Prussia, shall be invariably maintained.

Art. XV.—His majesty the King of Saxony renounces in perpetuity, for himself, and all his descendants and successors, in favour of his majesty the King of Prussia, all his right and title to the provinces, districts, and territories, or parts of territories, of the kingdom of Saxony, hereafter named; and his majesty the King of Prussia shall possess those countries in complete sovereignty and property, and shall unite them to his monarchy. The districts and territories thus ceded, shall be separated from the rest of the kingdom of Saxony by a line, which henceforth shall form the frontier between the Prussian and Saxon territories, so that all that is comprised in the limit formed by this line, shall be restored to his majesty the King of Saxony; but his majesty renounces all those districts and territories, that are situated beyond that line, and which belonged to him before the war.

The line shall begin from the frontiers of Bohemia near Wiese, in the neighbourhood of Seidenberg, following the stream of the river Wittich, until its junction with the Neisse. From the Neisse, it shall pass to the circle of Eigen, between Tauchritz, which shall belong to Prussia, and Bortschoff, which shall remain to Saxony; then, it shall follow the northern frontier of the circle of Eigen, to the angle between Pulsdorf and Ober-Schland; thence, it shall be continued to the limits that separate the circle of Gorlitz from that of Bautzen, in such a manner that Ober-Mettle and Neider-Schland-Olich, and Radewitz, remain in the possession of Saxony. The great post-road between Gorlitz and Bautzen shall belong to Prussia, as far as the limits of the said circles. Then, the line shall follow the frontier of the circle to Dubraucke; it shall then extend upon the heights to the right of the Lobauer-Wasser, so that this rivulet, with its two banks, and the places upon them, as far as Neudorf, shall remain, with this village, to Saxony. The line shall then fall again upon the Spree, and the Schwarz-Wasser. Laska, Hermsdorf, Ketten, and Solahdorf, are assigned to Prussia. From the Schwarze-Elster, near Seichdorf, a right line shall be drawn to the frontier of the lordship of Konigsbruck, near Grossegrabben. This lordship remains to Saxony, and the line shall follow its northern boundary as far as the bailiwick of Grossehayn, in the neighbourhood of Ortrand; Ortrand, and the road from that place

by Merzdorf, Stolzenhain, and Grobels, to Muhlberg (with the villages on that road, so that no part of it remain beyond the Prussian territory) shall be under the government of Prussia. The frontier from Grobels shall be traced to the Elba near Fichtenberg, and then shall follow the bailiwick of Muhlberg. Fichtenberg shall be the property of Prussia. From the Elba to the frontier of the country of Merseburg, it shall be so regulated that the bailiwicks of Torgau, Eilenburgh, and Delitzsch, shall pass to Prussia, while those of Ochatz, Wurzen, and Leipzig, shall remain to Saxony. The line shall follow the frontier of these bailiwicks, dividing some enclosures and demenclosures. The road from Muhlberg to Eilenburgh shall be wholly within the Prussian territory. From Podelwitz (belonging to the bailiwick of Leipzig, and remaining to Saxony) as far as Eytra, which also remains to her, the line shall divide the country of Merseburg in such a manner that Breitenfeld, Haenichen, Gross, and Klein-Dolzig, Mark-Ranstadt, and Knaut-Nauendorf, remain to Saxony; and Modelwitz, Skeuditz, Klein-Liebmann, Alt Ramstadt, Schkohlen, and Zeitschen, pass to Prussia. Thence, the line shall divide the bailiwick of Pegau, between the Flossgraben, and the Weisse-Elster; the former, from the point where it separates itself above the town of Crossen (which forms part of the bailiwick of Haynaburg) from the Weisse-Elster, to the point where it joins the Saale below the town of Merseburg, shall belong, in its whole course between those two towns, with both its banks, to the Prussian territory. Thence, where the frontier touches upon that of the country of Zeitz, the line shall follow it as far as the boundary of the country of Altenburg, near Luckau. The frontiers of the circle of Neustadt, which wholly falls under the dominion of Prussia, remain untouched. The enclosures of Voigtland, in the district of Reusa, that is to say, Gefall, Blintendorf, Sparenberg, and Blankenberg, are comprised in the share of Prussia.

Art. XVI.—The provinces and districts of the kingdom of Saxony, which are transferred to the dominion of his majesty the King of Prussia, shall be distinguished by the name of the duchy of Saxony, and his majesty shall add to his titles those of Duke of Saxony, Landgrave of Thuringia, Margrave of the two Lusatias, and Count of Henneberg. His majesty the King of Saxony shall continue to bear the title of Margrave of Upper Lusatia. His majesty shall also continue, with relation to, and in virtue of, his right of eventual succession to the possessions of the Ernestine branch, to bear the title of Landgrave of Thuringia, and Count of Henneberg.

Art. XVII.—Austria, Russia, Great Britain, and France, guarantee to his majesty the King of Prussia, his descendants and successors, the possession of the countries marked out in the fifteenth article, in full property and sovereignty.

Art. XVIII.—His imperial and royal apostolic majesty, wishing to give to the King of Prussia a fresh proof of his desire to remove every object of future discussion between their two courts, renounces for himself and his successors, his rights of

sovereignty over the margraviates of Upper and Lower Lusatia, which belonged to him as King of Bohemia, as far as these rights concern the portion of these provinces placed under the dominion of his majesty the King of Prussia, by virtue of the treaty with his majesty the King of Saxony, concluded at Vienna on the 18th of May, 1813.

As to the right of reversion of his imperial and royal apostolic majesty to the said portion of the Lusatias united to Prussia, it is transferred to the house of Brandenburg now reigning in Prussia, his imperial and royal apostolic majesty reserving to himself and his successors the power of resuming that right, in the event of the extinction of the said reigning house. His imperial and royal apostolic majesty renounces also, in favour of his Prussian majesty, the districts of Bohemia enclosed within the part of Upper Lusatia ceded by the treaty of the 18th of May, 1815, to his Prussian majesty, which districts comprehended the places of Gunterdorf, Taubentrante, Neukretschen, Nieder-Gerlachshausen, Winkel, and Ginkel, with their territories.

Art. XIX.—His majesty the King of Prussia, and his majesty the King of Saxony, wishing particularly to remove every object of future contest or dispute, renounce, each on his own part, and reciprocally in favour of one another, all feudal rights or pretensions, which they might exercise or might have exercised, beyond the frontiers fixed by the present treaty.

Art. XX.—His majesty the King of Prussia promises to direct that proper care be taken, relative to whatever may affect the property and interests of the respective subjects, upon the most liberal principles. The present article shall be observed, particularly, with regard to the concerns of those individuals who possess property both under the Prussian and Saxon governments, to the commerce of Leipzig, and to all other objects of the same nature; and in order that the individual liberty of the inhabitants, both of the ceded and other provinces, may not be infringed, they shall be allowed to emigrate from one territory to the other, without being exempted, however, from military service, and after fulfilling the formalities required by the laws. They may also remove their property without being subject to any fine or drawback.

Art. XXI.—The communities, corporations, and religious establishments, and those for public instruction, in the provinces ceded by his majesty the King of Saxony to Prussia, or in the provinces and districts remaining to his Saxon majesty, shall preserve their property, whatever changes they may undergo, as well as the rents becoming due to them, according to the act of their foundation, or which they have acquired by a legal title since that pe-

riod under the Prussian and Saxon governments; and neither party shall interfere in the administration and in the collection of the revenues, provided that they be conducted in a manner conformable to the laws, and that the charges be defrayed, to which all property or rents of the like nature are subjected, in the territory in which they occur.

Art. XXII.—No individual domiciliated in the provinces which are under the dominion of his majesty the King of Saxony, any more than an individual domiciliated in those which by the present treaty pass under the dominion of the King of Prussia, shall be molested in his person, his property, rents, pensions, or revenues of any kind, in his rank or dignities, nor be prosecuted or called to account in any manner, for any part which he, either in civil or military capacity, may have taken in the events that have occurred since the commencement of the war, terminated by the peace concluded at Paris on the 30th of May, 1814. This article equally extends to those who, not being domiciliated in either part of Saxony, may possess in it landed property, rents, pensions, or revenues of any kind.

Art. XXIII.—His majesty the King of Prussia, having in consequence of the last war, reassumed the possession of the provinces and territories which had been ceded by the peace of Tilsit, it is acknowledged and declared, by the present article, that his majesty, his heirs and successors, shall possess anew, as formerly, in full property and sovereignty, the following countries, that is to say:—

Those of his ancient provinces of Poland, specified by article two; the city of Dantzic and its territory, as the latter was determined by the treaty of Tilsit; the circle of Cottbus; the Old March; the part of the circle of Magdeburg, situated on the left bank of the Elbe, together with the circle of the Saale; the principality of Halberstadt, with the lordships of Derenburg, and of Hassenrode; the town and territory of Quedlinburg, (save and except the rights of her royal highness the Princess Sophia Albertine, of Sweden, Abbess of Quedlinburg, conformably to the arrangements made in 1803;) the Prussian part of the county of Mansfeld; the Prussian part of the county of Hohenstein; the Eichsfeld; the town of Nordhausen with its territory; the town of Mühlhausen with its territory; the Prussian part of the district of Treffurt with Doela; the town and territory of Erfurt, with the exception of Klein-Brembach and Balstedt, enclosed in the principality of Weimar, ceded to the Grand-duke of Saxe-Weimar by the twenty-ninth article; the bailiwick of Wandersleben, belonging to the county of Untergleichen; the principality of Paderborn, with the Prussian part of the bailiwicks of Schwallenberg, Oldenberg, and Stoppelberg, and the jurisdictions of Hagendorf and Odenhausen, situated in the territory of Lippe; the county of Mark, with the part of Lippstadt belonging to it; the county of Werden; the county of Essen; the part of the

duchy of Cleves on the right bank of the Rhine, with the town and fortress of Wesel; the part of the duchy, situated on the left bank, specified in article twenty-fifth; the secularized chapter of Elten; the principality of Munster, that is to say, the Prussian part of the former bishopric of Munster, with the exception of that part which has been ceded to his Britannic majesty, King of Hanover, in virtue of the twenty-eighth article; the secularized provostship of Cappenberg; the county of Tecklenburg; the county of Lingen, with the exception of that part ceded to the kingdom of Hanover by article twenty-seventh; the principality of Minden; the county of Ravensberg; the secularized chapter of Herford; the principality of Neufchatel, with the county of Valengin, such as their frontiers are regulated by the treaty of Paris, and by the seventy-sixth article of this general treaty. The same disposition extends to the rights of sovereignty and *suzeraineté* over the county of Wernigerode, to that of high protection over the county of Hohen-Limbürg, and to all the other rights or pretensions whatsoever which his Prussian majesty possessed and exercised, before the peace of Tilsit, and which he has not renounced by other treaties, acts, or conventions.

Art. XXIV.—His majesty the King of Prussia shall unite to his monarchy in Germany, on this side of the Rhine, to be possessed by him and his successors in full property and sovereignty, the following countries:—

The provinces of Saxony, designated in article fifteen, with the exception of the places and territories ceded, in virtue of article twenty-nine, to his highness the Grand-duke of Saxe-Weimar; the territories ceded to Prussia by his Britannic majesty, King of Hanover, by article twenty-nine; part of the department of Fulda, and such of the territories comprehended therein as are specified in article forty; the town and territory of Wetlar, according to article twelve; the grand-duchy of Berg, with the lordships of Hardenberg, Brock, Styrum, Schollar, and Odenthal, formerly belonging to the said duchy under the Palatine government; the districts of the ancient archbishopric of Cologne, lately belonging to the grand-duchy of Berg; the duchy of Westphalia, as lately possessed by his royal highness the Grand-duke of Hesse; the county of Dortmund; the principality of Corbeiy, the mediatised districts specified in article forty-three. The ancient possessions of the house of Nassau-Dietz having been ceded to Prussia by his majesty the King of the Netherlands, and a part of these possessions having been exchanged for the districts belonging to their serene highnesses the Duke and Prince of Nassau, the King of Prussia shall possess them, in sovereignty and property, and unite them to his monarchy.

1. The principality of Siegen, with the bailiwicks of Burbach and Neunkirchen, with the exception of a part containing 12,000 inhabitants, is belong to the Duke and Prince of Nassau.

2. The bailiwicks of Hohen-Solms, Greifenstein, Braunfels, Freusberg, Friedewald, Schenken, Schonberg, Altenkirchen, Altenwied, Dierdorf, Neuerberg, Lintz, Hammerstein, with Engers and Heddersdorf; the town and territory of Neuwied; the parishes of Hamm, belonging to the bailiwick of Hackenberg; the parish of Horhausen, constituting part of the bailiwick of Horbach, and the parts of the bailiwicks of Vallendar and Ehrenbreitstein, on the right bank of the Rhine, designated in the convention concluded

between his majesty the King of Prussia, and their serene highnesses the Duke and Prince of Nassau, annexed to the present treaty.

Art. XXV.—His majesty the King of Prussia shall also possess, in full property and sovereignty, the countries on the left bank of the Rhine, included in the frontier hereinafter designated :

This frontier shall commence on the Rhine at Bingen : it shall thence ascend the course of the Nahe to the junction of this river with the Glan, and along the Glan to the village of Medarf, below Lautercken ; the towns of Kreutznach and Meisenheim, with their territories, to belong entirely to Prussia ; but Lautercken and its territory to remain beyond the Prussian frontier. From the Glan, the frontier shall pass by Medard, Merzweiler, Langweiler, Neideer, and Ober Fechenbach, Ellenbach, Chreunchenborn, Ausweiler, Cronweiler, Niederbrambach, Burbach, Boeschweiler, Heubweiler, Hambach, and Rintzenberg, to the limits of the canton of Hermeskiel ; the above places shall be included within the Prussian frontiers, and shall, together with their territories, belong to Prussia. From Rintzenberg to the Sarre, the line of demarcation shall follow the cantonal limits, so that the cantons of Hermeskiel and Konz (in which latter, however, are excepted the places on the left bank of the Sarre) shall remain wholly to Prussia, while the cantons Wadern, Merzig, and Sarrebourg, are to be beyond the Prussian frontier.

From the point where the limit of the canton of Konz, below Gomlingen, traverses the Sarre, the line shall descend the Sarre till it falls into the Moselle, thence it shall reascend the Moselle to its junction with the Sarre, from the latter river to the mouth of the Our, and along the Our to the limits of the ancient department of the Ourthe. The places traversed by these rivers shall not at all be divided, but shall belong, with their territories, to the power in whose state the greater part of these places shall be situated : the rivers themselves, in so far as they form the frontier, shall belong in common to the two powers bordering on them. In the old department of the Ourthe, the five cantons of Saint-Vith, Malmady, Cronembourg, Schleiden, and Eupen, with the advanced point of the canton of Aubel, to the south of Aix la Chapelle, shall belong to Prussia, and the frontier shall follow that of these cantons, so that a line, drawn from north to south, may cut the said point of the canton of Aubel, and be prolonged as far as the point of contact of the three old departments of the Ourthe, the Lower Meuse, and the Roer ; leaving that point, the frontier shall follow the line which separates these two last departments till it reaches the river Worm, which falls into the Roer, and shall go along this river to the point where it again touches the limits of these two departments ; when it shall pursue that limit to the south of Hillensberg, shall ascend thence towards the north, and leaving Hillensberg to Prussia, and cutting the canton of Sittard into two parts, nearly equal, so that Sittard and Susteren remain on the left, shall approach the old Dutch territory ; then following the old frontier of that territory, to the point where it touched the old Austrian principality of Gueldres, on the side of Ruremonde, and directing itself towards the most eastern point of the Dutch territory, to the north of Swalmen, it shall continue to enclose this territory.

Then setting out from the most eastern point, it joins that other part of the Dutch territory in which Venloo is situated, without including the latter

town and its district : thence to the old Dutch frontier near Mook, situated below Genep, it shall follow the course of the Meuse, at such a distance from the right bank, as that all the places situated within a thousand Rhenish yards (*Rheinländische Ruthen*) of this bank, shall, with their territories, belong to the kingdom of the Netherlands ; it being well understood, however, in regard to the reciprocity of this principle, that no point of the bank of the Meuse shall constitute a portion of the Prussian territory, unless such point approach to within eight hundred Rhenish yards of it.

From the point, where the line just described joins the old Dutch frontier, as far as the Rhine, this frontier shall remain essentially as it was in 1795, between Cleves and the United Provinces. It shall be examined by the commission, which shall be appointed without delay by the two governments, to proceed to the exact determination of the limits of the kingdom of the Netherlands, and the grand-duchy of Luxembourg, designated in articles sixty-six and sixty-eight, and this commission shall regulate, with the aid of experienced persons, whatever concerns the hydrotechnical constructions, and other analogous points, in the most equitable manner, and conformably to the mutual interests of the Prussian states and of those of the other Netherlands. This same disposition extends to the regulation of the limits, in the districts of Kyfwaerd, Lobith, and all the territory to Kekerdom.

The places named Huissen, Malburg, le Lyniers, with the town of Sevenaer, and the lordship of Weel, shall form a part of the kingdom of the Netherlands, and his Prussian majesty renounces them in perpetuity, for himself, his heirs, and successors.

His majesty the King of Prussia, in uniting to his states the provinces and districts designated in the present article, enters into all the rights, and takes upon himself all the charges and engagements stipulated with respect to the countries dismembered from France, by the treaty of Paris of the 30th of May, 1814.

The Prussian provinces on the two banks of the Rhine, as far as above the town of Cologne, which shall also be comprised within this district, shall bear the name of grand-duchy of the Lower Rhine, and his majesty shall assume the title of it.

Art. XXVI.—His majesty the King of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, having substituted for his ancient title of Elector of the holy Roman Empire, that of King of Hanover, and this title having been acknowledged by all the powers of Europe, and by the princes and free towns of Germany, the countries which have till now composed the electorate of Brunswick Luneburg, according as their limits have been recognised and fixed for the future, by the following articles, shall henceforth form the kingdom of Hanover.

Art. XXVII.—His majesty the King of Prussia, cedes to his majesty the King of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, King of Hanover, to be possessed by his majesty and his successors, in full property and sovereignty :—

1. The principality of Hildesheim, which shall pass under the government of his majesty, with all the rights and all the charges with which the said principality was transferred to the Prussian government.

2. The town and territory of Goslar.

3. The principality of East Friesland, including the country called Harlinger-Land, under the conditions reciprocally stipulated in the thirtieth article for the navigation of the Ems, and the commerce of the port of Embden. The states of the principality shall preserve their rights and privileges.

4. The lower country of Lingen, and the part of the principality of Prussian Munster, which is situated between this country and the part of Rheina Wolbeck occupied by the Hanoverian government; but as it has been agreed that the kingdom of Hanover shall obtain by this cession an accession of territory comprising a population of 22,000 souls, and, as the lower country of Lingen, and the part of the principality of Munster here mentioned, might not come up to the condition, his majesty the King of Prussia engages to cause the line of demarcation to be extended into the principality of Munster, as far as may be necessary to contain that population. The commission which the Prussian and Hanoverian governments shall name without delay, to proceed to the exact regulation of the limits, shall be particularly charged with the execution of this provision. His Prussian majesty renounces in perpetuity, for himself, his descendants, and successors, the provinces and territories mentioned in the present article, as well as all the rights which have any relation to them.

Art. XXVIII.—His majesty the King of Prussia renounces in perpetuity, for himself, his descendants, and successors, all right and claim whatever, that his majesty, in his quality of Sovereign of Eichsfeld, might advance to the chapter of St. Peter, in the borough of Norton, or to its dependencies, situated in the Hanoverian territory.

Art. XXIX.—His majesty the King of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, King of Hanover, cedes to his majesty the King of Prussia, to be possessed by him and his successors, in full property and sovereignty:—

1. That part of the duchy of Lauenburg situated on the right bank of the Elbe, with the villages of Luneburg situated on the same bank. The part of the duchy upon the left bank remains to the kingdom of Hanover. The states of that part of the duchy which passes under the Prussian government, shall preserve their rights and privileges; especially those founded upon the provincial recess of the 15th of September, 1702, and confirmed by the King of Great Britain, now reigning, under date of June 21st, 1765.

2. The bailiwick of Klotze.

3. The bailiwick of Elbingerode.

4. The villages of Rudegershagen and Gansetich.

5. The bailiwick of Reckeberg.

His Britannic majesty, King of Hanover, renounces for himself, his descendants, and successors for ever, the provinces and districts specified in the present article, and all the rights which have reference to them.

Art. XXX.—His majesty the King of Prussia, and his Britannic majesty, King of Hanover, animated with the desire of entirely equalizing the advantages of the commerce of the Ems, and of the port of

Embden, and of rendering them common to their respective subjects, have agreed on this head to what follows:—

1. The Hanoverian government engages to cause to be executed, at its expense, in the years 1815 and 1816, the works which a commission, composed partly of artists, and to be immediately appointed by Prussia and Hanover, shall deem necessary to render navigable that part of the river Ems which extends from the Prussian frontier to its mouth, and to keep it, after the execution of such works, always in the same state in which those works shall have placed it, for the benefit of navigation.

2. The Prussian subjects shall be allowed to import and export, by the port of Embden, all kinds of provisions, productions and goods, whether natural or artificial, and to keep in the town of Embden, warehouses wherein to place the said goods for two years, dating from their arrival in the towns, without their being subject to any other inspection than that to which those of the Hanoverian subjects are liable.

3. The Prussian vessels, and merchants of the same nation, shall not pay for navigation, for exportation, or importation of merchandise, or for warehousing, any other tolls or duties than those charged upon the Hanoverian subjects. These tolls and duties shall be regulated by agreement between Prussia and Hanover, and no alteration shall be introduced into the tariff hereafter, but by mutual consent. The privileges and liberties just specified extend equally to those Hanoverian subjects who navigate that part of the river Ems which remains to the King of Prussia.

4. Prussian subjects shall not be compellable to employ the merchants of Embden for the trade they carry on with that port; they shall be at liberty to dispose of their commodities either to the inhabitants of the town or to foreigners, without paying any other duties than those to which the Hanoverian subjects are subjected, and which cannot be raised but by mutual consent.

His majesty the King of Prussia, on his part engages to grant to Hanoverian subjects, the free navigation of the canal of Stecknitz, so as not to exact from them any other duties than those which shall be paid by the inhabitants of the duchy of Lauenburg. His Prussian majesty engages, besides, to ensure these advantages to Hanoverian subjects, should he hereafter cede the duchy of Lauenburg to another sovereign.

Art. XXXI.—His majesty the King of Prussia, and his majesty the King of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, King of Hanover, mutually agree to three military roads through their respective dominions:—

1st. One from Halberstadt, through the country of Hildesheim, to Minden.

2d. A second from the Old March, through Gihorn and Neustadt, to Minden.

3d. A third from Osnabruck, through Ippenbren and Rheina, to Bentheim.

The two first in favour of Prussia, and the third in favour of Hanover.

The two governments shall appoint, without delay, a commission to prepare, by common consent, the necessary regulations for the establishment of the said roads.

Art. XXXII.—The bailiwick of Meppen, belonging to the Duke of Aremberg, as well as the part of Rheina Wolbeck be-

longing to the Duke of Looz-Corswaren, which at this moment are provisionally occupied by the Hanoverian government, shall be placed in such relations with the kingdom of Hanover, as the federative constitution of Germany shall regulate for the mediatised territories.

The Prussian and Hanoverian governments having nevertheless reserved to themselves to agree hereafter, if necessary, to the fixing of another line of frontier with regard to the country belonging to the Duke of Looz-Corswaren; the said governments shall charge the commission they may name for fixing the limits of the part of the county of Lingen ceded to Hanover, to deliberate thereupon, and to adjust definitively the frontiers of that part of the county belonging to the Duke of Looz-Corswaren, which, as aforesaid, is to be possessed by the Hanoverian government.

The relations between the Hanoverian government and the county of Bentheim shall remain as regulated by the treaties of mortgage existing between his Britannic majesty and the Count of Bentheim: and when the rights derived from this treaty shall have expired, the relations of the county of Bentheim towards the kingdom of Hanover shall be such as the federative constitution of Germany shall regulate for the mediatised territories.

Art. XXXIII.—His Britannic majesty, King of Hanover, in order to meet the wishes of his Prussian majesty to procure a suitable arrondissement of territory for his serene highness the Duke of Oldenburg, promises to cede to him a district containing a population of 5000 inhabitants.

Art. XXXIV.—His serene highness the Duke of Holstein-Oldenburg shall assume the title of Grand-duke of Oldenburg.

Art. XXXV.—Their serene highnesses the Dukes of Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Mecklenburg-Strelitz, shall assume the titles of Grand-dukes of Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Strelitz.

Art. XXXVI.—His highness the Duke of Saxe-Weimar shall assume the title of Grand-duke of Saxe-Weimar.

Art. XXXVII.—His majesty the King of Prussia shall cede from the mass of his states, as they have been fixed and recognised by the present treaty to his royal highness the Grand-duke of Saxe-Weimar, districts containing a population of 50,000 inhabitants, contiguous to, or bordering upon, the principality of Weimar. His Prussian majesty engages also to cede to his royal highness out of that part of the principality of Fulda which has been given up to him in virtue of the same stipulations, districts containing a population of 27,000 inhabitants. His royal highness the Grand-duke of Weimar shall possess the above districts in full property and sovereignty, and shall unite them in perpetuity to his present states.

Art. XXXVIII.—The districts and territories which are to be ceded to his royal

highness the Grand-duke of Saxe-Weimar, in virtue of the preceding article, shall be determined by a particular convention; and his majesty the King of Prussia engages to conclude this convention, and to cause the above districts and territories to be given up to his royal highness, within two months from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of the treaty concluded at Vienna, June 1st, 1815, between his Prussian majesty and his royal highness the grand-duke.

Art. XXXIX.—His majesty the King of Prussia, however, cedes immediately, and promises to give up to his royal highness, in the space of a fortnight, reckoning from the signature of the above-mentioned treaty, the following districts and territories; viz:—

The lordship of Blankenbain, with the reservation of the bailiwick of Wanderleben, belonging to Unter-Gleichen, which is not to be comprised in this cession.

The lower lordship of Kranichfeld, the commandaries of the Teutonic order Zwätzen, Lebesten, and Liebstedt, with their demesneal revenues, which, constituting a part of the bailiwick of Eckartsberga, are enclosed in the territory of Saxe-Weimar, as well as all the other territories enclosed within the principality of Weimar, and belonging to the said bailiwick; the bailiwick of Tautenburg, with the exception of Droitzen, Gorsche, Weithalung, Wetternscheid, and Mollschütz, which shall remain to Prussia.

The village of Remvala, as well as the villages of Klein-Brembach and Berstedt, enclosed within the principality of Weimar, and belonging to the territory of Erfurt.

The property of the villages of Bischoffroda, and Probstzella, enclosed within the territory of Eisenach; the sovereignty of which already belongs to his royal highness the grand-duke.

The population of these different districts is understood to form part of that of 50,000 souls, secured to his royal highness the Grand-duke of Saxe-Weimar, by article thirty-seventh, and shall be deducted from it.

Art. XL.—The department of Fulda, together with the territories of the neighbouring ancient noblesse, comprised, at this moment, under the provisional administration of this department, viz: Mansbach, Buchenau, Werda, Lensfeld, excepting, however, the following bailiwicks and territories, viz: the bailiwicks of Hammelburg, with Thulby and Saleck, Bruckena, with Motten, Saalmünster, with Urzel and Sonnerz; also the part of the bailiwick of Biberstein, which contains the villages of Batten, Brand, Dietges, Findlos, Liebarts, Melperz, Oper-Bernharst, Saifferts, and Thaiden, as well as the domain of Holzkirchen, enclosed in the grand-duchy of Wurzburg, is ceded to his majesty the King of Prussia, and he shall be put in possession of it within three weeks from and after the 15th of June of this year.

His Prussian majesty engages to take upon himself, in proportion to that part of the territory which he obtains by the present article, his share of the obligations which all the new possessors of the heretofore grand-duchy of Frankfort will have to fulfil, and to transfer such engagements to the princes with whom his majesty may hereafter make exchanges or cessions of these districts and territories of the department of Fulda.

Art. XLI.—The domains of the principality of Fulda, and the country of Hanau, having been sold to purchasers, who have not as yet made good all their instalments, a commission shall be named by the princes to whom the said domains are transferred, to regulate, in a uniform manner, whatever has any reference to this transaction, and to do justice to the claims of the purchasers of the said domains. This commission shall pay particular attention to the treaty concluded at Frankfort, December 2d, 1813, between the allied powers and his royal highness the Elector of Hesse; and it is laid down as a principle, that in case the sale of these domains should not be considered as binding, the purchasers shall receive back the sums already discharged, and they shall not be obliged to quit before such restitution shall have had its full and entire effect.

Art. XLII.—The town and territory of Wetzlar passes, in all property and sovereignty, to his majesty the King of Prussia.

Art. XLIII.—The following mediatised districts, viz: the possession which the Princess of Salm Salm, and Salm Kyrbourg, the counts called the Rheinmund-Wildgrafen, and the Duke of Croy, obtained by the principal rescript of the extraordinary deputations of the empire, of the 25th of February, 1803, in the old circle of Westphalia, as well as the lordships of Anholt and Gehmen, the possessions of the Duke of Loos-Corswaren, which are in the same situation, (in so far as they are not placed under the Hanoverian government,) the county of Steinfurt, belonging to the Count of Bentheim-Bentheim, the county of Recklingshausen, belonging to the Duke of Aremberg, the lordships of Rheda, Gutersloh, and Gronau, belonging to the Count of Bentheim-Tecklenberg, the county of Rittberg, belonging to the Prince of Kaunitz, the lordships of Neustadt and Gimborn, belonging to the Count of Walmoden, and the lordship of Homburg, belonging to the princes of Saxe-Wingenstein-Berleburg, shall be placed in such relations with the Prussian monarchy as the federative constitution of Germany shall regulate for the mediatised territories.

The possessions of the ancient and immediate nobility within the Prussian territory, and particularly the lordship of Wildenberg, in the grand-duchy of Berg, and the barony of Schauen, in

the principality of Halberstadt, shall belong to the Prussian monarchy.

Art. XLIV.—His majesty the King of Bavaria shall possess, for himself, his heirs and successors, in full property and sovereignty, the grand-duchy of Wurtzburg, as it was held by his imperial highness the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria, and the principality of Aschaffenburg, such as it constituted part of the grand-duchy of Frankfort, under the denomination of department of Aschaffenburg.

Art. XLV.—With respect to the rights and prerogatives, and the maintenance of the Prince Primate as an ancient ecclesiastical prince, it is determined;

1st. That he shall be treated in a manner analogous to the articles of the rescript, which, in 1803, regulated the situation of the secularized princes, and to the practice observed with regard to them.

2dly. He shall receive for this purpose, dated from June 1st, 1814, the sum of 100,000 florins, by payments of three months, in good specie, at the rate of 24 florins to the mark, as an annuity.

This annuity shall be paid by the sovereigns under whose governments the provinces or districts of the grand-duchy of Frankfort pass, in proportion to the part which each of them shall possess.

3dly. The advances made by the Prince Primate, from his private purse, to the general chest of the principality of Fulda, such as they have been liquidated and proved, shall be refunded to him, his heirs, and executors.

This expenditure shall be defrayed in proportions by the sovereigns who shall possess the provinces and districts composing the principality of Fulda.

4thly. The furniture and other objects which may be proved to belong to the private property of the Prince Primate, shall be restored to him.

5thly. The officers of the grand-duchy of Frankfort, as well civil and ecclesiastical as military and diplomatic, shall be treated conformably to the principles of the fifty-ninth article of the protocol of the empire, dated the 25th of February, 1803, and from the 1st of June the pensions shall be proportionably paid by the sovereigns who enter on the possession of the states which formed the said grand-duchy since the 1st of June, 1814.

6thly. A commission shall be established without delay, composed of members appointed by the said sovereigns, to regulate whatever relates to the execution of the dispositions comprised in this article.

7thly. It is understood, that in virtue of this arrangement, any claim that might be advanced against the Prince Primate, in his character of Grand-duke of Frankfort, shall be annulled, and that he shall not be molested on account of any reclamation of this nature.

Art. XLVI.—The city of Frankfort, with its territory, such as it was in 1803, is declared free, and shall constitute a part of the Germanic League. Its institutions shall be founded upon the principle of a perfect equality of rights for the different sects of the Christian religion. This equality of rights shall extend to all civil and political rights, and shall be observed in all matters

of government and administration. The disputes which may arise, whether in regard to the establishment of the constitution, or in regard to its maintenance, shall be referred to the Germanic diet, and can be decided only by the same.

Art. XLVII.—His royal highness the Grand-duke of Hesse, in exchange for the duchy of Westphalia, ceded to his majesty the King of Prussia, obtains a territory on the left bank of the Rhine, in the ancient department of Mont Tonnerre, comprising a population of 140,000 inhabitants. His royal highness shall possess this territory in full sovereignty and property. He shall likewise obtain the property of that part of the salt mines of Kreuznach which is situated on the left bank of the Nahe, but the sovereignty of them shall remain to Prussia.

Art. XLVIII.—The landgrave of Homburg is reinstated in his possessions, revenues, rights, and political relations, of which he was deprived in consequence of the confederation of the Rhine.

Art. XLIX.—In the ci-devant department of the Saare, on the frontiers of the states of his majesty the King of Prussia, there is reserved a district, containing a population of 69,000 souls, to be disposed of in the following manner: the Duke of Saxe-Cobourg, and the Duke of Oldenburg, shall obtain each a territory, comprising 20,000 inhabitants; the Duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, and the landgrave of Hesse-Homburg, each a territory comprising 10,000 inhabitants; and the Count of Peppenheim a territory comprising 9000 inhabitants. The territory of the Count of Peppenheim shall be under the sovereignty of his Prussian majesty.

Art. L.—The acquisitions assigned by the preceding articles to the Dukes of Saxe-Cobourg, Oldenburg, Mecklenburg-Strelitz, and the landgrave of Hesse-Homburg, not being contiguous to their respective states, their majesties the Emperor of Austria, the Emperor of all the Russias, and the Kings of Great Britain and Prussia, promise to employ their good offices, at the close of the present war, or as soon as circumstances shall permit, in order to procure for the said princes, either by exchanges or any other arrangements, the advantages that they are disposed to ensure to them; and that the administration of the said districts may be rendered less complicated, it is agreed that they shall be provisionally under the Prussian administration for the benefit of the new proprietors.

Art. LI.—All the territories and possessions, as well on the left bank of the Rhine, in the old departments of the Sarre and Mont Tonnerre, as in the former de-

partments of Fulda and Frankfort, or enclosed in the adjacent countries, placed at the disposal of the allied powers, by the treaty of Paris of the 30th of May, 1814, and not disposed of by other articles of the present treaty, shall pass in full sovereignty and property, under the government of his majesty the Emperor of Austria.

Art. LII.—The principality of Isenburg is placed under the sovereignty of his imperial and royal apostolic majesty, and shall belong to him, under such limitations as the federative constitution of Germany shall regulate for the mediatised states.

Art. LIII.—The sovereign princes and free towns of Germany, under which denomination, for the present purpose, are comprehended their majesties the Emperor of Austria, the Kings of Prussia, of Denmark, and of the Netherlands: that is to say, the Emperor of Austria and the King of Prussia for all their possessions which anciently belonged to the German empire, the King of Denmark for the duchy of Holstein, and the King of the Netherlands for the grand-duchy of Luxembourg, established among themselves a perpetual confederation, which shall be called "the Germanic Confederation."

Art. LIV.—The object of this confederation is the maintenance of the external and internal safety of Germany, and of the independence and inviolability of the confederated states.

Art. LV.—The members of the confederation, as such, are equal with regard to their rights; and they all equally engage to maintain the act which constitutes their union.

Art. LVI.—The affairs of the confederation shall be confided to a federative diet, in which all the members shall vote by their plenipotentiaries, either individually or collectively, in the following manner, without prejudice to their rank:—

1. Austria	One vote
2. Prussia	One —
3. Bavaria	One —
4. Saxony	One —
5. Hanover	One —
6. Wurtemberg	One —
7. Baden	One —
8. Electoral Hesse	One —
9. Grand-duchy of Hesse	One —
10. Denmark, for Holstein	One —
11. The Netherlands, for Luxembourg	One —
12. Grand-ducal and Ducal Houses of Saxony	One —
13. Brunswick and Nassau	One —
14. Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Strelitz	One —
15. Holstein-Oldenburg, Anhalt, and Schwartzenburg	One —
16. Hohenzollern, Lichtenstein, Renss, Schaumburg-Lippe, Lippe, and Waldeck	One —
17. The free towns of Lubec, Frankfort, Bremen, and Hamburg	One —

Art. LVII.—Austria shall preside at the federative diet. Each state of the confederation has the right of making propositions, and the presiding state shall bring them under deliberation within a definite time.

Art. LVIII.—Whenever fundamental laws are to be enacted, changes made in the fundamental laws of the confederation, measures adopted relative to the federative act itself, and organic institutions or other arrangements made for the common interest, the diet shall form itself into a general assembly, and in that case, the distribution of votes shall be as follows, calculated according to the respective extent of the individual votes:

Austria shall have	4 votes
Prussia	4 —
Saxony	4 —
Bavaria	4 —
Hanover	4 —
Wurtemberg	4 —
Baden	3 —
Electoral Hesse	3 —
Grand-duchy of Hesse	3 —
Holstein	3 —
Luxembourg	3 —
Brunswick	2 —
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	2 —
Nassau	2 —
Saxe-Weimar	1 —
Saxe-Gotha	1 —
Saxe-Cobourg	1 —
Saxe-Meinungen	1 —
Saxe-Hildburghausen	1 —
Mecklenburg-Strelitz	1 —
Holstein-Oldenburg	1 —
Anhalt-Desau	1 —
Anhalt-Bernburg	1 —
Anhalt-Köthen	1 —
Schwartzburg-Sondershausen	1 —
Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt	1 —
Hohenzollern-Hechingen	1 —
Lichtenstein	1 —
Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen	1 —
Waldeck	1 —
Reuss, (Elder Branch)	1 —
Reuss, (Younger Branch)	1 —
Schaumburg-Lippe	1 —
The free town of Lubec	1 —
Frankfort	1 —
Bremen	1 —
Hamburg	1 —

Total 69 votes.

The diet, in deliberating on the organic laws of the confederation, shall consider whether any collective votes ought to be granted to the ancient mediatised states of the empire.

Art. LIX.—The question, whether a subject is to be discussed by the general assembly, conformably to the principles above established, shall be decided in the ordinary assembly by a majority of votes. The same assembly shall prepare the drafts of resolutions which are to be proposed to the general assembly, and shall furnish the latter with all the necessary information, either for adopting or rejecting them.

The plurality of votes shall regulate the decisions, both in the ordinary and general assemblies, with this difference, however, that, in the ordinary assembly, an absolute majority shall be deemed sufficient, while, in the other, two-thirds of the votes shall be necessary to form the majority.

When the votes are even in the ordinary assembly, the president shall have the casting vote; but when the assembly is to deliberate on the acceptance or change of any of the fundamental laws, upon organic institutions, upon individual rights, or upon affairs of religion, the plurality of votes shall not be deemed sufficient, either in the ordinary or in the general assembly.

The diet is permanent: it may, however, when the subjects submitted to its deliberations are disposed of, adjourn to a fixed period, which shall not exceed four months.

All ulterior arrangements relative to the postponement or the despatch of urgent business, which may arise during the recess, shall be reserved for the diet, which will consider them when engaged in preparing the organic laws.

Art. LX.—With respect to the order in which the members of the confederation shall vote, it is agreed, that while the diet shall be occupied in framing organic laws, there shall be no fixed regulation; and whatever may be the order observed on such an occasion, it shall neither prejudice any of the members, nor establish a precedent for the future. After framing the organic laws, the diet will deliberate upon the manner of arranging this matter by a permanent regulation, for which purpose it will depart as little as possible from those which have been observed in the ancient diet, and more particularly according to the recess of the deputation of the empire in 1803. The order to be adopted shall in no way affect the rank and precedence of the members of the confederation, except in as far as they concern the diet.

Art. LXI.—The diet shall assemble at Francfort on the Maine. Its first meeting is fixed for the first of September, 1815.

Art. LXII.—The first object to be considered by the diet after its opening, shall be the framing of the fundamental laws of the confederation, and of its organic institutions, with respect to its exterior, military, and interior relations.

Art. LXIII.—The states of the confederation engage to defend not only the whole of Germany, but each individual state of the union, in case it should be attacked, and they mutually guarantee to each other such of their possessions as are comprised in this union.

When war shall be declared by the confederation, no member can open a separate negotiation with the enemy, nor make peace, nor conclude an armistice, without the consent of the other members.

The confederated states engage, in the same manner, not to make war against each other, on any pretext, nor to pursue their differences by force of arms, but to submit them to the diet, which will attempt a mediation by means of a commission

If this should not succeed, and a judicial sentence becomes necessary, recourse shall be had to a well organized *Austregal* court, (*Austregal instanz*;) to the decision of which the contending parties are to submit without appeal.

Art. LXIV.—The articles comprised under the title of *Particular Arrangements*, in the act of the Germanic confederation, as annexed to the present general treaty, both in original and in a French translation, shall have the same force and validity as if they were textually inserted herein.

Art. LXV.—The ancient United Provinces of the Netherlands and the late Belgic Provinces, both within the limits fixed by the following article, shall form, together with the countries and territories designated in the same article, under the sovereignty of his royal highness the Prince of Orange Nassau, sovereign Prince of the United Provinces, the kingdom of the Netherlands, hereditary in order of succession already established by the act of the constitution of the said United Provinces.

The title and the prerogatives of the royal dignity are recognised by all the powers in the house of Orange Nassau.

Art. LXVI.—The line comprising the territories which compose the kingdom of the Netherlands, is determined in the following manner:—

It leaves the sea, and extends along the frontiers of France on the side of the Netherlands, as rectified and fixed by article III. of the treaty of Paris of the 30th of May, 1814, to the Meuse; thence, along the same frontiers to the old limits of the Duchy of Luxembourg. From this point, it follows the direction of the limits between that duchy and the ancient bishopric of Liege, till it meets (to the south of Deiffelt) the western limits of that canton, and that of Malmédy, to the point where the latter reaches the limits, between the old departments of the Ourthe and the Roer; it then follows these limits, to where they touch those of the former French canton of Eupen, in the duchy of Limberg, and following the western limit of that canton, in a northerly direction, leaving to the right a small part to the former French canton of Aubel, joins the point of contact of the three old departments of the Ourthe, the Lower Meuse, and the Roer; parting again from this point, this line follows that which divides the two latter departments, until it reaches the Worm, (a river falling into the Roer,) and goes along this river to the point where it again reaches the limit of these two departments, pursues this limit to the south of Hillensberg, (the old department of the Roer,) whence it reascends to the north, and leaving Hillensberg, to the right, and dividing the canton of Sittard into two nearly equal parts, so that Sittard and Susteren remain on the left, it reaches the old Dutch territory; whence, leaving this territory to the left, it goes on following its eastern frontier to the point where it touches the old Austrian principality of Gueldres, on the side of Ruremonde, and directing itself towards the most eastern point of the Dutch territory, to the north of Swalmen, continues to enclose this territory.

Lastly, setting out from the most eastern point, it joins that part of the Dutch territory in which Venloo is situated: that town and its territory

being included within it. Thence, to the old Dutch frontier near Mook, situated above Genep, the line follows the course of the Meuse, at such a distance from the right bank, that all the places within a thousand Rhenish yards (*Rhenlandische Ruthen*) from it shall belong, with their territories, to the kingdom of the Netherlands; it being understood, however, as to the reciprocity of this principle, that the Prussian territory shall not at any point touch the Meuse, or approach it within the distance of a thousand Rhenish yards.

From the point where the line just described reaches the ancient Dutch frontier, as far as the Rhine, this frontier shall remain essentially the same as it was in 1795, between Cleves, and the United Provinces. This line shall be examined by a commission, which the governments of Prussia and the Netherlands shall name without delay, for the purpose of proceeding to the exact determination of the limits, as well of the kingdom of the Netherlands, as of the grand-duchy of Luxembourg, specified in article sixty-eight; and this commission, aided by professional persons, shall regulate every thing concerning the hydrotechnical constructions, and other similar points, in the most equitable manner, and the most conformable to the mutual interest of the Prussian states, and of those of the Netherlands. This same arrangement refers to the fixing of limits in the districts of Kyfwaerd, Lobith, and in the whole territory as far as Kekeerdum.

The enclaves of Huissen, Malburg, Lymers, with the town of Sevenaer, and lordship of Weel, shall form a part of the kingdom of the Netherlands; and his Prussian majesty renounces them in perpetuity, for himself, his heirs, and successors.

Art. LXVII.—That part of the old duchy of Luxembourg which is comprised in the limits specified in the following article, is likewise ceded to the Sovereign Prince of the United Provinces, now King of the Netherlands, to be possessed in perpetuity by him and his successors, in full property and sovereignty. The Sovereign of the Netherlands shall add to his titles that of Grand-duke of Luxembourg, his majesty reserving to himself the privilege of making such family arrangement between the princes his sons, relative to the succession to the grand-duchy, as he shall think conformable to the interests of his monarchy and to his paternal intentions.

The grand-duchy of Luxembourg, serving as a compensation for the principalities of Nassau, Dillenburg, Siegen, Hadamer, and Dietz, shall form one of the states of the Germanic confederation: and the prince, King of the Netherlands, shall enter into the system of this confederation, as Grand-duke of Luxembourg, with all the prerogatives and privileges enjoyed by the other German princes.

The town of Luxembourg, in a military point of view, shall be considered as a fortress of the confederation: the grand-duke shall, however, retain the right of appointing the governor and military commandant of this fortress, subject to the approbation of the executive power of the confederation, and under such other conditions as it may be judged necessary to establish, in conformity with the future constitution of the said confederation.

Art. LXVIII.—The grand-duchy of Luxembourg shall consist of all the territory situated between the kingdom of the Netherlands, as it has been designated by article sixty-six, France, the Moselle, as far as the mouth of the Sure, the course of the Sure, as far as the junction of the Our, and the course of this last river, as far as the limits of the former French canton of St. Vith, which shall not belong to the grand-duchy of Luxembourg.

Art. LXIX.—His majesty the King of the Netherlands, Grand-duke of Luxembourg, shall possess in perpetuity for himself and his successors, the full and entire sovereignty of that part of the duchy of Bouillon, which is not ceded to France by the treaty of Paris; and which therefore, shall be united to the grand-duchy of Luxembourg.

Disputes having arisen with respect to the said duchy of Bouillon, the competitor who shall legally establish his right, in the manner hereafter specified, shall possess, in full property, the said part of the duchy, as it was enjoyed by the last duke, under the sovereignty of his majesty the King of the Netherlands, Grand-duke of Luxembourg.

This decision shall be made by arbitration, and be without appeal. For this purpose, there shall be appointed a certain number of arbitrators, one by each of the two competitors, and others, to the number of three, by the courts of Austria, Prussia, and Sardinia. They shall assemble at Aix-la-Chapelle, as soon as the state of the war and other circumstances may admit of it, and their determination shall be made known within six months from their first meeting.

In the interim, his majesty the King of the Netherlands, Grand-duke of Luxembourg, shall hold in trust the property of the said part of the duchy of Bouillon, in order that he may restore it, together with the revenues of the provincial administration, to the competitor in whose favour the arbitrators shall decide; and his said majesty shall indemnify him for the loss of the revenues arising from the rights of sovereignty, by means of some equitable arrangement. Should the restitution fall to Prince Charles of Rohan, this property, when in his possession, shall be regulated by the laws of the substitution which constitutes his title thereto.

Art. LXX.—His majesty the King of the Netherlands renounces, in perpetuity, for himself, his heirs and successors, in favour of his majesty the King of Prussia, the sovereign possessions which the house of Nassau Orange held in Germany, namely, the principalities of Dillenburg, Dietz, Segen, and Hadamar, with the lordships of Beilstein, such as those possessions have been definitely arranged between the two branches of the house of Nassau, by the treaty concluded at the Hague on the 14th of July, 1814. His majesty also renounces the principality of Fulda, and the other districts and territories which were secured to him by the twelfth article of the principal recess of the extraordinary depu-

tation of the empire of the 25th of February, 1803.

Art. LXXI.—The right and order of succession, established between the two branches of the house of Nassau, by the act of 1783, called *Nassauischer Erbverein*, is confirmed, and transferred from the four principalities of Orange Nassau, to the grand-duchy of Luxembourg.

Art. LXXII.—His majesty the King of the Netherlands, in uniting under his sovereignty the countries designated in the sixty-sixth and sixty-eighth articles, enters into all the rights, and takes upon himself all the charges and all the stipulated engagements, relative to the provinces and districts detached from France by the treaty of peace concluded at Paris, the 30th of May, 1814.

Art. LXXIII.—His majesty the King of the Netherlands, having recognised and sanctioned, under date of the 21st of July, 1814, as the basis of the union of the Belgian Provinces with the United Provinces, the eight articles contained in the document annexed to the present treaty, the said articles shall have the same force and validity as if they were inserted, word for word, in the present instrument.

Art. LXXIV.—The integrity of the nineteen cantons, as they existed in a political body, from the signature of the convention of the 29th of December, 1813, is recognised as the basis of the Helvetic system.

Art. LXXV.—The Vallais, the territory of Geneva, and the principality of Neuchâtel, are united to Switzerland, and shall form three new cantons. The valley of Dappes, having formed part of the canton of Vaud, is restored to it.

Art. LXXVI.—The bishopric of Basle, and the city and territory of Bienne, shall be united to the Helvetic confederation, and shall form part of the canton of Berne. The following districts, however, are excepted from this last arrangement:—

1. A district of about three square leagues in extent, including the communes of Altschweiler, Schonbuch, Oberweiler, Terweiler, Ettingen, Furstenstein, Plotten, Pfäffingen, Aesch, Bruck, Reinach, Arlesheim; which district shall be united to the canton of Basle.

2. A small enclave, situated near the village of Neuchâtel de Lignieres, which is at present, with respect to civil jurisdiction, dependent upon the cantons of Neuchâtel, and with respect to criminal jurisdiction, upon that of the bishopric of Basle, shall belong in full sovereignty to the principality of Neuchâtel.

Art. LXXVII.—The inhabitants of the bishopric of Basle and those of Bienne, united to the cantons of Berne and Basle, shall enjoy, in every respect, without any distinction of religion (which shall be maintained in its present state) the same

political and civil rights which are enjoyed, or may be enjoyed, by the inhabitants of the ancient parts of the said cantons; they shall, therefore, be equally competent to become candidates for the places of representatives, and for all other appointments, according to the constitution of the cantons. Such municipal privileges as are compatible with the constitution and the general regulations of the canton of Berne, shall be preserved to the town of Bienne, and to the villages that formed part of its jurisdiction.

The sale of the national domains shall be confirmed, and the feudal rights and tithes cannot be re-established.

The respective acts of the union shall be framed conformably to the principles above declared, by commissions, composed of an equal number of deputies from each of the directing parties concerned. Those from the bishopric of Basle shall be chosen by the canton, from among the most eminent citizens of the country. The said acts shall be guaranteed by the Swiss confederation. All points upon which the parties cannot agree, shall be decided by a court of arbitration, to be named by the diet.

Art. LXXVIII.—The cession, made by the third article of the treaty of Vienna, of the 14th of October, 1809, of the lordship of Rasau, enclosed in the country of the Grisons, having expired; and his majesty the Emperor of Austria, being restored to all the rights attached to the said possession, confirms the dispositions which he made of it, by a declaration, dated the 20th of March, 1815, in favour of the canton of the Grisons.

Art. LXXIX.—In order to ensure the commercial and military communications of the town of Geneva with the canton of Vaud, and the rest of Switzerland; and with a view to fulfil, in that respect, the fourth article of the treaty of Paris, of the 30th of May, 1814, his most Christian majesty consents so to place the line of custom-houses, that the road which leads from Geneva into Switzerland by Versoy, shall at all times, be free, and that neither the post travellers, nor the transport of merchandise, shall be interrupted by any examination of the officers of the customs, nor subjected to any duty. It is equally understood, that the passage of Swiss troops on this road, shall not, in any manner, be obstructed.

In the additional regulations to be made on this subject, the execution of the treaties relative to the free communication between the town of Geneva and the jurisdiction of Peney, shall be assumed in the manner most convenient to the inhabitants of Geneva. His most Christian majesty also consents that the gendarmerie and militia of Geneva, after having communicated on the subject with the nearest military posts of the French gendarmerie, shall pass on the high road of Meyrin, to and from the said jurisdiction, and the town of Geneva.

Art. LXXX.—His majesty the King of Sardinia cedes that part of Savoy which is situated between the river Arve, the Rhone, the limits of that part of Savoy ceded to France, and the mountain of Salive, as far as Veiry inclusive, together with that part which lies between the high road called that of the Simplon, the Lake of Geneva, and the present territory of the canton of Geneva, from Venexas to the point where the river of Hermance crosses the said road, and thence, following the course of that river to where it enters the Lake of Geneva, to the east of the village of Hermance (the whole of the road of the Simplon continuing to be possessed by his majesty the King of Sardinia) in order that these countries shall be reunited to the canton of Geneva; with the reservation, however, of determining more precisely, by commissioners respectively, their limits, particularly of that part which relates to the demarcation above Veiry and on the mountain of Salive; his said majesty, renouncing for himself and his successors, in perpetuity, without exception or reservation, all rights of sovereignty, or other rights which may belong to him in the places and territories comprised within this demarcation.

His majesty the King of Sardinia also agrees, that the communication between the canton of Geneva and the Vallais, by the road of the Simplon, shall be established, in the same manner as it has been agreed to by France, between Geneva and the canton of Vaud, by the route of Versoy. A free communication shall also be at all times granted for the Genevese troops, between the territory of Geneva and the jurisdiction of Jussy, and such facilities shall be allowed as may be necessary for proceeding by the lake to the road of the Simplon.

On the other hand, an exemption from all duties of transit shall be granted for all merchandise and goods which, coming from the states of his majesty the King of Sardinia and the free port of Genoa, shall traverse the road called the Simplon in its whole extent through the Vallais and the state of Geneva. This exemption shall, however, be confined to the transit, and shall extend neither to the tolls established for the maintenance of the road, nor to duties levied on merchandise or goods intended to be sold or consumed in the interior. The same reservation shall apply to the communication granted to the Swiss between the Vallais and the canton of Geneva; and the different governments shall, for this purpose, take such measures as, by common agreement, they shall judge necessary, either for taxation or for preventing contraband trade in their territories, respectively.

Art. LXXXI.—With a view to the establishing of reciprocal compensations, the cantons of Argovia, Vaud, Tessin, and St. Gaul, shall furnish to the ancient cantons of Schwitz, Unterwald, Uri, Glarus, Zug, and Appenzell (*Rhode Interior*) a sum of money to be applied to purposes of public instruction, and to the expenses

of general administration, but principally to the former object, in the said cantons. The quota, manner of payment, and division of this pecuniary compensation, are fixed as follows:—

The cantons of Argovia, Vaud, and St. Gall, shall furnish to the cantons of Schwitz, Unterwald, Uri, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzell (*Rhode Interior*) a fund of 500,000 Swiss livres.

Each of the former cantons shall pay the interest of its quota, at the rate of five per cent. per annum, or have the option of discharging the principal either in money or funded property.

The division, either of the payment or receipt of these funds, shall be made according to the scale of contributions laid down for providing the federal expenses.

The canton of Tessin shall pay every year to the canton of Uri, a moiety of the produce of the tolls in the Levantine valley.

Art. LXXXII.—To put an end to the discussions which have arisen, with respect to the funds placed in England by the cantons of Zurich and Berne, it is determined:—

1. That the cantons of Berne and Zurich shall preserve the property of the funded capital as it existed in 1803, at the period of the dissolution of the Helvetic government, and shall receive the interest thereof from January 1st, 1815.

2. That the accumulated interest due since the year 1798, up to the year 1814, inclusive, shall be applied to the payment of the remaining capital of the national debt, known under the denomination of the Helvetic debt.

3. That the surplus of the Helvetic debt shall remain at the charge of the other cantons, those of Berne and Zurich being exonerated by the above arrangement. The quota of each of the cantons, which remain charged with this surplus, shall be calculated and paid according to the proportion fixed for the contributions destined to defray federal expenses. The countries incorporated with Switzerland, since 1813, shall not be assessed on account of the old Helvetic debt.

If it shall happen that an overplus remains after discharging the above debt, that overplus shall be divided between the cantons of Berne and Zurich, in the proportion of their respective capitals.

The same regulations shall be observed with regard to those other debts, the documents concerning which are deposited in the custody of the president of the diet.

Art. LXXXIII.—To conciliate disputes respecting *lauds* abolished without indemnification, an indemnity shall be given to persons who are owners of such *lauds*; and for the purpose of avoiding all further differences on this subject between the cantons of Berne and Vaud, the latter shall pay to the government of Berne the sum of 300,000 Swiss livres, which shall be shared between the Bernese claimants, proprietors of *lauds*. The payments shall be made at the rate of a fifth part each year, commencing from January 1st, 1816.

Art. LXXXIV.—The declaration of the 30th of March, addressed by the allied powers who signed the treaty of Paris, to the diet of the Swiss confederation, and

accepted by the diet through the act of adhesion of May 27th, is confirmed in the whole of its tenor; and the principles established, as also the arrangements agreed upon, in the said declaration, shall be invariably maintained.

Art. LXXXV.—The frontiers of the states of his majesty the King of Sardinia shall be:—

On the side of France, such as they were on the 1st of January, 1792, with the exception of the changes effected by the treaty of Paris, of the 30th of May, 1814.

On the side of the Helvetic Confederation, such as they existed on the 1st of January, 1792, with the exception of the change produced by the cession in favour of the canton of Geneva, as specified by the eightieth article of the present act.

On the side of the states of his majesty the Emperor of Austria, such as they existed on the 1st of January, 1702; and the convention concluded between their majesties the Empress Maria Theresa, and the King of Sardinia, on the 4th of October, 1751, shall be reciprocally confirmed in all its stipulations.

On the side of the states of Parma and Placentia, the frontiers, as far as concerns the ancient states of the King of Sardinia, shall continue to be the same as they were on the first of January, 1792.

The borders of the former states of Genoa, and of the countries called Imperial Fiefs, united to the states of his majesty the King of Sardinia, according to the following articles, shall be the same as those which, on the first of January, 1792, separated those countries from the states of Parma and Placentia, and from those of Tuscany and Massa.

The island of Capraja, having belonged to the ancient republics of Genoa, is included in the cession of the states of Genoa to his majesty the King of Sardinia.

Art. LXXXVI.—The states which constituted the former republic of Genoa are united in perpetuity to those of his majesty the King of Sardinia; to be, like the latter, possessed by him in full sovereignty and hereditary property, and to descend in the male line, in order of primogeniture, to the two branches of his house, viz. the royal branch and the branch of Savoy Carignan.

Art. LXXXVII.—The King of Sardinia shall add to his present titles that of Duke of Genoa.

Art. LXXXVIII.—The Genoese shall enjoy all the rights and privileges, specified in the act entitled "Conditions which are to serve as the bases of the union of the Genoese States to those of his Sardinian Majesty;" and the said act, such as it is annexed to this general treaty, shall be considered as an integral part thereof, and shall have the same force and validity as if it were textually inserted in the present article.

Art. LXXXIX.—The countries called Imperial Fiefs, formerly united to the ancient Ligurian republic, are definitively united to the states of his majesty the King of Sardinia, in the same manner as the rest of the Genoese states; and the

inhabitants of these countries shall enjoy the same rights and privileges as those of the states of Genoa, specified in the preceding article.

Art. XC.—The right that the powers who signed the treaty of Paris, of the 30th of May, 1812, reserved to themselves by the third article of that treaty, of fortifying such points of their states as they might judge proper for their safety, is equally reserved without restriction to his majesty the King of Sardinia.

Art. XCI.—His majesty the King of Sardinia cedes to the canton of Geneva the districts of Savoy, designated in the eighthieth article above recited, according to the conditions specified in the act entitled "Cession made by his majesty the King of Sardinia to the canton of Geneva." This act shall be considered as an integral part of this general treaty, to which it is annexed, and shall have the same force and validity as if it were textually inserted in the present article.

Art. XCII.—The provinces of Chablais and Faucigny, and the whole of the territory of Savoy to the north of Ugine, belonging to his majesty the King of Sardinia, shall form a part of the neutrality of Switzerland, as it is recognised and guaranteed by the powers.

Whenever, therefore, the neighbouring powers to Switzerland are in a state of open or impending hostility, the troops of his majesty the King of Sardinia which may be in those provinces, shall retire, and may for that purpose pass through the Vallais if necessary. No other armed troops of any other power shall have the privilege of passing through or remaining in the said territories and provinces, excepting those which the Swiss confederation shall think proper to place there; it being well understood that this state of things shall not in any manner interrupt the administration of these countries, in which the civil agents of his majesty the King of Sardinia may likewise employ the municipal guard for the preservation of good order.

Art. XCIII.—In pursuance of the renunciations agreed upon by the treaty of Paris, of the 30th of May, 1814, the powers who sign the present treaty recognise his majesty the Emperor of Austria, his heirs, and successors, as legitimate sovereign of the provinces and territories which had been ceded, either wholly or in part, by the treaties of Campo Formio, of 1797; of Luneville, of 1801; of Presburg, of 1805; by the additional convention of Fontainebleau, of 1807; and by the treaty of Vienna, of 1809; the possession of which provinces and territories, his imperial and royal apostolic majesty obtained in consequence of the last war; such as Istria, (Austrian as well as heretofore Venetian,) Dalmatia, the ancient Venetian isles of the Adriatic, the mouths of the Cattaro, the

city of Venice, with its waters, as well as all the other provinces and districts of the formerly Venetian States of the Terra Firma, upon the bank of the Adige, the duchies of Milan and Mantua, the principalities of Brixen and Trento, the county of Tyrol, the Voralberg, the Austrian Frioul, the ancient Venetian Frioul, the territory of Montefalcone, the government and town of Trieste, Carniola, Upper Carinthia, Croatia on the right of the Save, Fiume, and the Hungarian *Littorale*, and the district of Castua.

Art. XCIV.—His imperial and royal apostolic majesty shall unite to his monarchy, to be possessed by him and his successors, in full property and sovereignty:

1. Besides the portions of the Terra Firma in the Venetian states mentioned in the preceding article, the other part of those states, as well as all other territory situated between the Tessin, the Po, and the Adriatic sea.

2. The valleys of the Valteline, of Bormio, and of Chiavenna.

3. The territories which formerly composed the republic of Ragusa.

Art. XCV.—In consequence of the stipulations agreed upon in the preceding articles, the frontiers of the states of his imperial and royal apostolic majesty, in Italy, shall be:

1. On the side of the states of his majesty the King of Sardinia, such as they were on the first of January, 1792.

2. On the side of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, the course of the Po, the line of demarcation following the *Thalweg* of the river.

3. On the side of the states of Modena, such as they were on the first of January, 1792.

4. On the side of the Papal states, the course of the Po, as far as the mouth of the Goro.

5. On the side of Switzerland, the ancient frontier of Lombardy, and that which separates the valleys of the Valteline, of Bormio, and Chiavenna from the cantons of the Grisons, and the Tessin.

In those places where the *Thalweg* of the Po forms the frontier, it is agreed, that the changes which the course of the river may undergo shall not, in future, in any way affect the property of the islands therein contained.

Art. XCVI.—The general principles adopted by the congress at Vienna for the navigation of rivers, shall be applicable to that of the Po.

Commissioners shall be named by the states bordering on rivers, within three months at latest after the termination of the congress, to regulate all that concerns the execution of the present article.

Art. XCVII.—As it is indispensable to preserve to the establishment known by the name of the Mont-Napoleon at Milan, the means of fulfilling its engagements towards its creditors; it is agreed, that the landed and other immoveable property of this establishment, in countries which formed part of the ancient kingdom of Italy, and have since passed under the govern-

ment of different princes of Italy, as well as the capital belonging to the said establishment placed out at interest in these different countries, shall be appropriated to the same object.

The unfunded and unliquidated debts of the Mont-Napoleon, such as those arising from the arrears of its charges, or from any other increase of the out-goings of this establishment, shall be divided between the territories which composed the late kingdom of Italy; and this division shall be regulated according to the joint bases of their population and revenue.

The sovereigns of the said countries shall appoint commissioners, within the space of three months, dating from the termination of the congress, to arrange with Austrian commissioners whatever relates to this object. This commission shall assemble at Milan.

Art. XCVIII.—His royal highness the Archduke Francis d'Este, his heirs and successors, shall possess, in full sovereignty, the duchies of Modena, Reggio, and Mirandola, such as they existed at the signature of the treaty of Campo Formio.

The Archduchess Maria Beatrice d'Este, her heirs and successors, shall possess in full sovereignty and property, the duchy of Massa, and the principality of Carrara, as well as the imperial fiefs in La Lunigiana.

The latter may be applied to the purpose of exchanges, or other arrangements made by common consent, and according to mutual convenience, with his imperial highness the Grand-duke of Tuscany.

The rights of succession and reversion, established in the branches of the archducal houses of Austria, relative to the duchies of Modena, Reggio, and Mirandola, and the principalities of Massa and Carrara, are preserved.

Art. XCIX.—Her majesty the Empress Maria Louisa shall possess, in full property and sovereignty, the duchies of Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla, with the exception of the districts lying within the states of his imperial and royal apostolic majesty on the left bank of the Po.

The reversion of these countries shall be regulated by common consent with the courts of Austria, Russia, France, Spain, England, and Prussia; due regard being had to the rights of reversion of the house of Austria, and of his majesty the King of Sardinia, to the said countries.

Art. C.—His imperial highness the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria, is re-established, himself, his heirs, and successors, in all the rights of sovereignty and property, in the grand duchy of Tuscany and its dependencies, which he possessed previous to the treaty of Luneville.

The stipulations of the second article of the treaty of Vienna, of the 3d of October, 1735, between the Emperor Charles VI. and the King of France, to which the other powers acceded, are fully renewed in favour of his imperial highness and his descendants, as well as the guarantees resulting from those stipulations.

There shall be likewise united to the said grand duchy, to be possessed in full property and sove-

reignty by the Grand-duke Ferdinand, his heirs and descendants.—

1. The state of the Presidii.

2. That part of the island of Elba, and its appurtenances, which were under the *suzzerainete* of his majesty the King of the Two Sicilies before the year 1801.

3. The *suzzerainete* and sovereignty of the principalities of Piombino and its dependencies.

Prince Ludovici Buoncompagni shall retain, for himself and his legitimate successors, all the property which his family possessed in the principality of Piombino, and the island of Elba and its dependencies, previously to the occupation of those countries by the French troops in 1799, together with the mines, founderies, and salt-mines.

The Prince Ludovici shall likewise preserve his right of fishery, and enjoy an entire exemption from duties, as well for the exportation of the produce of his mines, founderies, salt-mines, and domains, as for the importation of wood and other articles necessary for the working of mines: he shall be also indemnified by his imperial highness the Grand-duke of Tuscany, for all the revenues the family of the latter derived from the crown duties before the year 1801. In case any difficulties should arise in the valuation of this indemnity, the parties concerned shall refer the decision to the courts of Vienna and Sardinia.

4. The late imperial fiefs of Vernio, Montano, and Monte Santa Maria, lying within the Tuscan states.

Art. CI.—The principality of Lucca shall be possessed in full sovereignty by her majesty the Infant Maria Louisa, and her descendants in the direct male line.

The principality is erected into a duchy, and shall have a form of government founded upon the principles of that which it received in 1805.

An annuity of 500,000 francs shall be added to the revenue of the principality of Lucca, which his majesty the Emperor of Austria, and his imperial highness the Grand-duke of Tuscany, engage to pay regularly, as long as circumstances do not admit of procuring another establishment for her majesty the Infant Maria Louisa, her son, and his descendants. This annuity shall be specially mortgaged upon the lordships in Bohemia, known by the name of Bavaro-Palatine; which, in case of the duchy of Lucca reverting to the Grand-duke of Tuscany, shall be freed from this charge, and shall again form a part of the private domain of his imperial and royal apostolic majesty.

Art. CII.—The duchy of Lucca shall revert to the Grand-duke of Tuscany; either in case of its becoming vacant by the death of her majesty the Infant Maria Louisa, or of her son Don Carlos, and of their male descendants; or in case the Infant Maria Louisa, or her heirs, should obtain any other establishment, or succeed to any other branch of their dynasty.

The Grand-duke of Tuscany, however, engages, should the said reversion fall to him, to cede to the Duke of Modena, as soon as he shall have entered into possession of the principality of Lucca, the following territories:—

1. The Tuscan districts of Tivizzano, Pietra Santa, and Barga.

2. The Lucca districts of Castiglione, and Galliciano, lying within the states of Modena, as well as those of Minacciano and Monte-Ignone, contiguous to the country of Massa.

Art. CHII.—The Marches, with Camerino, and their dependencies, as well as the duchy of Benevento and the principality of Ponte-Corvo, are restored to the holy see.

The holy see shall resume possession of the legations of Ravenna, Bologna, and Ferrara, with the exception of that part of Ferrara which is situated on the left bank of the Po.

His imperial and royal apostolic majesty, and his successors, shall have the right of placing garrisons at Ferrara and Comacchio.

The inhabitants of the countries who return under the government of the holy see, in consequence of the stipulations of congress, shall enjoy the benefit of the sixteenth article of the treaty of Paris, of the 30th of May, 1814.

All acquisitions made by individuals in virtue of a title acknowledged as legal by the existing laws, are to be considered as good, and the arrangements necessary for the guarantee of the public debt and the payment of pensions, shall be settled by a particular convention between the courts of Rome and Vienna.

Art. CIV.—His majesty King Ferdinand IV. for himself, his heirs, and successors, is restored to the throne of Naples, and his majesty is acknowledged by the powers as King of the Two Sicilies.

Art. CV.—The powers, recognising the justice of the claims of his royal highness the Prince-regent of Portugal and the Brazils, upon the town of Olivença, and the other territories ceded to Spain, by the treaty of Badajoz, of 1801, and viewing the restitution of the same as a measure necessary to ensure that perfect and constant harmony between the two kingdoms of the peninsula, the preservation of which in all parts of Europe, has been the constant object of their arrangements, formally engage to use their utmost endeavours, by amicable means, to procure the retrocession of the said territories, in favour of Portugal. And the powers declare, as far as depends upon them, that this arrangement shall take place as soon as possible.

Art. CVI.—In order to remove the difficulties which opposed the ratification on the part of his royal highness the Prince-regent of the kingdoms of Portugal and the Brazils, of the treaty signed on the 30th of May, 1814, between Portugal and France; it is determined, that the stipulations contained in the tenth article of that treaty, and all those which relate to it, shall be of no effect, and that, with the consent of all the powers, the provisions contained in the following article shall be substituted for them, and which shall alone be considered as valid: with this exception, all the other clauses of the above treaty of Paris shall be maintained, and regarded as mutually binding on the two courts.

Art. CVII.—His royal highness the

Prince-regent of the kingdoms of Portugal and the Brazils, wishing to give an unequivocal proof of his high consideration for his most Christian majesty, engages to restore French Guiana to his said majesty, as far as the river Oyapock, the mouth of which is situated between the fourth and fifth degree of north latitude, and which has always been considered by Portugal as the limit appointed by the treaty of Utrecht.

The period for giving up this colony shall be determined, as soon as circumstances shall permit, by a particular convention between the two courts; and they shall enter into an amicable arrangement, as soon as possible, with regard to the definite demarcation of the limits of the Portuguese and French Guiana, conformably to the precise meaning of the eighth article of the treaty of Utrecht.

Art. CVIII.—The powers whose states are separated or crossed by the same navigable river, engage to regulate, by common consent, all that regards its navigation. For this purpose, they will name commissioners, who shall assemble, at latest, within six months after the termination of the congress, and who shall adapt, as the basis of their proceedings, the principles established by the following articles.

Art. CIX.—The navigation of the rivers, along their whole course, referred to in the preceding article, from the point where each of them becomes navigable, to its mouth, shall be entirely free, and shall not, in respect to commerce, be prohibited to any one; it being understood, that the regulations established with regard to the police of this navigation shall be respected; as they will be framed alike for all, and as favourable as possible to the commerce of all nations.

Art. CX.—The system that shall be established, both for the collection of the duties and for the maintenance of the police, shall be, as nearly as possible, the same along the whole course of the river; and shall also extend, unless particular circumstances prevent it, to those of its branches and junctions, which, in their navigable course, separate or traverse different states.

Art. CXI.—The duties on navigation shall be regulated in a uniform and settled manner, and with as little reference as possible to the different quality of the merchandise, in order that a minute examination of the cargo may be rendered unnecessary, except with a view to prevent fraud and evasion. The amount of the duties, which shall in no case exceed those now paid, shall be determined by local circumstances, which scarcely allow of a general rule in this respect. The tariff shall, however, be pre-

pared in such a manner as to encourage commerce by facilitating navigation; for which purpose, the duties established upon the Rhine, and now in force on that river, may serve as an approximating rule for its construction.

The tariff once settled, no increase shall take place therein, except by the common consent of the states bordering on the rivers; nor shall the navigation be burdened with any other duties than those fixed in the regulation.

Art. CXII.—The offices for the collection of duties, the number of which shall be reduced as much as possible, shall be determined upon in the above regulation, and no change shall afterwards be made, but by common consent, unless any of these states bordering on the rivers should wish to diminish the number of those which exclusively belong to the same.

Art. CXIII.—Each state bordering on the rivers is to be at the expense of keeping in good repair the towing paths which pass through its territory, and of maintaining the necessary works through the same extent in the channels of the river, in order that no obstacle may be experienced to the navigation.

The intended regulation shall determine the manner in which the states bordering on the rivers are to participate in these latter works, where the opposite banks belong to different governments.

Art. CXIV.—There shall nowhere be established store-house, port, or forced harbour duties. Those already existing shall be preserved for such time only as the states bordering on rivers (without regard to the local interest of the place or the country where they are established) shall find them necessary or useful to navigation and commerce in general.

Art. CXV.—The custom-houses belonging to the states bordering on rivers shall not interfere in the duties of navigation. Regulations shall be established to prevent officers of the customs, in the exercise of their functions, throwing obstacles in the way of the navigation; but care shall be taken, by means of a strict police on the bank, to preclude every attempt of the inhabitants to smuggle goods, through the medium of boatmen.

Art. CXVI.—Every thing expressed in the preceding articles shall be settled by a general arrangement, in which there shall be comprised whatever may need an ulterior determination.

The arrangement once settled, shall not be changed, but by and with the consent of all the states bordering on rivers, and they shall take care to provide for its execution with due regard to circumstances and locality.

Art. CXVII.—The particular regulations relative to the navigation of the Rhine, the Necker, the Maine, the Mo-

selle, the Meuse, and the Scheldt, such as they are annexed to the present act, shall have the same force and validity as if they were textually inserted herein.

Art. CXVIII.—The treaties, conventions, declarations, regulations, and other particular acts which are annexed to the present act, viz. :—

1. The treaty between Russia and Austria, of the 21st of April, (3d May,) 1815;
 2. The treaty between Russia and Prussia of the 21st of April, (3d May,) 1815;
 3. The additional treaty relative to Cracow, between Austria, Prussia, and Russia, of the 21st of April, (3d May,) 1815;
 4. The treaty between Prussia and Saxony, of the 18th of May, 1815;
 5. The declaration of the King of Saxony respecting the rights of the house of Schonburg, of the 18th of May, 1815;
 6. The treaty between Prussia and Hanover, of the 29th of May, 1815;
 7. The convention between Prussia and the Grand-duke of Saxe-Weimar, of the 1st of June, 1815;
 8. The convention between Prussia and the Duke and Prince of Nassau, of the 31st of May, 1815;
 9. The act concerning the federative constitution of Germany, of the 8th of June, 1815;
 10. The treaty between the King of the Netherlands and Prussia, England, Austria, and Russia, of the 31st of May, 1815;
 11. The declaration of the powers on the affairs of the Helvetic confederation, of the 20th of March, and the act of accession of the diet, of the 29th of May, 1815;
 12. The protocol of the 29th of March, 1815, on the cessions made by the King of Sardinia to the canton of Geneva;
 13. The treaty between the King of Sardinia, Austria, England, Russia, Prussia, and France, of the 21st of May, 1815;
 14. The act entitled "Conditions which are to serve as the bases of the union of the states of Genoa with those of his Sardinian majesty;"
 15. The declaration of the powers on the abolition of the slave-trade, of the 8th of February, 1815;
 16. The regulations respecting the free navigation of rivers;
 17. The regulation concerning the precedence of diplomatic agents;
- Shall be considered as integral parts of the arrangements of the congress, and shall have, throughout, the same force and validity as if they were inserted word for word in the general treaty.
- Art. CXIX.—All the powers assembled in congress, as well as the princes and free towns who have concurred in the arrangements specified, and in the acts confirmed in this general treaty, are invited to accede to it.
- Art. CXX.—The French language having been exclusively employed in all the copies of the present treaty, it is declared by the powers who have concurred in this act, that the use made of that language shall not be construed into a precedent for the future; every power, therefore, reserves to itself the adoption, in future negotiations and conventions, of the language it has heretofore employed in its diploma-

tie relations; and this treaty shall not be cited as a precedent contrary to the established practice.

Art. CXXI.—The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged in six months, and by the court of Portugal in a year, or sooner, if possible.

A copy of this general treaty shall be deposited in the archives of the court and state of his imperial and royal apostolic majesty, at Vienna, in case any of the courts of Europe shall think proper to consult the original text of this instrument.

In faith of which, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed this act, and have affixed thereunto the seals of their arms.

Done at Vienna the 9th of June, in the year of our Lord 1815.

(The signatures follow in the alphabetical order of the courts.)

Austria—(L. S.) The Prince de Metternich.
(L. S.) The Baron de Wessenberg.

Spain.

France—(L. S.) The Prince de Talleyrand.
(L. S.) The Duke de Dalberg.
(L. S.) The Count Alexis de Noailles.

Great Britain—(L. S.) Clancarty.

(L. S.) Cathcart.

(L. S.) Stewart, L. G.

Portugal—(L. S.) The Comte de Palmella.

(L. S.) Antonio de Saldanha da Gama.

(L. S.) D. Joaquim Lobo da Silveira.

Prussia—(L. S.) The Prince de Hardenberg.

(L. S.) The Baron de Humboldt.

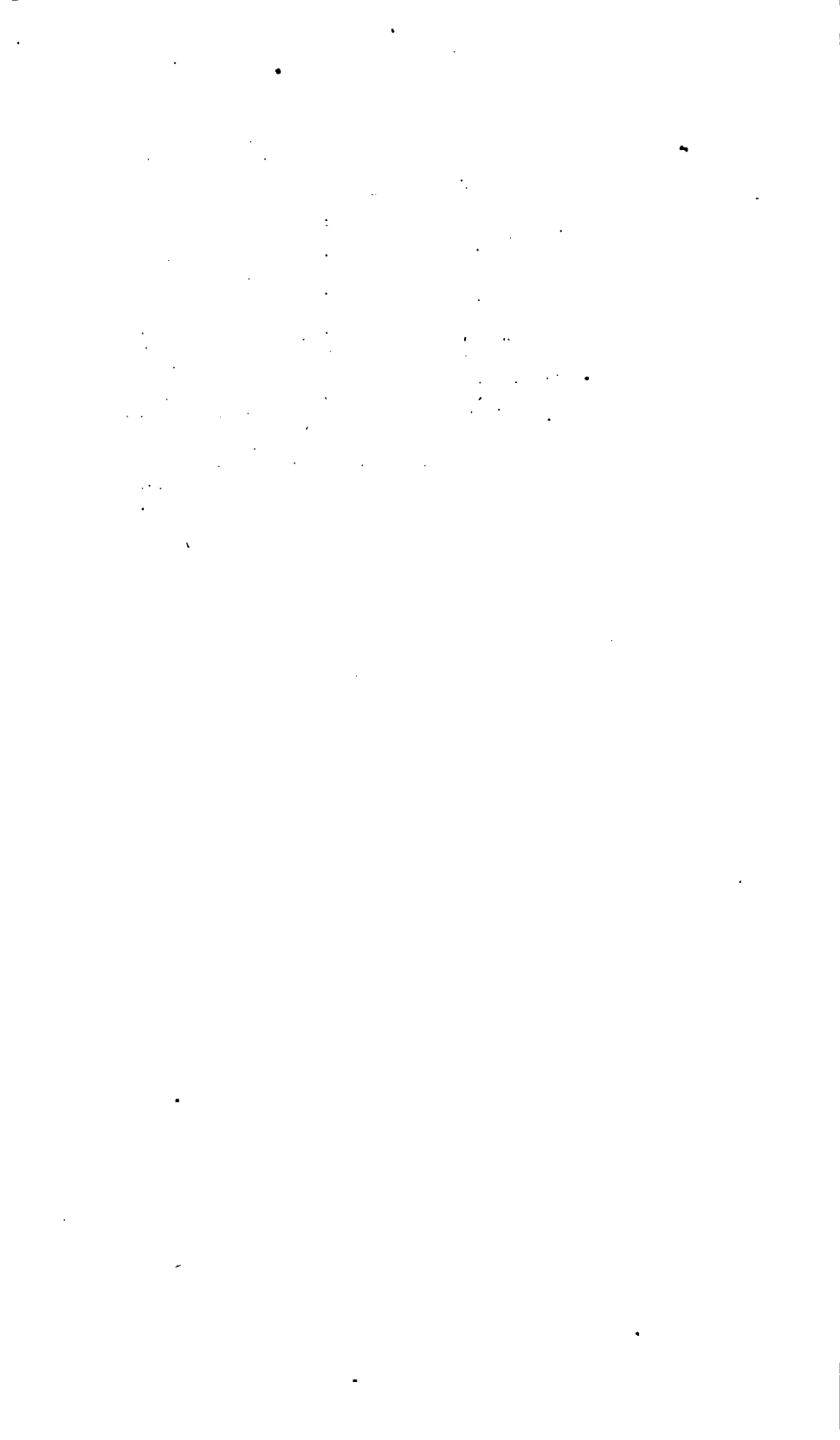
Russia—(L. S.) The Prince de Rasoumoffsky.

(L. S.) The Count de Stackelberg.

(L. S.) The Count de Nesselrode.

Sweden—(L. S.) The Count Charles Axel de Lowenhjelm.

Have and except the reservation made to the articles one hundred and one, one hundred and two, and one hundred and four, of the treaty



APPENDIX.

OPERATIONS AGAINST ALGIERS.

[SUBJOINED to the English edition of this work is a relation of the proceedings of the formidable expedition fitted out by the British government in 1816, for the bombardment of Algiers. This is preserved in the present edition, but it has been thought proper to prefix to it a narrative of the operations of the American squadron, in the same quarter, in 1815. In comparing together the two accounts, the American reader will find no cause to blush for his countrymen. The expedition of Lord Exmouth was vastly more powerful than that of Commodore Decatur, but the consequences of the latter were little less important or beneficial. The American commander, it is true, did not require a formal promise to abandon Christian slavery—a promise which, like most others made under similar circumstances, will be broken as soon as an opportunity offers—but he obtained every thing that was necessary for the safety and honour of his countrymen; and it is not probable that his treaty will be soon broken. It is proper to add, that the following narrative is taken from the *Analectio Magazine*, for February, 1816.]

In the year 1795, a treaty was concluded between the United States of America and the Dey of Algiers, in which the former were put upon a footing with other nations, on condition of paying to the dey a yearly tribute of twelve thousand Algerine sequins, to be invested in naval stores. This treaty subsisted without any infringement on the part of the Algerines, until some time in the month of July, 1812, when the dey, stimulated probably by the near prospect of a war between the United States and England, which he was encouraged in the belief would annihilate the naval force of the former, and disable them from taking satisfaction, took an opportunity to violate its most important articles. He was probably further stimulated to this measure, by having little employment at that time for his cruisers; in consequence of just concluding a peace with Portugal, while at the same time he was prevented

from committing depredations upon his old enemies, the Sicilians, of whom the English had declared themselves the protectors. The pretence of his highness for this breach of his engagements, was that the cargo of the ship *Alleghany*, then just arrived, with naval stores, for the payment of the tribute stipulated in the treaty of 1795, did not contain such an assortment of articles as he had a right to expect. In consequence of this disappointment, the dey, who was subject to violent paroxysms of passion, became exceedingly outrageous, and told his minister of marine that the cargo should not be received; that the ship should immediately quit Algiers; and that Colonel Lear, the American consul, should go with her, as he could not have a consul in his regency who did not cause every article to be bought as he ordered. Every attempt to explain, on the part of the consul, was without effect on the dey, who either was, or affected to be, extremely angry. A few days afterwards, he made a demand of certain arrearages of tribute, to the amount of twenty-seven thousand dollars, the claim to which was founded on the difference between the solar and lunar years, the one consisting of three hundred and sixty-five, the other of three hundred and fifty-four days, creating a difference of half a year, in the lapse of seventeen years, which had expired since the conclusion of the treaty. This was the first time the distinction between the Christian and Mahometan year had ever been brought forward by his highness, and it is certain that it was insisted upon in this instance, merely as furnishing a pretext for exacting money from the government of the United States, or, in case of a refusal, as furnishing an additional ground for a declaration of hostilities. The reasoning, remonstrances, and explanations of the consul were without effect, and he was at last given to understand, that if the money was not paid immediately, he would be sent to the *marine* in chains, the *Alleghany* and her cargo confiscated, every citizen of the United States in Algiers condemned to

perpetual slavery, and war forthwith declared.

After various ineffectual attempts to negotiate a mitigation of these demands, Colonel Lear finally received this definitive answer to his repeated applications, by his highness's dragoman—"That he should to-morrow morning pay into the treasury, twenty-seven thousand Spanish dollars, which he (the dey) claimed as the balance of annuities due from the United States, and then depart from the regency of Algiers with his family and all the citizens of the United States." On failure of payment, the consequences, which had at first been threatened, would most assuredly be inflicted. This message having been considered as conclusive, the consul, desirous of averting these calamities from himself, his family, as well as a number of his countrymen then in Algiers, made every effort to raise the money demanded. A merchant at Algiers at length advanced it, on receiving bills on Joseph Gavino, American consul at Gibraltar, and it was paid into the treasury before the time specified in the dey's message. Having committed the care of his property, which he was not permitted to attend to himself, to the agent-general of his Swedish majesty at Algiers, Colonel Lear embarked on board the *Alleghany*, with his family, and about twenty others, for the United States. The dey, immediately on his departure, commenced hostilities upon our commerce, and these outrages remained unrevengeed by the government of the United States, which could not send a force to the Mediterranean, in consequence of the war with Great Britain, declared in June, following these transactions.

Immediately, however, on the ratification of peace with Great Britain, the attention of Congress was called to a consideration of the conduct of Algiers, and the foregoing facts being sufficiently substantiated, war was declared to exist between the United States of America and the regency of Algiers. Preparations were immediately made to follow up this declaration, and a squadron was fitted out under the command of Commodore Decatur, consisting of the *Guerriere*, *Constellation*, and Macedonian frigates, the *Ontario* and *Epervier* sloops of war, and the schooners *Spark*, *Spitfire*, *Torch*, and *Flambeau*. Another squadron under Commodore Bainbridge, was to follow this armament, on the arrival of which, it was understood, Commodore Decatur would return to the United States in a single vessel, leaving the command of the whole combined force to Commodore Bainbridge.

The force under Commodore Decatur

rendezvoused at New York, from which port they sailed the 20th day of April, 1815, and arrived in the bay of Gibraltar in twenty-five days, after having previously communicated with Cadiz and Tangier. In the passage, the *Spitfire*, *Torch*, *Firefly*, and *Ontario*, separated at different times from the squadron in gales, but all joined again at Gibraltar, with the exception of the *Firefly*, which sprung her masts, and put back to New York, to refit. Having learned at Gibraltar that the Algerine squadron, which had been out into the Atlantic, had undoubtedly passed up the straits, and that information of the arrival of the American force had been sent to Algiers by persons in Gibraltar, Commodore Decatur determined to proceed without delay, up the Mediterranean, in the hope of intercepting the enemy before he could return to Algiers or gain a neutral port.

The 17th of June, off Cape de Gatt, he fell in with and captured the Algerine frigate *Mazouda*, in a running fight of twenty-five minutes. After two broadsides, the Algerines ran below. The *Guerriere* had four men wounded by musketry—the Algerines about thirty killed, according to the statement of the prisoners, who amounted to four hundred and six. In this affair, the famous Algerine admiral, or rais, *Hammida*, who had long been the terror of this sea, was cut in two by a cannon-shot.

On the 19th of June, off Cape Palos, the squadron fell in with and captured an Algerine brig of twenty-two guns. The brig was chased close to the shore, where she was followed by the *Epervier*, *Spark*, *Torch*, and *Spitfire*, to whom she surrendered, after losing twenty-three men. No Americans were either killed or wounded. The captured brig, with most of the prisoners on board, was sent into Carthage, where she has since been claimed by the Spanish government under the plea of a breach of neutrality. As this affair will probably become a subject of negotiation between the United States and Spain, we decline entering into further particulars.

From Cape Palos, the American squadron proceeded to Algiers, where it arrived the 28th of June. Aware that a despatch-boat had been sent from Gibraltar, to inform the regency of his arrival, and having also learned that several Tartans had gone in search of the Algerines, to communicate the news, Commodore Decatur concluded that their fleet was by this time safe in some neutral port. He therefore thought it a favourable time to take advantage of the terror which his sudden and unwelcome arrival had excited, to despatch a letter from the president of the United

States to the dey, in order to afford him a fair opportunity to open a negotiation. The captain of the port was immediately despatched to the *Guerriere*, on the receipt of this letter, accompanied by Mr. Norderling, the Swedish consul; and Commodore Decatur, who, with Mr. Shaler, had been empowered to negotiate a treaty, proposed the basis, on which alone he could consent to enter on the affair of an adjustment. This was the absolute and unqualified relinquishment of any demand of tribute on the part of the regency, on any pretence whatever. To this, he demurred. He was then asked if he knew what had become of the Algerine squadron, and replied—"By this time it is safe in some neutral port."—"Not the whole of it," was the reply. He was then told of the capture of the frigate, of the brig, and of the death of Hammida. He shook his head, and smiled with a look of incredulity, supposing it a mere attempt to operate on his fears, and thus induce an acceptance of the proposed basis. But when the lieutenant of Hammida was called in, and the minister learned the truth of these particulars, he became completely unnerved, and agreed to negotiate on the proposed basis. He premised, however, that he was not authorized to conclude a treaty, but requested the American commissioners to state the conditions they had to propose. This was done, and the captain of the port then requested a cessation of hostilities, and that the negotiation should be conducted on shore, the minister of marine having pledged himself for their security while there, and their safe return to their ships whenever they pleased. Neither of these propositions was accepted, and the captain was expressly given to understand, that not only must the negotiation be carried on in the *Guerriere*, but that hostilities would still be prosecuted against all vessels belonging to Algiers, until the treaty was signed by the dey.

The captain of the port and Mr. Norderling then went on shore, but the next day again came on board, with the information that they were commissioned by the dey to treat on the basis for which the commissioners of the United States had stipulated. A treaty was then produced, which the commissioners declared could not be varied in any material article, and that consequently, discussion was not only useless, but dangerous on their part; for if in the interim the Algerine squadron were to appear, it would most assuredly be attacked. On examining the treaty proposed, the captain of the port was extremely anxious to get the article stipulating for the restoration of the property taken by the Algerines during the war dispensed with, earnestly

representing that it had been distributed into many hands, and that as it was not the present dey, who declared war, it was unjust that he should answer for all its consequences. The article was, however, adhered to by the American commissioners, and after various attempts to gain a truce, as well as to gain time, it was at length settled that all hostilities should instantly cease, when a boat was seen coming off with a white flag, the Swedish consul pledging at the same time his honour, that it should not be hoisted until the dey had signed the treaty, and the prisoners were safe in the boat. The captain and Mr. Norderling then went on shore, and returned within three hours; with the treaty signed, together with all the prisoners, although the distance was more than five miles. The principal articles in this treaty were, that no tribute under any pretext or in any form whatever, should ever be required by Algiers from the United States of America; that all Americans in slavery should be given up without ransom; that compensation should be made for American vessels captured, or property seized or detained at Algiers; that the persons and property of American citizens found on board an enemy's vessel should be sacred; that vessels of either party putting into port should be supplied with provisions at market price, and, if necessary to be repaired, should land their cargoes without paying duty; that if a vessel belonging to either party should be cast on shore, she should not be given up to plunder; or if attacked by an enemy within cannon-shot of a fort, should be protected, and no enemy be permitted to follow her when she went to sea within twenty-four hours; that if any Christians whatsoever, captives in Algiers, make their escape, and take refuge on board of any of the ships of war of the United States, they shall not be required back again, nor shall the consul of the United States, or commander of said ships, be required to pay any thing for said Christians. In general, the rights of Americans on the ocean and the land, were fully provided for in every instance, and it was particularly stipulated that all citizens of the United States taken in war, should be treated as prisoners of war are treated by other nations, and not as slaves, but held subject to an exchange without ransom. After concluding this treaty, so highly honourable and advantageous to this country, the commissioners gave up the captured frigate and brig to their former owners. To this, they were influenced by a consideration of the great expense it would require to put them in a condition to be sent to the United States—the impossibility

of disposing of them in the Mediterranean, and by the pressing instances of the dey himself, who earnestly represented that this would be the best method of satisfying his people with the treaty just concluded, and consequently the surest guarantee for its observance on his part. The policy of the measure we think sufficiently obvious, when it is considered that the dey would most likely, in case of their refusal, have fallen a victim to the indignation of the people, and that, in all probability, his successor would have found his safety only in disowning the peace which had been made by his predecessor. There being, as we before stated, some dispute with the Spanish authorities with regard to the legality of the capture of the Algerine brig, it was stipulated on the part of the American commissioners, in order to induce the Spaniards to give her up, that the Spanish consul and a Spanish merchant, then prisoners in Algiers, should be released, and permitted to return to Spain if they pleased. According to the last advices, the brig was still detained by the Spanish government, and the ultimate disposal of this vessel will probably be settled by an amicable negotiation.

Commodore Decatur despatched Captain Lewis in the *Epervier*, bearing the treaty, to the United States, and, leaving Mr. Shaler at Algiers, as consul-general to the Barbary states, proceeded with the rest of the squadron to Tunis, with the exception of two schooners under Captain Gamble, sent to convoy the Algerine vessels home from Carthage. He was prompted to this visit, by having been informed that a misunderstanding existed between our consul and the bashaw of Tunis, into the nature of which he considered himself bound in duty to inquire. Here, he was officially informed by the consul of a violation of the treaty subsisting between the United States and the bashaw, first, in permitting two prizes of an American privateer to be taken out of the harbour by a British cruiser, and secondly, in permitting a company of merchants, subjects of Tunis, to take the property of an American citizen at their own price, and much below its real value.

The truth of these allegations being thus officially verified, Commodore Decatur addressed a letter to the prime minister of Tunis, demanding satisfaction for these outrages exercised or permitted by the bashaw, and a full restoration of the property thus given up or sacrificed. The bashaw, through the medium of his prime minister, acknowledged the truth of the facts, as well as the justice of the demands; but begged twelve months to pay the money.

This was refused; and on receiving assurances that it would be paid forthwith, the commodore went on shore, where he received the visits of the different consuls. The brother of the prime minister of Tunis chanced to arrive with the money at this time, and seeing the British consul in conversation with Commodore Decatur, threw down the bags which contained it with great indignation, at the same time addressing the consul in English, which he spoke fluently. "You see, sir, what Tunis is obliged to pay for your insolence. You must feel ashamed of the disgrace you have brought upon us. You are very good friends now, but I ask you whether you think it right first to violate our neutrality, and then to leave us to be destroyed or pay for your aggressions." As soon as the money was paid, the bashaw prepared to despatch a minister to England, to demand the amount which he had been obliged to pay in consequence of this requisition of the American commodore.

After adjusting these differences, the squadron proceeded to Tripoli, where Commodore Decatur made a similar demand for a similar violation of the treaty subsisting between the United States and the bashaw, who had permitted two American vessels to be taken from under the guns of the castle by a British sloop of war, and refused protection to an American cruiser lying within his jurisdiction. Restitution of the full value of these vessels was demanded, and the money, amounting to twenty-five thousand dollars, paid by the bashaw into the hands of the American consul. After the conclusion of this affair, the American consular flag, which Mr. Jones, the consul, had struck, in consequence of the violation of neutrality above mentioned, was hoisted in the presence of the foreign agents, and saluted from the castle with thirty-one guns. In addition to the satisfaction thus obtained for unprovoked aggressions, the commodore had the pleasure of obtaining the release of ten captives, two Danes, and eight Neapolitans, the latter of whom he landed at Messina.

After touching at Messina and Naples, the squadron sailed for Carthage on the 31st of August, where Commodore Decatur was in expectation of meeting the relief squadron, under Commodore Bainbridge. On joining that officer at Gibraltar, he relinquished his command, and sailed in the *Guerriere* for the United States, where he arrived on the 12th of November, 1815. Every thing being done previous to the arrival of the second division of the squadron under Commodore Bainbridge, that gallant officer had no opportunity of dis-

tinguishing himself, as we are satisfied he always will where occasion occurs. Pursuant to his instructions he exhibited this additional force before Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, where they were somewhat surprised at the appearance of the Independence seventy-four, having always been persuaded that the United States were restricted by their treaties with England from building ships of that class. When Colonel Lear was consul at Algiers, he endeavoured to convince the ministers of the dey that such was not the case; but they always replied, "If you are permitted to build seventy-fours, let us see one of them, and we shall be satisfied." Commodore Bainbridge sailed from Gibraltar thirty-six hours before the *Guarriere*, and arrived at Boston the 15th of November.

Thus was concluded an expedition, in which, though few, perhaps no opportunities occurred for a display of the hardy powers of our sailors, the nation acquired singular honour, in humbling and chastising a race of atrocious pirates, who have long been the inveterate scourges of the Christian world. Independently of the glory thus accruing to the republican name, the probable advantages arising from this sudden and unlooked-for appearance of an American squadron immediately after a war with Great Britain, we think will be manifold. This circumstance will give them an idea of the power and resources of the United States, altogether different from that which they before entertained; and serve to convince them of the danger of provoking their resentment, under any expectation of the destruction of their navy by any power whatever. That the assurance of an immediate war with England was what principally encouraged the Dey of Algiers to commence hostilities against the United States, under a conviction that our little navy would speedily be annihilated, is evident from the following fact. One of the dey's officers one morning insinuated, whether true or false we cannot say, to the British consul at Algiers, that it was his fault that they declared war. "You told us," said he, "that the American navy would be destroyed in six months by you, and now they make war upon us *with two of your own vessels they have taken from you!*"

We are aware that the states of Barbary pay little attention to the faith of treaties, and that they profess a perfect contempt for that code which is called the law of nations, which, they say, was established without their consent, and consequently is not binding on them. We know that the piratical habits of these people are almost unconquerable, and their antipathy to the

Christian name inveterate. But we also know that those whom no obligation can bind, are best restrained by their apprehensions of punishment when they offend. Fear is a potent auxiliary in the attainment of justice, as well as the prevention of offence, and the recollection of a chastisement, when it does not stimulate to revenge, is generally effectual in preventing a repetition of those outrages which brought down the punishment. Without calculating, therefore, on the good faith or the good will of the Barbary states, we cannot but permit ourselves to hope and believe that the late display of our naval force in the Mediterranean, and the prompt energy of the distinguished officer who directed it, will have secured to the United States a lasting peace, unshackled by any degrading compliances on our part, and gained by an honourable exertion of force in a just cause.

Whatever may be the actual advantages resulting from the operations of the American squadron in the Mediterranean, and whether the treaty made by Commodore Decatur will be permanent or not, still there is one thing growing out of it which can never be forgotten by the people of the United States. It is the recollection of having humbled these proud barbarians, that have so long been the terror of the Mediterranean, and the scourge of the Christian name. The prowess of these renowned freebooters has long been connected with the romantic exploits of chivalry, and is associated with our earliest recollections. The Christian knight had always his fiercest encounters, his most desperate struggles with some "*paynim Moor*," and though the reputation of the knight, as well as a due regard to poetic justice, rendered it indispensable that the Christian should triumph, still his triumph was always gained with infinite difficulty. A proof of the opinion long entertained of their prowess is, that they are everywhere represented in the old legends, as of a gigantic stature. It is one of the errors of ignorance, to make the body, rather than the mind, the criterion for heroism; and there is hardly a distinguished champion of the early ages, that was not remarkable for the dimensions of his frame, because it was by this that the writers of romance endeavoured to give to their simple readers a more striking image of strength and ferocity.

Independently of the reputation which the Moorish race sustains in the works of imagination, most familiar in our childhood, they possess also strong claims to historical renown. In Spain, they long maintained a splendid empire, and the

glory of Pelagio, of the Cid Rodrigo, and Gonsalvo, is principally derived from the agency of these heroes in the expulsion of the Moorish kings of Cordova and Grenada. Few have forgotten the fate of Don Sebastian, King of Portugal; and none perhaps are ignorant of the discomfiture of Charles V., who, backed by half the power of Europe, and all the treasures of the new world, invaded Algiers, from whose territory he was driven, after the loss of almost the whole of his army. Another example is that of Louis XIV., who made attempts to humble the pride of these nations, but was never able to gain from them terms so advantageous as those dictated by our commissioners. Nay, even the potent fleet of Lord Nelson failed in a still more recent instance in a similar attempt, after having previously succeeded in others, that were at that time considered almost desperate, but which have since been discovered to have owed their success to the deplorable imbecility and unskilfulness of his opponents.

From the foregoing causes, as well as from the circumstance of their having long been the terror of the mariner, and the scourge of the powers bordering on and navigating the Mediterranean, has arisen that feeling of vague, but overwhelming terror, with which the world has long contemplated these renowned barbarians. This feeling was perhaps stronger in this country, previous to the Tripolitan war, than anywhere else, and we contemplated these poor creatures through the same exaggerated medium we once did, and in some degree still do, more than one nation across the Atlantic. To the gallant navy which first dissolved the enchantment of British superiority, are we indebted for our eman-

cipation from that of Algerine prowess, and for this among other benefits we are indebted to a race of admirable officers, who seemed to be conscious that whatever other men might be, they could not be more than their equals. They seem, indeed, even to have possessed that noblest species of confidence, which is not derived from any idea of what their enemies might be, but of what they themselves really were.

In contemplating what was performed by our small force, conducted as it was with characteristic promptness and energy, we are called upon to compare it with what was done by the most powerful monarchs of Europe, and the comparison is a subject of honest exultation. Perhaps to assume a superiority over these mighty potentates, who occupy so large a space in history, may be called boasting. So let it be. It is by performing such things, that nations become illustrious; and it is by speaking of them as they ought to be spoken of, that courage and enterprise meet their reward, and emulation is awakened from its slumbers. The pride of our hearts is gratified with the knowledge, that while the corsairs laughed at the demands of a superior *European* fleet, carrying the descendants of De Ruyter and Van Tromp, they shrunk beneath the energy of a republican commodore, and gave up what they had never before yielded to any nation. In addition to this, both our pride and our humanity are soled with the conviction that our ships of war, ennobled as they are by many other attributes, have by the late treaty with Algiers, become *sanctuaries*, not like the Catholic and Mahometan churches, for robbers and assassins, but for the oppressed Christian slaves of all nations.

ENGLISH EXPEDITION AGAINST ALGIERS.

DURING the deliberations of the congress at Vienna, a memorial was presented by Sir Sidney Smith to that august body, on the expediency and the means of putting an end to the piracies of the Barbary states. The time he considered as propitious for rooting out a nest of pirates, who not only oppressed the natives in their vicinity, but trepanned and bought them as slaves, to employ them in vessels fitted out as privateers for the purpose of tearing honest cultivators from their homes, and the peaceable inhabitants from the shore of Europe. This system of robbery, so revolting to humanity, operated as a very

formidable restraint on commerce, and subjected the mariners of Christian states navigating the Mediterranean, and the Adriatic seas, to be seized by the pirates, and carried as slaves into Africa. The government of Algiers, he represents as composed of the officers of an orta or regiment of Janizaries—a rebellious soldiery, who do not, even in appearance, acknowledge the authority of the Ottoman Porte, though that power claims from them allegiance. The head of the government, or the dey, as he is called, is always the officer most distinguished among them for cruelty, and his situation at the head of the divan or re-

gency, is held by enriching his associates, by permitting them to indulge in every sort of violence in Africa, and by carrying on a piratical warfare, on the seas, against the weaker states of Europe. The military means hitherto employed by the Christian princes to hold the Barbary states in check, had been found not only inadequate to that purpose, but they generally had the effect to strengthen and consolidate the dangerous power of these barbarians.

To overthrow a power so inimical to the well-being of society, seemed to be a *désireratum* in the policy of Christian princes; and the laudable object of Sir Sidney Smith was to secure Europe for ever from the outrages of the African corsairs, and to cause governments favourable to commerce, and in peace and amity with civilized nations, to succeed to states radically and necessarily piratical ever since the days of Barbarossa.

The close study and investigation of thirty years, much of which time had been spent in an official situation, as the representative of his native country at the court of the Ottoman Porte, or in the camp and the fleets of the same power, and in close intercourse with the natives and tribes of Africa and Asia, had impressed upon the mind of Sir Sidney Smith a firm conviction of the possibility of crushing the system of robbery and outrage acted upon by the Barbary states, and induced him to make to the congress an offer to undertake the direction of the expedition for that purpose, provided the necessary means were placed at his disposal. Animated by the recollection of his oaths of knighthood, and being anxious to excite the same ardour in other Christian knights, he proposed to the nations most interested in the success of this noble enterprise, to engage themselves by a treaty to furnish their respective contingents to a military, or as it might be called an amphibious force, which, without compromising any flag, and without being influenced by wars, or any political crisis incident to nations, should constantly guard the shores of the Mediterranean, and have confided to it the important duty of watching, stopping, and following the pirates, both on the seas and on land. A power so constituted, and recognised and protected by all Europe, would not render commerce perfectly secure, but would eventually civilize the coast of Africa, by prohibiting the inhabitants from continuing their piratical depredations, to the injury of industry and lawful commerce. The ulterior details would, he said, be easily developed, when the sovereigns should have adopted the principle, and when they should deign to grant to the memorialist that confidence and au-

thority which might be requisite for the success of the enterprise.

To this spirited memorial, so consonant with the chivalrous mind of its author, no public answer was returned, nor were any congressional proceedings adopted thereon. Early in the year 1816, instructions were, however, given to Lord Exmouth, the commander of the British squadron on the Mediterranean station, to negotiate treaties with the Barbary states, for prohibiting the making of Christian slaves—and stipulating that such prisoners as might be taken in war should be considered only as prisoners of war. To these proposals the deys at Tunis and Tripoli readily consented; but when the abolition of slavery was urged upon the Dey of Algiers, he requested that six months might be allowed him to obtain the advice and sanction of the Grand Seignior on the question. After much discussion, the term of six was reduced to three months, and through the intervention of the British admiral, a treaty of peace was ultimately concluded between the Kings of Naples and Sardinia and the Dey of Algiers, by which these sovereigns stipulated to pay a ransom to the dey for the release of the Neapolitan and Sardinian slaves at that time in captivity.*

Soon after the treaties were concluded, and while Lord Exmouth was on his return to England, a dreadful massacre of the subjects of Christian states took place at Bona, an African port, under the government of the Dey of Algiers. This sanguinary atrocity was committed on the day of Ascension, on which occasion seven hundred mariners, belonging to the crews of the coral fishing boats, under English and French colours, having landed at Bona to perform their devotions, a vast assemblage of Turks and Bedouins broke into the church, and sacrificed about two hundred of the Christian worshippers to their insatiable fury.

The murders at Bona, which probably originated in an impulse of popular fanaticism over which the government had no control, were succeeded by acts of open piracy, sanctioned by the dey, and directed against the British flag.† Roused to indignation by these enormities, and determined at length to put an end to a system which had so long harassed and scandalized civilized society, the British government determined to visit the lawless barbarians with signal and plenary punish-

* Letter from Lord Exmouth to the King of Naples, dated Algiers, April 6, 1816.

† Letter from P. C. Tupper, his majesty's consul-general at Barcelona, dated May 29, 1816.

ment. For this purpose, the most active preparations were commenced, and on Sunday, the 28th of July, Lord Exmouth set sail from Plymouth for the Mediterranean, with a formidable fleet under his command.* While Lord Exmouth remained at Gibraltar, on his way to the African coast, the Dutch admiral, Capellen, with six frigates under his command, asked and obtained permission to unite his squadron with the British fleet, and this revival of an union offensive and defensive with an ancient ally, was hailed as the harbinger of success.

On the 27th of August the British fleet with its Dutch auxiliaries, arrived before the city of Algiers, and the following documents, written with the spirit of a hero, and the pen of a scholar, will serve to acquaint posterity with the nature and the result of these operations:—

LONDON GAZETTE EXTRAORDINARY.

Admiralty-Office, September 15, 1816.

Captain Brisbane, of his majesty's ship *Queen Charlotte*, arrived at this office last night, with the following despatches from Admiral Lord Exmouth, G. C. B., addressed to John Wilson Croker, Esq.

Queen Charlotte, Algiers Bay, August 28, 1816.

Sir,—In all the vicissitudes of a long life of public service, no circumstance has ever produced on my mind such impressions of gratitude and joy as the event of yesterday. To have been one of the humble instruments, in the hands of Divine Providence, for bringing to reason a ferocious government, and destroying for ever the insufferable and horrid system of Christian slavery, can never cease to be a source of delight and heartfelt comfort to every individual happy enough to be employed in it. I may, I hope, be permitted, under such impressions, to offer my

sincere congratulations to their lordships, on the complete success which attended the gallant efforts of his majesty's fleet in their attack upon Algiers yesterday, and the happy result produced from it on this day by the signature of peace.

Thus has a provoked war of two days' existence been attended by a complete victory, and closed by a renewed peace for England and her ally, the King of the Netherlands, on conditions dictated by the firmness and wisdom of his majesty's government, and commanded by the vigour of our measures.

My thanks are justly due for the honour and confidence his majesty's ministers have been pleased to repose on my zeal on this highly important occasion. The means were by them made adequate to my own wishes, and the rapidity of their measures speak for themselves. Not more than one hundred days since I left Algiers with the British fleet, unsuspecting and ignorant of the atrocities which had been committed at Bon: that fleet, on its arrival in England, was necessarily disbanded, and another, with proportionate resources, created and equipped; and, although impeded in its progress by calms and adverse winds, has poured the vengeance of an insulted nation, in chastising the cruelties of a ferocious government, with a promptitude beyond example, and highly honourable to the national character, eager to resent oppression or cruelty, whenever practised upon those under their protection.

Would to God that, in the attainment of this object, I had not deeply to lament the severe loss of so many gallant officers and men; they have profusely bled in a contest which has been peculiarly marked by proofs of such devoted heroism as would arouse every noble feeling, did I dare indulge in relating them.

Their lordships will already have been informed, by his majesty's ship *Jasper*, of my proceedings up to the 14th instant, on which day I broke ground from Gibraltar, after a vexatious detention by a foul wind of four days.

The fleet, complete in all its points, with the addition of five gun-boats fitted at Gibraltar, departed in the highest spirits, and with the most favourable prospect of reaching the port of their destination in three days; but an adverse wind destroyed the expectation of an early arrival, which was the more anxiously looked for by myself, in consequence of hearing, the day I sailed from Gibraltar, that a large army had been assembled, and that very considerable additional works were throwing up, not only on both flanks of the city, but also immediately about the entrance of the mole; from this, I was apprehensive that my intention of making that point my principal object of attack, had been discovered to the dey by the same means he had heard of the expedition. This intelligence was, on the following night, greatly confirmed by the *Prometheus*, which I had despatched to Algiers some time before, to endeavour to get away the consul. Captain Dashwood had with difficulty succeeded in bringing away, disguised in midshipmen's uniforms, his wife and daughter, leaving a boat to bring off their infant child, coming down in a basket with the surgeon, who thought he had composed it; but it unhappily cried in the gateway, and in consequence, the surgeon, three midshipmen, in all eighteen persons, were seized, and confined as slaves in the usual dungeon. The child was sent off next morning by the dey, and as a solitary instance of his humanity, it ought to be recorded by me.

Captain Dashwood further confirmed, that about 40,000 men had been brought down from the interior, and all the Janissaries called in from distant

* List of the British Fleet despatched against Algiers.

Names.	Guns.	Names.	Guns.
<i>Queen Charlotte</i>	110	<i>Jasour</i>	18
<i>Impregnable</i>	98	<i>Mutine</i>	18
<i>Sesbier</i>	74	<i>Heron</i>	18
<i>Minden</i>	74	<i>Britomart</i>	16
<i>Albion</i>	73	<i>Cordelia</i>	10
<i>Leander</i>	50	<i>Jasper</i>	10
<i>Glasgow</i>	40	<i>Hecle</i> , a bomb	
<i>Severn</i>	40	<i>Infernal</i> do.	
<i>Granicus</i>	36	<i>Belzebub</i> do.	
<i>Hebrus</i>	36	<i>Fury</i> do.	
<i>Thames</i>	32	<i>Carcel</i> do.	
<i>Dover</i>	32	<i>And a brig.</i>	

A company of royal sappers and miners, under Major Gosset and Captain Reid, embarked on board the *Queen Charlotte* and the *Minden*. Fireship boxes were also prepared for each of the ships from Plymouth. The rockets amounted to 3000. All ships under his lordship's orders, had their magazines fitted on Sir W. Congreve's plan; and the whole was in every respect suitably fitted for this particular service. It was also expected that Sir Charles Penrose would join Lord Exmouth, with as many ships as could be spared from the services on the Mediterranean.

parsons, and that they were indefatigably employed in their batteries, gun-boats, &c. and everywhere strengthening the sea-defences.

The dey informed Captain Dashwood he knew perfectly well the armament was destined for Algiers, and asked him if it was true; he replied, if he had such information he knew as much as he did, and probably from the same source—the public prints.

The ships were all in port, and between forty and fifty gun and mortar-boats ready, with several more in forward repair. The dey had closely confined the consul, and refused either to give him up or promise his personal safety; nor would he hear a word respecting the officers and men seized in the boats of the *Prometheus*.

From the continuance of adverse winds and calms, the land to the westward of Algiers was not made before the 26th, and the next morning, at daybreak, the fleet was advanced in sight of the city, though not so near as I had intended. As the ships were becalmed, I embraced this opportunity of despatching a boat, under cover of the *Severn*, with a flag of truce, and the demands I had to make in the name of his royal highness the prince-regent on the Dey of Algiers, (of which he accompanying are copies;) directing the officer to wait two or three hours for the dey's answer, at which time, if no reply was sent, he was to return to the flag-ship. He was met near the mole by the captain of the port, who, on being told the answer was expected in one hour, replied, that it was impossible. The officer then said he would wait two or three hours; he then observed, two hours were quite sufficient.

The fleet at this time, by the springing up of the sea-breeze, had reached the bay, and were repairing the boats and flotilla for service, until near two o'clock, when, observing my officer was returning, with the signal flying that no answer had been received, after a delay of upwards of three hours, I instantly made the signal to know if the ships were all ready, which being answered in the affirmative, the *Queen Charlotte* bore up, followed by the fleet, for their appointed stations; the flag, leading in the prescribed order, was anchored in the entrance of the mole, at about fifty yards distance. At this moment, not a gun had been fired, and I began to suspect a full compliance with the terms, which had been so many hours in their hands. At this period of profound silence, a shot was fired at us from the mole, and two at the ships to the northward, then following. This was promptly returned by the *Queen Charlotte*, who was then lashing to the main-mast of a brig, fast to the shore in the mouth of the mole, and which we had steered for, as the guide to our position.

Thus commenced a fire as animated and well supported, as I believe, was ever witnessed, from quarter before three o'clock until nine, without intermission, and which did not cease altogether until half-past eleven.

The ships immediately following me were admirably and coolly taking their stations, with a precision even beyond my most sanguine hope; and never did the British flag receive, on any occasion, more zealous and honourable support. To look further on the line than immediately round me, was perfectly impossible; but so well grounded was my confidence in the gallant officers I had the honour to command, that my mind was left perfectly free to attend to other objects, and I knew them in their stations only by the destructive effect of their fire upon the walls and batteries to which they were opposed.

I had about this time the satisfaction of seeing

Vice-admiral Van Capellen's flag in the station I had assigned to him, and soon after, at intervals, the remainder of his frigates, keeping up a well-supported fire on the flanking batteries he had offered to cover us from, as it had not been in my power, for want of room, to bring him in the front of the mole.

About sunset, I received a message from Rear-admiral Milne, conveying to me the severe loss the *Impregnable* was sustaining, having then one hundred and fifty killed and wounded, and requesting I would, if possible, send him a frigate to divert some of the fire he was under.

The *Glasgow*, near me, immediately weighed but the wind had been driven away by the cannonade, and she was obliged to anchor again, having obtained rather a better position than before.

I had at this time sent orders to the explosion vessel, under the charge of Lieutenant Fleming and Mr. Parker, by Captain Reade, of the engineers, to bring her into the mole; but the rear-admiral, having thought she would do him essential service if exploded under the battery in his front, I sent orders to this vessel to that effect, which were executed. I desired also the rear-admiral might be informed, that many of the ships being now in flames, and certain of the destruction of the whole, I considered I had executed the most important part of my instructions, and should make every preparation for withdrawing the ships, and desired he would do so as soon as possible with his division.

There were awful moments during the conflict, which I cannot now attempt to describe, occasioned by firing the ships so near us, and I had long resisted the eager entreaties of several around me to make the attempt upon the outer frigate, distant about one hundred yards, which at length I gave in to, and Major Gossett, by my side, who had been eager to land his corps of miners, pressed me most anxiously for permission to accompany Lieutenant Richards in this ship's barge. The frigate was instantly boarded, and in ten minutes in a perfect blaze. A gallant young midshipman, in rocket-boat No. 8, although forbidden, was led by his ardent spirit to follow in support of the barge, in which he was desperately wounded, his brother officer killed, and nine of his crew. The barge, by rowing more rapidly, had suffered less, and lost but two.

The enemy's batteries around my division were about ten o'clock silenced, and in a state of perfect ruin and dilapidation; and the fire of the ships was reserved as much as possible, to save powder and reply to a few guns now and then bearing upon us, although a fort upon the upper angle of the city, on which our guns could not be brought to bear, continued to annoy the ships by shot shells during the whole time.

Providence at this interval gave to my anxious wishes the usual land wind common in this bay, and my expectations were completed. We were all hands employed warping and towing off, and by the help of the light air, the whole were under sail, and came to anchor out of the reach of shells about two in the morning, after twelve hours' incessant labour.

The flotilla of mortar, gun, and rocket-boats, under the direction of their respective artillery officers, shared, to the full extent of their power, in the honours of this day, and performed good service; it was by their fire that all the ships in the port (with the exception of the outer frigate) were in flames; which extended rapidly over the whole arsenal, storehouses, and gun-boats, exhibiting a spectacle of awful grandeur and interest no pen can describe.

The sloops of war which had been appropriated to aid and assist the ships of the line, and prepare for their retreat, performed their duty not only well, but embraced every opportunity of firing through the intervals, and were constantly in motion.

The shells from the bombs were admirably well thrown by the royal marine artillery; and though thrown directly across and over us, not an accident that I know of occurred to any ship.

The whole was conducted in perfect silence, and such a thing as a cheer I never heard in any part of the line; and that the guns were well worked and directed will be seen for many years to come, and remembered by these barbarians for ever.

The conducting of this ship to her station, by the masters of the fleet and ship, excited the praise of all. The former has been my companion in arms for more than twenty years.

Having thus detailed, although but imperfectly, the progress of this short service, I venture to hope, that the humble and devoted services of myself, and the officers and men of every description I have the honour to command, will be received by his royal highness the prince-regent with his accustomed grace. The approbation of our services by our sovereign, and the good opinion of our country, will, I venture to affirm, be received by us all with the highest satisfaction.

If I attempted to name to their lordships the numerous officers, who, in such a conflict, had been at different periods more conspicuous than their companions, I should do injustice to many; and I trust there is no officer in the fleet I have the honour to command, who will doubt the grateful feelings I shall ever cherish for their unbounded and unlimited support. Not an officer nor man confined his exertions within the precise limits of their own duty; all were eager to attempt services which I found more difficult to restrain than excite; and nowhere was this feeling more conspicuous than in my own captain, and those officers immediately about my person. My gratitude and thanks are due to all under my command, as well as to Vice-admiral Capellen, and the officers of the squadron of his majesty the King of the Netherlands; and I trust they will believe, that the recollection of their services will never cease but with my life. In no instance have I ever seen more energy and zeal: from the youngest midshipman to the highest rank, all seemed animated by one soul, and of which I shall with delight bear testimony to their lordships, whenever that testimony can be useful.

I have confided this despatch to Rear-admiral Milne, my second in command, from whom I have received, during the whole service intrusted to me, the most cordial and honourable support. He is perfectly informed of every transaction of the fleet, from the earliest period of my command, and is fully competent to give their lordships satisfaction on any point which I may have overlooked or have not time to state. I trust I have obtained from him his esteem and regard, and I regret I had not sooner been known to him.

The necessary papers, together with the defects of the ships, and the return of killed and wounded, accompany this despatch; and, I am happy to say, Captains Ekins and Coode are doing well, as also the whole of the wounded. By accounts from the shore, I understand the enemy's loss in killed and wounded, is between six and seven thousand men.

In recommending my officers and fleet to their lordship's protection and favour, I have the honour to be, &c.

EXMOUTH.

A General Abstract of the killed and wounded, in the squadron under Lord Exmouth's command, in the attack of Algiers, the 27th of August, 1816.

Total.—15 officers, 88 seamen, 19 marines, 1 marine artillery, 1 rocket troop, 4 boys, killed; 59 officers, 459 seamen, 106 marines, 5 marine artillery, 14 sappers and miners, 4 rocket troop, 31 boys, 12 supernumeraries, wounded.

Total killed and wounded—128 killed, 690 wounded.

DUTCH SQUADRON.—Total—13 killed, 53 wounded.

Flotilla, consisting of 5 gun-boats, 10 mortar-boats, launches, 8 rocket-boats, flats, 32 gun-boats, barges and yawls; total 55:—the whole commanded by Captain F. T. Mitchell, assisted by Lieutenant John Davies, of the Queen Charlotte, and Lieutenant Thomas Revans, flag-lieutenant to Rear-admiral Milne.

Memorandum of the destruction in the Mole of Algiers, in the attack of the 27th of August, 1816.

Four large frigates, of 44 guns; five large corvettes, from 24 to 30; all the gun and mortar boats, except 7; 30 destroyed; several merchant brigs and schooners; a great number of small vessels of various descriptions; all the pontoons, lighters, &c.; storehouses and arsenal, with all the timber and various marine articles destroyed in part; a great many gun-carriages, mortar-beds, casks, and ships' stores of all descriptions.

His Britannic Majesty's ship Queen Charlotte, Algiers Bay, August 28th, 1816.

Sir,—For your atrocities at Bona on defenceless Christians, and your unbecoming disregard to the demands I made yesterday, in the name of the Prince-regent of England, the fleet under my orders has given you a signal chastisement, by the total destruction of your navy, storehouses, and arsenal, with half your batteries.

As England does not war for the destruction of cities, I am unwilling to visit your personal cruelties upon the inoffensive inhabitants of the country, and I therefore offer you the same terms of peace which I conveyed to you yesterday, in my sovereign's name; without the acceptance of these terms, you can have no peace with England.

If you receive this offer as you ought, you will fire three guns; and I shall consider your not making this signal as a refusal, and shall renew my operations at my own convenience.

I offer you the above terms, provided neither the British consul, nor the officers and men so wickedly seized by you from the boats of a British ship of war, have met with any cruel treatment, or any of the Christian slaves in your power: and I repeat my demand, that the consul and officers and men, may be sent off to me, conformable to ancient treaties.

(Signed)

EXMOUTH.

To his highness the Dey of Algiers.

Queen Charlotte, Algiers Bay, August 30th, 1816.

General Memorandum.—The commander-in-chief is happy to inform the fleet of the final termination of their strenuous exertions, by the signature of peace, confirmed under a salute of twenty-one guns, on the following conditions, dictated by his royal highness the Prince-regent of England.

I. The abolition, for ever, of Christian slavery.

II. The delivery to my flag, of all slaves in the dominion of the dey, to whatever nation they may belong, at noon to-morrow.

III. To deliver also, to my flag, all money received by him for the redemption of slaves since

the commencement of this year, at noon also to-morrow.

IV. Reparation has been made to the British consul for all losses he may have sustained in consequence of his confinement.

V. The dey has made a public apology, in presence of his ministers and officers, and begged pardon of the consul, in terms dictated by the captain of the Queen Charlotte.

The commander-in-chief takes this opportunity of again returning his public thanks to the admirals, captains, officers, seamen, marines, royal marine artillery, royal sappers and miners, and the royal rocket corps, for the noble support he has received from them throughout the whole of this arduous service; and he is pleased to direct, that on Sunday next a public thanksgiving be offered up to Almighty God for the signal interposition of his Divine Providence, during the conflict which took place on the 27th, between his majesty's fleet and the ferocious enemies of mankind.

It is requested that this memorandum may be read to the ships' companies.

To the admirals, captains, officers, seamen, marines, royal sappers and miners, royal marine artillery, and the royal rocket corps.

Queen Charlotte, Algiers Bay, Sept. 1, 1816.

Sir,—I have the honour to acquaint you, for their lordships' information, that I have sent Captain Brisbane with my duplicate despatches, as I am afraid that Admiral Milne, in the *Leander*, who has charge of the originals, may experience a long voyage, the wind having set in to the westward a few hours after he sailed.

Captain Brisbane, to whom I feel greatly indebted for his exertions, and the able assistance I have received from him throughout the whole of this service, will be able to inform their lordships upon all points that I may have omitted.

Admiral Sir Charles Penrose arrived too late to take his share in the attack upon Algiers, which I lament, as much on his account as my own; his services would have been desirable in every respect.

I have the satisfaction to state, that all the slaves in the city of Algiers, and immediately in its vicinity, are embarked: as also 357,000 dollars for Naples, and 25,500 for Sardinia. The treaties will be signed to-morrow: and I hope to be able to sail in a day or two.

The *Mindon* has sailed for Gibraltar to be refitted, and will proceed from thence to her ultimate destination.

The *Albion* will be refitted at Gibraltar, for the reception of Sir Charles Penrose's flag. The

Glasgow I shall be obliged to bring home with me.

I have the honour, &c. EXMOUTH
To John Wilson Croker, Esq. &c. Admiralty.

In addition to the above despatches of Lord Exmouth, further particulars were received at the Admiralty office, September 24th, 1816, conveyed from his lordship by Rear-admiral Milne, K. C. B. detailing the subsequent proceedings, of which the following is the substance:—

On the 28th of August, treaties of peace were signed by the dey with his majesty and his majesty the King of the Netherlands. On the same day, also, was signed an additional article of declaration, for the abolition of Christian slavery to the following effect:—

DECLARATION

Of his most serene highness Omar, bashaw, dey, and governor of the warlike city and kingdom of Algiers, made and concluded with the right honourable Edward Baron Exmouth, knight grand cross of the most honourable military order of the Bath, admiral of the blue squadron of his Britannic majesty's fleet, and commander-in-chief of his said majesty's ships and vessels employed in the Mediterranean.

"In consideration of the deep interest manifested by his royal highness the Prince-regent of England for the termination of Christian slavery, his highness the Dey of Algiers, in token of his sincere desire to maintain inviolable his friendly relations with Great Britain, and to manifest his amicable disposition and high respect towards the powers of Europe, declares, that in the event of future wars with any European power, not any of the prisoners shall be consigned to slavery, but treated with all humanity, as prisoners of war, until regularly exchanged, according to European practice in like cases; and that at the termination of hostilities they shall be restored to their respective countries without ransom; and the practice of condemning Christian prisoners of war to slavery is hereby formally and for ever renounced."

Done in duplicate, in the warlike city of Algiers, in the presence of Almighty God, 28th day of August, in the year of Jesus Christ, 1816, and in the year of the Hegira, 1231, and the 6th day of the moon *Shawal*.

(The Dey's seal.)

(Signed) EXMOUTH, (L. S.)
Admiral, and Commander-in-chief
(Signed) H. M'DOUGALL, (L. S.)

By command of the admiral,
(Signed) JOS. GRIMES, Secretary.



INDEX AND ANALYSIS.

The numeral Letters indicate the Volume, and the Figures the Page.

McCrombie, General, commands under the Duke of York, i 113. Appointed commander-in-chief in Ireland during the rebellion of 1798, i 250. Commands the expedition to Holland in 1799, i 304. Commands the British army in Egypt, i 378. Receives a mortal wound near Alexandria, i 379. *Acce*, memorable siege of, i 296—300.

Addington, Mr. resigns his office as speaker, i 369. Appointed prime minister, 368. Resigns this office, and is called to the house of peers under the title of Lord Viscount Sidmouth, i 500.

Adolphus, Prince, wounded at Dunkirk, i 100.

Albuquerque, Duke of, Cadiz saved by the rapid march of, ii 128. Appointed governor of Cadiz, *ibid*.

Albuera, battle of, i 175.

Alexander, ascends the throne of Russia, i 373. Engaged in war with France, i 513. Interview with Napoleon on the Niemen, i 601. Acknowledges the Confederation of the Rhine, i 602. Indignant at the British attack upon neutral Denmark, ii 30. Conference of, with Napoleon at Erfurt, ii 59. Again at war with France, ii 212. Proclamation of, at the commencement of the Russian campaign of 1812, ii 213. On the occupation of Moscow by the French army, ii 226. On the close of the campaign, ii 244. Letter to the widow of Prince Kutusoff, ii 302. To the widow of General Moreau, ii 304. First entry of into Paris, ii 333. Declaration of, that the allies will not treat again with Napoleon, ii 334. Convoles the French Senate, *ibid*. Pledges himself to an unconditional release of all the French prisoners in Russia, ii 335. Visit of, to England, ii 354. Repairs to the Congress at Vienna, ii 360. Second arrival in Paris, ii 502. Party to the Holy League, ii 522.

Algiers, expedition against, appendix, ii 569—579.

Alvazzi, General, placed at the head of the Austrian army in Italy, i 184. Defeated by Massena, i 185.

Amboyna, carried by a coup-de-main, ii 144.

Amelia, Princess, death of, ii 145.

America, United States of, treaty of amity and commerce with, i 174. Differences with France, i 189. Prosperous situation of, i 569. Discussions with Great Britain, ii 32. Irritated by the attack on the Chesapeake frigate, ii 31. Points in dispute with England, ii 32. Interdiction of British ships of war, *ibid*. Embargo law, ii 34. State of parties, ii 79. Conditional proposition to rescind the embargo, *ibid*. Rejected by Great Britain, *ibid*. Discussions with Great Britain in 1809, ii 115. Arrangement with Mr. Erskine, *ibid*. Rescinded by the British Government, ii 204. Non-importation act, ii 202. Relations with Great Britain approach to a state of actual hostility, *ibid*. Henry's mission, ii 203.

War declared by, against Great Britain, ii 204. Causes of the war stated, ii 365. State of

parties, ii 366. Invasion of British Canada in 1812 ii 368. Surrender of General Hull, ii 369.

Amherst, Lord, resigns the office of commander-in-chief of the British forces, in favour of the Duke of York, i 175.

Amiens, treaty of, i 389.

Angoulême, Duke of, repairs to the south of France, ii 322. Invited to the head-quarters of the Duke of Wellington, *ibid*. Enthusiastic reception of, at Bordeaux, ii 323. Commands in the South of France, ii 439. Made prisoner, allowed to quit France, ii 440.

Anspach, neutrality of, violated by the French army, i 518.

Artois, Count de, as the representative of Louis XVIII. makes his public entry into Paris, ii 340.

Aspern, battle of, ii 93.

Assassination of the French plenipotentiaries near Radstadt, i 379.

Assignats, fabricated by order of the National Convention, i 111.

Auchmuty, Sir Samuel, carries Monte Video by assault, ii 23.

Auckland, Lord, memorial of, to the States-general, i 141.

Augustenburg, Crown-prince of Sweden, death of, ii 149.

Austria declares war against France, i 39. Manifesto of, i 41. Critical situation of the monarchy, i 358. Coalition of, with Russia and England against France, i 516. Offer of mediation to effect a general peace, ii 74. Declined by Great Britain, *ibid*. Recalls her minister from London, ii 75. Prepares for war with France, ii 90. Campaign of 1809, ii 91. Forms a family alliance with the Emperor Napoleon, ii 150. Negotiates an armistice between France and the allies, ii 282. Declares war against France, ii 284.

Bagnration, Prince, hazardous march of, to form a junction with the first division of the Russian army, ii 214. Cuts a passage through the French ranks, ii 216.

Bailly, M. elected mayor of Paris on the breaking out of the revolution, i 25. Executed during the reign of terror, i 110.

Baird, Sir David, debarks with a British force in the north of Spain, ii 69. Desperately wounded in the battle of Corunna, ii 72.

Ballasteros refuses to obey the orders of Lord Wellington, ii 189. Superseded, arrested, and exiled, *ibid*.

Baltimore, tumult in, on the breaking out of the late war with Great Britain, ii 366.

Bank of England, prohibited from making cash payments, i 212. Situation of, *ibid*.

Bank of Vienna, suspends cash payments, i 213.

Bantry Bay, appearance of the French fleet off i 188.

Barras, elected a member of the French Directory, i 168. Patronizes Bonaparte, i 180. Enlled, i 339.

- Barclay de Tolly*, General, commands the Russian army in the early part of the campaign of 1812, ii 214. Superseded by Prince Kutusoff, ii 220. Again assumes the command of the Russians, ii 279.
- Barroca*, battle of, ii 179.
- Barthelemy*, elected a member of the French Directory, i 219. Deported, i 221.
- Bassano*, Duke of, letter to Lord Castlereagh, ii 202.
- Bastille*, French, captured and destroyed by the citizens of Paris, i 24. First anniversary of the destruction of this fortress celebrated in the Champ de Mars, i 28. Second anniversary, i 39.
- Battle of Gemappe*, i 62.
- of Fleurus, i 115.
 - of Novi, i 285.
 - of Zurich, i 287.
 - of Aboukir, i 301.
 - of Heliopolis, i 350.
 - of Marengo, i 354.
 - of Hohenlinden, i 358.
 - of Ulm, i 519.
 - of Austerlitz, i 526.
 - of Maida, i 576.
 - of Jena, i 585.
 - of Pultusk, i 591.
 - of Eylau, i 594.
 - of Friedland, i 599.
 - of Vimiera, ii 66.
 - of Corunna, ii 72.
 - of Eckmuhl, ii 92.
 - of Ratisbon, ii 92.
 - of Aspern, ii 93.
 - of Wagram, ii 98.
 - of Talavera, ii 122.
 - of Busaco, ii 131.
 - of Albuera, ii 175.
 - of Salamanca, ii 186.
 - of Smolensk, ii 219.
 - of Borodino, ii 221.
 - of Vittoria, ii 260.
 - of the Pyrenees, ii 265.
 - of Lutzen, ii 277.
 - of Bautzen, ii 279.
 - of the Katzbach, ii 286.
 - of Dresden, ii 287.
 - of Leipzig, ii 292.
 - of Brienne, ii 309.
 - of La Rothiere, ii 310.
 - of Craonne, ii 317.
 - of Laon, ii 318.
 - of Orlhes, ii 321.
 - of Toulouse, ii 338.
 - of New Orleans, ii 409.
 - of Waterloo, ii 463.
- Battle (naval) of the 1st of June*, i 126.
- of St. Vincent, i 204.
 - of Camperdown, i 205.
 - of the Nile, i 230.
 - of Copenhagen, i 370.
 - of Algiers, i 386.
 - of Trafalgar, i 534.
- Bavaria*, treaty of cession with France, i 385.
- Deserts* Napoleon, ii 291.
- Bautzen*, battle of, ii 279.
- Brauarnois*, Eugene, appointed Viceroy of Italy, i 515. Created heir-apparent of the kingdom of Italy, ii 78.
- Beckett*, Brigade-major, killed at Talavera, ii 124.
- Bed of Justice*, held to register the edicts of the French King, i 19.
- Bell*, Dr. system of education of, ii 171.
- Bellingham*, John, assassinates Mr. Perceval, ii 195. Trial and execution of, ii 196.
- Bentinck*, Lord William, appointed to the command of the Anglo-Sicilian Army in Spain, ii 264. Retreat of, before Suchet, *ibid*.
- Berbec* surrenders to the British, i 451.
- Beresford*, Marshal, commands the allies at the battle of Albuera, ii 175.
- Beresina*, passage of the, by the French army, ii 237.
- Berlin*, entered by Napoleon, i 587. Decree issued at, i 589. Copy of, ii 35.
- Bernard*, Great St. passage of, i 352.
- Bernadotte*, Marshal of France, elected Crown-prince of Sweden, ii 149. Takes the field against Napoleon, ii 285. Liberates Hanover, ii 300. Letter to his son, *ibid*.
- Berthier*, Marshal, created Prince of Neufchatel, i 581. Death of, ii 445. Biographical notice of, *ibid*.
- Bertrand*, Marshal, constructs the bridges over the Danube, ii 97. Accompanies Napoleon to Elba, ii 341. Attends him on board the *Bellerophon*, ii 504. Shares his second exile, ii 507.
- Besieres*, Marshal, fall of, ii 277. Biographical notice, ii 302.
- Blake*, General, ingloriously defeated, ii 121. Termination of his career, ii 182.
- Blois*, Regency Government of, ii 335. Dissolved, ii 340.
- Blucher*, General, able retreat of, after the battle of Jena, i 584. Pursuit of the French after the battle of Leipzig, ii 297. Visits England, a 354. Proclamation of, at the commencement of the Belgic campaign, ii 455. Imminent danger of, ii 461. Critical arrival at the battle of Waterloo, ii 471. Pursues the French army, ii 473. Arrival of under the walls of Paris, ii 497. Enters that city, ii 500.
- Bonaparte*, Napoleon, first distinguished himself at the siege of Toulon, i 105. Appointed to the chief command of the army in Italy, i 179. Preliminary biographical notice of, *ibid*. Letter to the pope, i 197. Triumphant reception at Paris, i 200. Embarks at the head of a formidable expedition for Egypt, i 225. Arrival in Egypt, i 226. Visits the pyramids, i 228. Professes a veneration for the religion of Mahomet, i 291. Marches against Syria, i 293. Repulsed at Acro, i 296. Returns to Egypt, i 299. Quits his army, and returns to France, i 302. Usurps the government of France, i 328. Appointed first consul, i 332. Letter to the King of England, i 335. Elected President of the Italian Republic, i 404. Appointed consul for life, i 406. Elevated to the imperial dignity, i 493. Crowned by the pope, i 496.
- Emperor of France, letter of, to the King of England, i 514. Elected King of Italy, i 515. Crowned at Milan, *ibid*. Interview with the Emperor of Austria after the battle of Austerlitz, i 529. Declared Protector of the Confederation of the Rhine, i 579. Interview with Alexander on the Niemen, i 601. Efforts to exclude England from the Continent, ii 31. Meets Alexander at Erfurth, ii 59. Places himself at the head of the French army, and advances to Madrid, ii 60. Meets the Archduke Charles in battle for the first time, and defeats him, ii 92. Divorced from the Empress Josephine, ii 100. Demands the daughter of the Emperor Francis in marriage, i 150. Matrimonial alliance with the archduchess Maria Louisa, *ibid*. Rapid advances towards absolute power, ii 151. Enters upon the Russian campaign, ii 212. Advances to Moscow, ii 223. Commences his disastrous retreat, ii 229. Quits the wreck of his army, and repairs to Paris, ii 240. Altered tone of, ii 271. Reconciliation with the pope, ii 272. Appoints the empress regent, *ibid*. Quits Paris, and places himself at the head of his army in Germany, ii 276. Returns to Paris at the conclusion of the disastrous campaign of 1813, ii 297. Places himself at the head of his army in 1814, ii 309. Prodigious exertions during the cam-

paign, ii 310. Arrival at Fontainebleau on the night of the surrender of Paris, ii 332. Despatches Caulincourt to Paris to negotiate a peace with the allies, i 333. Proposes to abdicate in favour of his infant son, ii 336. Failure of the negotiation, *ibid.* Act of abdication, *ibid.* Treaty with the allied powers, ii 336.

Bonaparte, Emperor of Elba. Farewell address to his guards, i 341. Departure from Fontainebleau, *ibid.* Journey from Fontainebleau to Frejus, ii 428. Arrival in Elba, ii 429. Conduct in that island, *ibid.* Dissatisfied with his residence, ii 430. Meditates his return to France, *ibid.* Embarks for France, ii 432. Lands in the Gulf of Juan, ii 433. Triumphant march from the coast to the capital, ii 433—439. Reascends the throne of France, ii 439.

Second reign of, ii 443. Letter to the Sovereigns of Europe announcing his return, *ibid.* Its reception, ii 444. Efforts to unite all parties and classes of French subjects, ii 446. Quits Paris, and places himself at the head of the army, ii 456. Defeated in the battle of Waterloo, ii 473. Returns to Paris after the battle, ii 486. Abdicates the throne in favour of his son, ii 490. Quits Paris for Rochefort, ii 493. Arrives on the coast, ii 502. Casts himself upon the generosity of the British nation, ii 504. Received on board the Bellerophon with his suite, *ibid.* Determination of the British cabinet to exile him to St. Helena, ii 505. His protest, ii 506. Removed on board the Northumberland, ii 507. Sails for St. Helena, *ibid.*

Second exile of. Arrival at St. Helena, ii 507. Character of the fallen Emperor, ii 508.

Bonaparte, Josephine, matrimonial alliance with Napoleon, i 180. Coronation of, i 497. Voluntary divorce of, ii 100.

Bonaparte, Jerome, recognised as King of Westphalia, i 602. Driven from his throne, ii 289.

Bonaparte, Joseph, French ambassador at Rome, i 223. Retires from that city, *ibid.* Invades Naples, i 574. Declared King of Naples, i 592. Arrival of, at Bayonne, ii 57. Proclaimed King of Spain, *ibid.* Crowned at Madrid, *ibid.* Flight of, from that capital, *ibid.* Again in possession of Madrid, ii 62. Forced a second time to evacuate the seat of government, ii 188. Once more in possession of Madrid, ii 190. Abandons the capital finally, ii 260. Sustains a signal defeat at Vittoria, ii 261. Expelled from Spain, ii 262. Commands the French troops in Paris, ii 329. Quits his army, ii 325.

Bonaparte, Louis, proclaimed King of Holland, i 561. Abdication of, ii 152.

Bonaparte, Lucien, takes a distinguished part of the Revolution of the 19th Brumaire, i 328. Urges Napoleon after the battle of Waterloo to assume the office of dictator, ii 487. Proposes to the chamber of peers to take an oath of fidelity to Napoleon II. ii 491.

Bonaparte, Napoleon Francis Charles Joseph, King of Rome, birth of, ii 159. Appointed successor to the French throne, ii 272. Created Prince of Parma, ii 336. Equivocal reign of, ii 492. *Bonnier*, assassination of, i 279.

Borodino, battle of, ii 221.

Bourdeaux, counter-revolution at, ii 114.

Bourbon, island of, captured by the British, ii 144.

Bourbon, Duke of, obliged to quit France, ii 440. *Brazils*, Rio Janeiro made the seat of the Portuguese government, ii 44.

Bridport, Admiral, victory off L'Orient, i 168.

Brisot, the head of the Gironde party, i 31. Proscribed, i 95. Executed, i 110.

British subjects, detention of, in France, i 454. *Bruys*, French admiral, gallant conduct and death of, i 231.

Brun, J. E., appointed third consul, i 333.

Brune, General, extinguishes the rebellion in La Vendee, i 347. Elevated to the rank of marshal, ii 79. Attacked by a mob at Avignon, ii 531. Destroys himself, *ibid.*

Brunswick, Duke of, invested with the command of the allied armies, i 39. His manifesto, *ibid.* Additional declaration, i 40. Resigns the command of the allied army, i 103. Mortally wounded in the battle of Jena, i 566. Biographical notice, *ibid.*

Brunswick Oels, Duke of, embarks for England, ii 97. Falls in the battle of Quatre Bras, ii 459.

Buenos Ayres, captured by the British troops, i 567. Commercial speculations to, *ibid.* Falls again into the hands of the enemy, i 568. British expeditions against, ii 23. Disastrous result, ii 25.

Burgos, siege of, ii 189.

Burke, Edmund, death of, i 217. Biography, *ibid.*

Burdett, Sir Francis, motion of, for the liberation of John Gale Jones, ii 137. Publishes his speech with a letter to his constituents, *ibid.* Committed to the Tower for a breach of privilege, ii 138. Agitation in the capital thereon, ii 139. Grand procession prepared to celebrate his release, ii 140. Quits the Tower privately, *ibid.* Brings action against the speaker, *ibid.* Privileges of parliament admitted by the judges, *ibid.*

Busaco, battle of, ii 131.

Cadix, threatened by a British armament, i 361. Besieged by the French, ii 128. Siege raised, ii 188. *Castro*, insurrection at, i 292.

Cadix, Sir Robert, engages the French fleet off Cape Finisterre with dubious success, i 532. Censured by a court-martial, i 533.

Calonne, De, comptroller-general, i 18.

Cambaceres appointed second consul, i 333.

Campaign of 1792—Command of the allied Austrian and Prussian armies conferred on the Duke of Brunswick, i 39. Opening of the campaign, i 47. Surrender of Longwy, Verdun, and Stenay, to the allies, *ibid.* Dumouriez takes the command of the French army, and advances upon Stenay, i 49. French position forced by the Prussians, i 50. Retreat of the French army to St. Menehould, i 51. Thionville invested by the Austrians, i 52. Sufferings of the allies from disease and famine, i 53. Oath of allegiance to the Republic administered to the French army, i 54. Armistice, i 55. Rupture of, *ibid.* Retreat of the Prussians from Champagne, i 56. Deplorable situation of the allies, *ibid.* Capture of Spire by the French under General Custine, i 59. Surrender of Worms, *ibid.* Savoy overrun by the French, i 60. Lisle invested by the allies, i 61. Siege raised, *ibid.* Battle of Gemappe, i 62. Flanders laid open to the French, i 63. Custine evacuates Frankfort, *ibid.* Dumouriez repairs to Paris, i 64.

— of 1793.—Irruption of the French troops into Holland, i 81. Defeated in Flanders, i 83. Retreat from Holland, *ibid.* Prince Cobourg appointed to the command of the Austrian army, *ibid.* Battle of Nerwinden, i 84. War declared by the German states against France, *ibid.* Dumouriez opens a negotiation with the allies, i 85. Abandons his army, i 87. Succeeded by General Dampierre, i 90. Arrival of the Duke of York with a reinforcement of British and Hanoverian troops at the camp of Maastricht, i 91. Battle of Famars, *ibid.* Valenciennes carried, i 92. The British army driven from before Dunkirk, i 100. Quosnoy taken by the Austrians, i 101. General Jourdan invested with the chief command of the

French army, i 101. Deputies appointed by the convention to head the French columns, *ibid.* Actions at Maubeuge and at Marchiennes, *ibid.* Disasters of the French on the Rhine, i 102. Pichegru and Hoche appointed generals in the French army, *ibid.* Their successes, *ibid.* Enthusiasm of the republican troops, i 103. Spain entered by the French, *ibid.* Expedition against Sardinia, *ibid.* The city and fleet of Toulon delivered into the hands of the English, i 104. Toulon besieged and carried by the republican troops, i 105. Cruel treatment of the inhabitants, i 107.

Campaign, of 1794, opening of, i 111. Operations of the British army under the Duke of York, i 113. Fall of Landrecies, *ibid.* The French defeat the Austrians and penetrate into West Flanders, i 114. Austrian camp at Belgienne stormed, i 115. Battle of Fleurus, *ibid.* Retreat of the British army, i 116. Repulse of the French army at Alout and Malines, *ibid.* Retreat of the allies into Holland, *ibid.* Brussels entered by the French army, *ibid.* Quennoy and Valenciennes recaptured by the French, i 117. Pichegru prepares to attack Holland, i 118. Antwerp and Namur abandoned by the Austrians, i 117. Defeat of General Clairfait, *ibid.* Coblenz and Sliups captured by General Moreau, i 118. The British army driven across the Meuse, *ibid.* Fall of Maastricht and Nimègue, i 119. Passage of the Waal by the French army, under favour of a severe frost, i 120. Retreat of the British army from Holland into Westphalia, i 123. Holland overrun by the French army under Pichegru, *ibid.* Operations on the Rhine, *ibid.* The French camp surprised by the Prussians, *ibid.* Series of actions, i 123. Disunion of the allies, *ibid.* The Prussian army retires to Mentz, *ibid.* Indications of the approaching dissolution of the coalition, *ibid.* Operations on the side of the Pyrenees, and in Italy, i 124. State of the Vendean war, *ibid.* Retrospect of the campaign, i 155. Dissolution of the first coalition against France, *ibid.*

— of 1795 opened, i 162. The French army cross the Rhine, i 163. Success of the Austrians, *ibid.* Armistice between the French and the Austrian armies, i 164. Campaign in Italy, *ibid.*

— of 1796, opened in Italy under the command of General Bonaparte, i 179. Victorious career of the French army, i 180. Oration of Bonaparte to his soldiers, i 181. Sardinia, Parma, and Modena, sue for peace, i 182. Surrender of paintings by Parma and Modena, *ibid.* Passage of the bridge of Lodi, *ibid.* Continued success of the French, who seize Leghorn, enter the Ecclesiastical States, and oblige Pope Pius VI. to sue for an armistice, i 183. The Austrians, under Marshal Wurmsier, shut up in Mantua, i 184. The emperor assembles a new army in Italy, under General Alvinzi, *ibid.* Defeat of General Alvinzi, i 185. Operations in Germany, *ibid.* The French army cross the Rhine and advance into Germany, under Moreau and Jourdan, *ibid.* Successful career of the French armies arrested by the Archduke Charles, i 186. Defeated, *ibid.* Jourdan's army seized with panic, *ibid.* Moreau's critical situation and memorable retreat, *ibid.* Germany freed from the French armies, i 187.

— of 1797, in Italy, i 195. Disasters of the Austrians, *ibid.* Success of the French arms in the hereditary dominions of Austria, i 197. Suspension of arms, i 193. Treaty of Loeben, *ibid.* Operations on the Rhine, *ibid.* Venetian territories conquered by France, i 200. Definitive treaty of Campo Formio, *ibid.* Retrospect of the events of the war, i 210.

— of 1798, in Egypt, i 225. Alexandria

carried by assault, i 227. Rosetta taken, *ibid.* Battle of Chebreise, *ibid.* Proclamations of Bonaparte, i 228. Cairo opens its gates to the French, *ibid.*

Campaign of 1799.—Renewal of the war between France and the allies, i 278. Operations on the Rhine, *ibid.* In Switzerland, i 279. In Italy, i 280. Arrival of the Russians under Marshal Suworow, who assumes the chief command, i 281. Success of the allies, *ibid.* Turin and Mantua surrender to the allies, *ibid.* Dimensions in the courts and camps of the allies, i 285. Operations in Switzerland, *ibid.* Defeat of the allies, i 287. Retreat of the Russians, i 288. Termination of the campaign, i 290. Operations in Egypt, *ibid.* System of civil government introduced by Bonaparte, i 291. Expedition into Upper Egypt, i 292. War carried into Syria, i 293. Fall of Jaffa, i 294. Siege of Acre, i 296. Raised, i 299. Retreat of the French army across the Desert, i 300. Battle of Aboukir, i 301. Return of Bonaparte to Europe, i 302. Operations in Holland, i 303. Invasion of that country by the English under Sir Ralph Abercrombie, *ibid.* Russian co-operation, i 305. The Duke of York assumes the command, *ibid.* Action at Bergen, i 306. Battles of Alkmaar and Baccum, i 307. Failure of the expedition, i 308.

— of 1800. Operations in Egypt, i 347. Signal defeat of the Turks by the French at Heliopolis, i 349. Cairo surrenders to the French, *ibid.* Operations in Italy, i 350. French army of reserve assembled at Dijon, i 351. Passage of the Great St. Bernard by Bonaparte, i 353. Action of Montebello, i 354. Battle of Marengo, i 355. Armistice, i 356. Operations on the Danube, i 357. Preliminary treaty of peace signed at Paris, i 358. Ratification refused by Austria, *ibid.* Hostilities renewed, *ibid.* Battle of Hohenlinden, *ibid.* Treaty of Luneville, i 359.

— of 1801.—Operations in Egypt, i 375. Arrival of a British armament, i 376. Events of the campaign, i 377—384. Final expulsion of the French army, *ibid.*

— of 1806.—Napoleon places himself at the head of the army, i 517. Advances to the Danube, i 518. Battle of Ulm, i 519. Junction of the Russian and the Austrian armies, i 520. Advance of the French army to Vienna, i 521. Operations in Italy, i 522. In the Voralberg and the Tyrol, i 523. Preparations for a general battle in Moravia, i 525. Battle of Austerlitz, i 526. Russian army permitted to retreat unmolested, i 529. Peace of Presburg, i 530.

— of 1806.—Preparations for war between France and Prussia, i 583. Operations in Prussia, *ibid.* Battle of Jena, i 584. Its decisive character, i 587. Advance of the French to Berlin, i 588. Russian army arrives on the Vistula, i 590. Battle of Pultusk, i 591. The armies in Poland go into winter quarters, *ibid.* Operations in Silesia, i 592.

— of 1807, i 594. Battle of Eylau, *ibid.* Of Friedland, i 599. Suspension of arms, i 601. Treaty of Tilsit, *ibid.* Operations in South America, ii 23.

— of 1808.—Operations in Spain at the breaking out of the revolution, ii 53. In Portugal, ii 63. Battle of Vimiera, ii 66. Operations under Sir John Moore, ii 69—74. (See Spain and Portugal.)

— of 1809.—Commencement of hostilities between France and Austria, ii 90. Passage of the Inn by the Archduke Charles, ii 91. Napoleon places himself at the head of the French army, *ibid.* Battle of Eckmühl, ii 92. Of Ratisbon, *ibid.* Advance of the French army to the gates of Vienna, *ibid.* Fall of that capital, ii 93.

Battle of Aspern, ii 93. Bridges over the Danube destroyed, ii 94. Operations in Poland and in Italy, ii 96. Ostentatious preparations for repairing the bridges of the Danube, ii 97. Skilful manoeuvre of Napoleon, ii 98. Decisive battle of Wagram, *ibid.* Treaty of Presburg, ii 99. Operations continued in the Tyrol, ii 100. Resistance overcome, *ibid.* British expedition to the Scheldt, ii 116. Failure of, ii 117.

Campaign in Spain and Portugal (See Spain and Portugal.)

— of 1812 in Russia. (See Russia.)

— of 1813.—The allied armies enter Saxony, ii 273. Operations in the north of Germany, ii 275. Napoleon places himself at the head of the French army, ii 276. Battle of Lutzen, ii 277. Retreat of the allies, ii 279. Advance of the French army to Dresden, *ibid.* Battle of Bautzen, ii 279. Armistice, ii 282. Rupture of, ii 283. Battle of the Katsbach, ii 286. Of Dresden, ii 287. Action at Juterbock, ii 288. Defeat of Vandamme's division, *ibid.* The French army quits Dresden and enters Leipzig, ii 291. Battle of Leipzig, ii 292. Retreat of the French army, ii 296. Solemn entry of the allied sovereigns into Leipzig, ii 297. Blücher mistakes the route of Napoleon, *ibid.* Defeat of the Bavarians by the French, *ibid.* The French army quit Germany and pass into France, *ibid.* Operations in the north of Germany, ii 300. Effects of "the campaign of the liberties of Europe," ii 301.

— of 1814.—Declaration of the allied powers, ii 305. The allies cross the Rhine, ii 308. The French armies fall back towards the capital, *ibid.* Congress assembled at Chatillon at the instance of Napoleon, ii 309. Hostilities continue during the negotiations, *ibid.* Napoleon places himself at the head of his army, *ibid.* Marshal Blücher and Prince Schwartzemberg advance with the two grand divisions of the allied armies towards the capital, ii 312. Extraordinary efforts of Napoleon, ii 315. Various successes of the adverse armies, *ibid.* Failure of the negotiations, ii 318. Treaty of Chaumont, *ibid.* Operations in the south of France, ii 321. The British army under Lord Wellington pass the Adour, *ibid.* Battle of Orthes, *ibid.* Bourdeaux declares for the Bourbons, ii 322. Operations in the vicinity of Paris, ii 324. Arrival of the allies, after repeated victories and defeats, before Paris, ii 327. Napoleon places his army in their rear, ii 328. Battle of Paris, ii 329. Surrender of that city, ii 331. Operations in the south of France, ii 336. Battle of Toulouse, *ibid.* Cessation of hostilities, ii 340.

— in America. (See America and United States.)

— of 1815.—Immense preparations of the allies, ii 454. Plan of the campaign, *ibid.* Marshal Blücher's proclamation, ii 455. Duke of Wellington's head-quarters at Brussels, *ibid.* Napoleon quits Paris, and repairs, at the head of his army, to the Belgic frontier, ii 456. Passes the Sambre, ii 457. Enters Charleroi, *ibid.* Retreat of the Prussians, *ibid.* Surprise of the Duke of Wellington, *ibid.* Marches to meet the enemy, ii 458. Battle of Quatre Bras, *ibid.*—of Ligny, ii 460. Retreat of the Prussians to Wavre, ii 461.—and of the British to Waterloo, ii 462. Advance of the French to Waterloo, *ibid.* Battle of Waterloo, ii 463. List of regiments engaged, with a statement of the aggregate loss in killed and wounded, ii 476. Official accounts of the battle, ii 479—485. Honours conferred upon the victors, ii 485.

— in France, 1815.—The allies enter the French territory, ii 494. Advance on Paris, *ibid.* Arrival before that city, ii 496. Conflict under the walls, ii 497. Convention for the sur-

render of Paris, ii 497. Operations in Italy: Attack made by Murat on the Austrians at Cesena, ii 526. Series of engagements, ii 527. Overthrow, capture, and execution of the King of Naples, ii 528.

Camperdown, battle of, i 205.

Canning, Mr. Appointed secretary of state for foreign affairs, ii 18. Duel with Lord Castlereagh, ii 117. Attempted justification of, *ibid.* Resigns his office, *ibid.*

Cape of Good Hope, surrender of, i 165. Attempt made by the Dutch to recover this settlement, i 188. Restored by the treaty of Amiens, i 390. Recaptured by the British, i 565.

Capet, Hugh, accession of, to the throne of France, i 17.

Carnot, his successful exertions to augment the republican army, i 112. Elected a member of the French Directory, i 162. Sentenced to deportation, i 220. Escapes, *ibid.* Appointed minister of war, i 352. Appointed minister of the interior, ii 446. Opposes the erection of a dictatorship, ii 457. Appointed a member of the provisional government, ii 492. Proscribed, ii 529.

Caroline, Princess, of Brunswick, marriage of to the Prince of Wales, i 173. Domestic dissimulations, ii 247. Attempts to impeach her character, *ibid.* Narrative of the proceedings and report of the commissioners, ii 248. Debarred from an unrestricted intercourse with her daughter, ii 261. Letter of, to the speaker of the house of commons, *ibid.* Recognition of her entire innocence by all parties, ii 252. Congratulatory addresses from various parts of the kingdom, ii 253. Fresh indignities offered to her royal highness, ii 351. Letter of, to the prince-regent, *ibid.* Augmentation of her income, ii 352. Quits the kingdom, ii 353.

Carrier, cruelty of, in La Vendee, i 126. His fall and death, *ibid.*

Castlereagh, Lord, appointed secretary of state for war and the colonies, ii 18. Charged with trafficking in seats in parliament, ii 111. With other corrupt practices, ii 112. Duel with Mr. Canning, ii 117. Resigns his office, *ibid.* Resumes the foreign department, ii 193. Letter of, in reply to the Duke of Bassano, ii 302. Conducts the negotiations on the part of Great Britain in France, ii 312. At the congress at Vienna, ii 360.

Catamaran, project, unsuccessful, i 474.

Catharine II. of Russia, death of, i 194.

Catholics, concessions to, i 142. Further concessions, i 443. Claims rejected, ii 17.

Cayenne conquered by the British, ii 115.

Ceylon, and the other Dutch settlements in the eastern seas, surrender to the English, i 165.

Chalk Farm, political meeting at, i 175.

Champ de Mars, celebration of the destruction of the Bastille, i 28—39.

Champ de Mai, festival of, ii 450.

Charette, a Vendean chief, executed, i 187.

Charles Emanuel, King of Sardinia, renunciation of his authority, i 233.

Charles IV. of Spain, abdication of, in favour of his son, ii 48. Protests against his abdication, *ibid.* Retires in France, ii 50.

Charles VII. of France renders the crown absolute, i 17.

Charles, archduke, commands the German troops, and arrests the progress of the French army, i 186. Meets Napoleon in battle, ii 92. Officiates as the proxy of Napoleon in his marriage with Maria Louisa, ii 150.

Charles XIII. of Sweden ascends the throne, ii 101.

Charlotte, Princess-royal of England, marriage of, i 218.

Charlotte, Princess of Wales, born, i 177. Treaty of marriage on the tapis with the Prince of

Orange, ii 353. Broken off, *ibid.* Precipitate departure from Warwick-house to the residence of her mother, *ibid.* Marriage of, ii 524.

Chatham, Earl of, commands the expedition to the Scheldt, ii 116. Fails in this enterprise, ii 117. Vote of censure passed upon, ii 136.

Chaumont, treaty of, ii 318.

Chauvelin, M. mission from the French republic to the British government, i 76. Correspondence with Lord Grenville, i 77.

Chesapeake *Agate*, attack upon, by Admiral Berkeley, ii 32.

Christian VII. King of Denmark, death of, ii 77.

Christophe assumes the government of Hayti on the death of Dessalines, i 569.

Civil List, charges on, i 469.

Cintra, convention of, ii 68.

Clairfait, General, commands in the Austrian army, i 91. Succeeds Prince de Cobourg, i 117.

Clark, Mrs. examination of, in the house of commons, in support of the charges against the Duke of York, ii 106.

Clootz, Anacharis, visionary theories of, i 133.

Cobourg, Prince de, assumes the command of the Austrian forces, i 83. Manifesto, i 87. Revoked, i 90. Resigns the chief command of the Austrian army to General Clairfait, i 117.

Cobourg, Prince Leopold of, character of, ii 525.

Cockburn, Admiral, employed against the American towns on the coast, ii 403. Appointed to convey Napoleon in the Northumberland to St. Helena, ii 505.

Cochrane, Lord, gallant exploit of, in Basque Roads, ii 114. Charged with and convicted of a conspiracy to defraud the members of the stock exchange, ii 357. Expelled from the house of commons, *ibid.* Re-elected by the city of Westminster, *ibid.*

Cold Bath Fields Prison, remarks on, in parliament, i 313.

Collingwood, Admiral, gallant conduct of, in the battle of Trafalgar, i 534. Assumes the command of the fleet after the death of Nelson, i 536. Elevated to a peerage, i 540.

Concordat, i 365. 404.

Condé, Prince of, assembles an army of malcontents at Coblenz, i 29.

Confederation of the Rhine, formation of, i 579.

Conscription, military, French code of, ii 41. Marine, ii 158.

Congress at Antwerp, i 90.

at Radstadt, i 222. 279.

at Prague, ii 283.

at Chatillon, ii 309. 320.

at Vienna, ii 85.

Constituent Assembly, i 25. Dissolved by its own act, i 28.

Continental system, decrees for enforcing, ii 35. Operations of, ii 102.

Copenhagen, battle of, in 1801, i 370. Bombardment of, in 1807, ii 27.

Corday, Charlotte Anne Marie, assassinates Marat, i 98. Heroic conduct and execution of, i 99.

Cordelier party, a sect of the mountain, i 132. Execution of the principal members, i 133.

Corn, scarcity of, in 1795, i 175.—in 1800, i 345.

Corn Bill, passed in 1804, i 468. Discussions upon, in 1814, ii 350. Petitions against, *ibid.* Free exportation of corn allowed, *ibid.* Importation restricted, ii 512.

Cornwallis, Marquis, appointed Viceroy of Ireland, i 266. His humane and enlightened policy, *ibid.* Negotiates the treaty of Amiens, i 369.

Coronation Oath, i 368.

Corsica surrenders to the British, i 131. New constitution of, i 131. Evacuated by the British troops, i 168.

Cortes of Spain convoked, ii 126. Assembly, ii 132. Difficulties of, ii 183.

Corunna, battle of, ii 72.

Cossacks, character of, ii 230.

Cuirassiers, French, description of, ii 456.

Cumberland, Duke of, parliamentary grant to negatived, ii 514.

Curacao surrenders to the British, i 361. Restored by the treaty of Amiens, i 390. Recaptured by the British, ii 28.

Custine appointed to the command of the French army of the north, i 92. Accused of treachery, i 93. Executed, i 109.

Cutting and stabbing, malicious, act passed to render a capital offence, i 443.

Dalrymple, General Sir Hew, assumes the chief command of the British army in Portugal, ii 68. Concludes the convention of Cintra, *ibid.*

Dampierre appointed to the command of the French army, i 90. Mortally wounded, i 91.

Danrr, Captain, Linois's squadron repulsed by, i 475.

Danton, an active member of the Jacobin club, i 30. Energetic reply of, i 47. A leading member of the mountain party, i 94. Executed with a number of his associates, i 133. Biography of, *ibid.*

Dantzic besieged, i 593. Capitulates, i 596.

Dardanelles, unfortunate expedition to, ii 21.

Debry, Jean, assassination of, attempted near Radstadt, i 279.

Debt, National, of Great Britain, in 1802, i 397.—in 1815, ii 519.

Decades established in France in lieu of the Sabbath, i 111.

Decrees, anti-commercial, French and English, ii 35.

Defenders, i 247.

Demerara surrenders to the British, i 451.

Democratic party in America favour the war with Great Britain, ii 366.

Denmark becomes a party to the northern confederacy, i 363. Involved in a war with England, i 369. Obligated to succumb, i 371. Required by Great Britain to surrender her fleet, ii 29. Refusal of, *ibid.* Her capital bombarded, and her fleet wrested from her, ii 27. Situation of the country in 1813, ii 274. Concludes a treaty of peace with Great Britain and Sweden, ii 300.

Despard, Colonel, confinement of, in the Cold Bath Fields prison, i 313. Conspiracy of, i 413. Trial of, i 414. Execution, i 415.

Dessaix, expedition of, into Upper Egypt, i 228. Killed in the battle of Marengo, i 355.

Dessalines appointed Governor-general of St. Domingo, i 460. Killed in an insurrection at Hayti, i 569.

Dillon, General, assassinated by his troops, i 37.

Directory, French, chosen, i 162. Conspiracy against, i 190. Corrupt conduct of, i 221. Disensions with the councils, i 326. Dissolution of, i 329.

Domingo, St.—Effects of the French Revolution upon, i 88. Deputies from, admitted into the national convention of France, i 132. Military operations in, i 155. Spanish part of, ceded by treaty to France, i 156. Completely evacuated by the British, i 234. State of, in 1800, i 364. Arms sent from France sent against, i 406. Military operations in, i 407. Temporary conquest of, i 408. General revolt against the French, i 447. Ravages of the yellow fever, *ibid.* Sanguinary nature of the contest, i 448. Expulsion of the French, i 449.

Establishment of a negro government, i 450. Plan for the recovery of this settlement formed by Louis XVIII. ii 425. Abandoned, ii 426.

Dresden, battle of, ii 287.

Duckworth, Admiral, victory over *Le Seigle*, i 564.

Dumouriez, appointed to the command of the French army, i 44. Gains the battle of Gemappe, i 62. Repairs to Paris, i 64. Having rejoined his army, makes an eruption into Holland, i 81. Forced to retreat, i 83. Enters into a treasonable correspondence with the allies, i 85. Arrests the French commissioners and abandons his army, i 86. Escapes to the Austrian head-quarters, i 87.

Duncan, Admiral, defeats the French fleet off Camperdown, i 205. Created Viscount Camperdown, *ibid*.

Dundas, Sir David, appointed commander-in-chief, ii 110. Resigns, ii 167.

Dupont, defeat and surrender of his army in Spain, ii 54.

Duroc, Marshal, mortally wounded, ii 282. Biographical notice, ii 303.

Dutch Commissioners, corrupt conduct of, ii 112. *East India Company*, charter renewed in 1793, i 141. Traffic in appointments, ii 111. Charter modified and renewed in 1813, ii 257.

East India Affairs, i 309. Campaign in the Mysore country, *ibid*. Fall of Seringapatam, i 311. War in India in 1803, i 477. Details, i 477—484.

Ecclesiastics, French, abjure the Christian religion, i 108.

Eckmühl, battle of, ii 92.

Edgeworth, the Abbe, confessor of Louis XVI. i 70.

Education, national, French, ii 159. English, ii 170.

Egypt, conquest of, contemplated by General Bonaparte, i 225. State and description of, i 226. Campaign in 1798, i 227—in 1798—9, i 290—in 1800, i 348. In 1801, arrival of the British army under Sir Ralph Abercrombie in the Bay of Aboukir, i 377. Battle of Alexandria, on the 13th of March, *ibid*. On the 21st of March, i 378. Surrender of Rosetta and Cairo to the Anglo-Turkish army, i 382. Evacuation of Egypt by the French army, *ibid*. Estimate of the loss of the British and French, i 383. British expedition to, in 1807, ii 21.

El-Arich, treaty of, i 348. Rupture, i 349.

Elbe, blockade of, by the British, i 453. Navigation of, interdicted to the English, i 578. Blockaded by the English, *ibid*.

Elizabeth, Princess, trial of, by the French revolutionary tribunal, i 134. Executed, i 135.

Ellenborough, Lord Chief-justice, appointment to a seat in the cabinet discussed, i 346.

Emmett, Robert, one of the chiefs of the Irish rebellion of 1803, i 417. Trial and execution of, i 422.

Enghien, Duc de, arrest, mock trial, and execution of, i 448. Impression produced by this event on foreign states, i 491.

Erfurth, imperial meeting at, ii 59. Joint letter of Alexander and Napoleon to the King of England, *ibid*. Correspondence consequent thereon, *ibid*.

Esequeibo surrenders to the British, i 451.

Europe, review of the state of, previous to the breaking out of the first revolutionary war, i 32. Situation of, at the commencement of the nineteenth century, i 35. At the commencement of the second revolutionary war, i 446. In 1805, i 512. At the conclusion of the war in 1814, ii 360—364.

Eylau, battle of, i 594.

Fayette, M. de la, imbibes the principles of freedom in America, i 22. Appointed one of the

commanders in the army of France, i 36. Invites the army to reinstate the king, i 44. Quits his army, and is arrested by the Austrians, i 45. Biographical notice of, *ibid*. Distinguishes himself during the second reign of Napoleon, ii 453.

Federal party in America adverse to the war with Great Britain, ii 365.

Figueras, surrender of, to the French, ii 181.

Ferdinand IV. of Naples, driven from his throne, i 233. Reinstated, i 282. Dethroned, ii 118. Restored, ii 527.

Ferdinand VII. ascends the throne of Spain, ii 48. Renounces the throne in favour of Bonaparte, ii 49. Removed to Valency in France, ii 50. Abortive attempt to rescue him, ii 129. Liberated, and returns to Spain, ii 321. His reception by his subjects, ii 363. Tyrannical conduct, *ibid*. Restores the Inquisition, *ibid*.

Ferguson, Robert, convicted of an attempt to rescue Arthur O'Connor, i 246.

Feudal System abolished in France, i 27.

Fevillans, club of, established by the constitutionalists, i 30.

Fitzgerald, Lord, mortally wounded, i 246.

Fitzwilliam, Earl, appointed Lord-lieutenant of Ireland, i 172. Recalled, i 173.

Fleurus, battle of, i 115.

Floreal, Jacobin conspiracy of, i 190.

Fox, Charles James, strenuous opposition to the war, i 76. Name erased from the council-book by the king, i 240. Refused admission into the cabinet, i 466. Appointed secretary of state for foreign affairs, i 545. Memorable resolution of, for the abolition of the slave-trade, i 550. Last speech in parliament, *ibid*. Letter to M. Talleyrand regarding a project to assassinate the Emperor Napoleon, i 558. Last illness and death, i 561. Biographical notice, i 562.

Fox, General, distinguishes himself in Flanders, i 114.

France—Monarchical. Retrospect of the history of, i 17. Accession of Louis XVI. to the throne, i 18. Espouses the cause of America in her contest with Great Britain, *ibid*. Notables assembled and dissolved, *ibid*. Parliament assembled, i 19. Suspended, *ibid*. Commotions consequent thereon, i 20. National bankruptcy, apprehended, *ibid*. States-general convoked, *ibid*. Assembled at Versailles, *ibid*. Swear never to separate until the constitution shall be formed, i 21. Assemblage of foreign troops round Versailles, *ibid*. Revolution, i 22. Causes of, *ibid*. Bastille captured and destroyed by the citizens of Paris, i 24. Emigration of the *grande*, i 23. Declaration of the rights of man by the national assembly, *ibid*. The provinces and the capital in a state of anarchy, i 26. Divided into departments, i 27. Constitutional act completed, *ibid*. Dissolution of the constituent assembly, i 28. Meeting of the legislative assembly, i 29. Press, influence of, *ibid*. Political clubs, *ibid*. Extent and population of, i 33. Invasion of, i 39. Deposition of the king, i 44.

—Republican. National convention assembled, i 54. Royalty abolished, *ibid*. Republic proclaimed, *ibid*. Massacre, i 58. Declares war against Sardinia, i 60. Military force in 1792, i 61. Trial and execution of the king, i 64—72. Recall of the British ambassador, i 76. War declared against Great Britain and Holland, i 80. Insurrection in La Vendee, i 93. Preponderating influence of the mountain party, i 94. Federal confederacy to dissolve the convention, i 96. Reign of terror, i 108. New calendar, i 110. Vast augmentation of the army, i 112. Reign of terror continued, i 132. Revolutionary tribunal, i 131. Transportation of the deputies to Guiana, i 161.

Trial and execution of the judges and jurors of the revolutionary tribunal, i 160. New constitution completed, i 161. Insurrection of the sections of Paris, *ibid.* National convention dissolved, i 162.

France.—Directory chosen, i 162. Conspiracies against, i 190—192. State of the Gallican church, i 192. Synod, i 193. Dimensions between the directory and the council of five hundred, i 219. Decree in favour of the emigrants, i 220. Arbitrary conduct of the council, *ibid.* Revolution of the 18th Fructidor, *ibid.* Synod, (second,) i 408. Exclusion of the royalists and anarchists from the councils, i 222. Critical situation in 1799, i 286. Energies, *ibid.* Dimensions between the councils and the directory, i 327. Changes in the directory, *ibid.* Revolution of the 18th and 19th Brumaire, i 338.

Consular. New government established, i 331. Substance of the constitution, i 333. Consuls, Bonaparte, Cambaceres, and Le Brun, *ibid.* Peace proposed to England, i 335. Royalist conspiracy against the consular government, i 363. Preponderating influence on the continent, i 384. Concludes a treaty of peace with England, i 389. Epitome of the revolution, i 403. Diplomatic intercourse with England, i 423. Hostile complexion of, i 424. Terminates in a renewal of the war, i 434. Declaration, i 451. Meeting of the legislative body, i 435. Royalist conspiracy against the chief consul, *ibid.* Organic senatus conferring the title of emperor on Napoleon Bonaparte, i 494.

Imperial. Ceremony of the coronation, i 496. Napoleon's letter to the King of England, i 514. Answer, *ibid.* Coalition against, i 516. Act of aggrandizement of the Napoleon family, i 581. Conscription code, ii 41. Tribunates abolished, ii 43. Fortresses on the Meuse added to the French empire, *ibid.* New nomenclature, ii 78. Aggrandizement of Napoleon, ii 100. Powerful tendency in the government toward an absolute despotism, ii 151. Further extension of the empire, ii 152. Marine conscription law, ii 158. Substitutes for colonial produce, *ibid.* Convocation of bishops, ii 159. System of national education, *ibid.* Heir-apparent to the French throne born, *ibid.* War with Russia, origin and causes of, ii 209. Events of. (See Russia.) Immense preparations for the campaign of 1813, ii 211. Progress of the campaign, ii 276. Senate convoked, ii 290. Addressed by the Empress-regent, *ibid.* Arrival of Napoleon in Paris, ii 297. 300,000 men placed at the disposal of the minister of war, *ibid.* Legislative body assembled, ii 306. Napoleon professes his wish for peace, *ibid.* Report of an extraordinary commission, *ibid.* Napoleon's philippic thereon, ii 307. Takes the field against the invading army, ii 309. Arrival of the allies in front of Paris, ii 327. State of the capital, ii 329. The empress and her son quit Paris, *ibid.* The government of Napoleon denounced by the allies, *ibid.* Capitulation of Paris, ii 331. Paris entered by the allies, ii 333. Convocation of the senate, *ibid.* Decree declaring Napoleon to have forfeited the throne, ii 334. Abdication of Napoleon, ii 336.

Monarchical. Constitutional charter voted by the senate, ii 336. Louis XVIII. called to the throne, *ibid.* Public entry of the Count d'Artois into France, ii 340. Arrival of Louis XVIII. into France, ii 341. Declines to accept the charter, *ibid.* Ascends the throne, ii 342. Definitive treaty of peace, *ibid.* State of the government, ii 412. Sketch of the ministry, ii 413. Opening of the royal session, *ibid.* Royal constitutional charter, ii 414. Rejection of the charter adopted by the senate, ii 416. Restrictions on the press, *ibid.* Spouses, ii 418. Finance, ii 421. National domains, sales of, pro-

nounced inviolable, ii 423. Emigrant property, *ibid.* Corn laws, ii 424. Ecclesiastical schools, i 425. Penitentiary, *ibid.* Close of the session, i 426. Dissatisfaction of the military, *ibid.* Disinterment of Louis XVI. and his consort, ii 437. Reprehensible neglect of the minister regarding Napoleon's meditated return, ii 431. Departure of Napoleon from Elba, ii 432. His triumphant march to Paris, ii 433. Louis quits Paris, ii 436. Napoleon reascends the throne, ii 439.

France.—Imperial. Dispersion of the Bourbons, ii 439. Submission of the country to the new authorities, ii 447. Censorship of the press abrogated, *ibid.* Slave-trade abolished, *ibid.* Preparations for war, ii 448. Tendency towards despotism, *ibid.* New constitution, ii 449. Champ de Mai, ii 450. Meeting of the chambers, ii 452. Their temper, ii 453. Crisis in the affairs of France, ii 455. Napoleon places himself at the head of the army, ii 456. Battle of Waterloo, ii 463. Return of the emperor to Paris, ii 466. Agitations in the councils, ii 487. Meeting of the chambers, *ibid.* Abdication of Napoleon in favour of his son, ii 490. Napoleon II. recognised as emperor by the chamber of deputies, ii 492. Commissioners despatched to treat with the allies, *ibid.* Conferences, ii 496. Arrival of the allied armies under the walls of Paris, *ibid.* The chambers continue their deliberations, ii 498. Declaration of rights, *ibid.* Conferences held by the Duke of Oporto with the Duke of Wellington and Louis XVIII. ii 499. Dissolution of the provisional government, ii 500. Chamber of peers separate, ii 501. Chamber of deputies excluded by an armed force, *ibid.* Process verbal thereon, *ibid.*

Monarchical. Second entry of Louis XVIII. into Paris, ii 501. New ministry, *ibid.* Dissolution of the chambers, ii 523. Elections, *ibid.* Proscription lists, ii 529. Abridgment of the liberty of the press, *ibid.* Confirmation of the abolition of the slave-trade, *ibid.* Army disbanded by a royal ordinance, ii 530. Organization of a new army, *ibid.* State trials commenced, *ibid.* Louvre dismantled, ii 531. Ministerial changes, ii 532. Meeting of the legislative body, *ibid.* Ultra royalist party predominate, ii 533. Persecution of the Protestants, *ibid.* Treaty of peace with the allies, ii 541. Military conventions for appointing the contributions of France to the erection of fortifications and the use of the allied powers, *ibid.* Line of fortresses to be occupied by the allied armies, *ibid.* The chief command of the allied troops conferred on the Duke of Wellington, *ibid.* Treaty of alliance between Great Britain, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, signed at Paris, *ibid.* Salutary advice given by the allied sovereigns to Louis XVIII. *ibid.*

Francis II. Emperor of Germany, takes the field in person, ii 512. Quits the army in disgust and returns to Vienna, ii 514. Assumes the title of Emperor of Austria, i 498. Interview with Napoleon after the battle of Austerlitz, i 529. Resigns the title of Emperor of Germany, i 530. Becomes a party to the holy league, ii 533.

Franks invade Gaul, i 17.

Fraternity, decree of, i 76.

Frederick Augustus, Elector of Saxony, elevated to the rank of king, i 603. Receives the duchy of Warsaw from Napoleon, *ibid.* Adheres to the fortunes of Napoleon, ii 273. Made prisoner with his court, ii 296. Energetic protest of, against the partition of his kingdom, ii 361.

Frederick William II. of Prussia, the Agrammation of the league against France, i 33. Relaxes his exertions, i 102. Secedes from the confederacy, i 111. Death of, i 222.

Frederick William III. of Prussia ascends the

throne, i 222. Banished from his capital by the French army, i 588. Takes refuge in Memel, i 591. Prosperous change of fortune, ii 292. Enters Paris as a conqueror, ii 333. Visits England, ii 354. Becomes a party to the holy league, ii 523.

Frederick IV. ascends the throne of Denmark, ii 72.

French commercial agents at British ports, instructions to, i 437.

French Princes, adhesion of, to the answer of Louis XVIII. i 455.

Frere, Mr., Sir John Moore urged by, to advance to Madrid, ii 69.

Friedland, battle of, i 599.

Fruclidor, revolution of the 18th, i 220.

Gaeta, obstinate defence of, i 575. Surrender of, i 577.

Garde, General, shot by the fanatics at Nismes, ii 534.

Geneva acknowledges the French republic, i 60. Captured by the allies, ii 306.

Genoa, democracy established in, i 200. Besieged by the Austrians, i 350. Capitulation of, i 353. Naval blockade of, i 359. Annexed to France, i 516. United to the kingdom of Sardinia, ii 362.

George III. attacked by a mob on his way to parliament, i 175. Hadfield, a maniac, attempts his life, i 346. New title, i 365. Indisposition in 1801, i 369. In 1803, i 462. Recovery, *ibid.* Attains the 50th year of his reign, ii 118. Deeply affected by the death of the Princess Amelia, ii 145. Mental indisposition of, *ibid.* Continuance of, ii 168.

George, Prince of Wales, marriage of, i 173. Claims on the duchy of Cornwall, i 306. Grant of 60,000*l.* per annum, i 443. Correspondence with the king on military service, i 444. Appointed prince-regent, ii 143. Retains his father's ministers, *ibid.* Refuses under a restricted regency to accept a provision for his household, ii 160. Domestic disquietudes, ii 247. Splendour of his reign, ii 524. Causes of his want of popularity, *ibid.*

Georges, arrest of, i 485. Conviction and execution of, i 487.

German Empire declares war against France, i 84.

Gerona, fall of, ii 127.

Ghent, treaty of, ii 411.

Gironde Party predominate in the legislative assembly, i 31. Character of, i 94. Declining influence, *ibid.* Overthrow, i 96. Execution of the deputies, i 110. Reviving influence of the party, i 137.

Gold coin disappears from circulation, i 212.

Gordon, Sir Alexander, killed at Waterloo, ii 470.

Goree surrendered to the British, i 360. Taken by the French, i 470. Recaptured, i 471.

Gower, Earl, recalled from Paris, i 76.

Gower, Lord Leveson, sent as ambassador to the court of Russia, i 477.

Goza, surrender of, to the British, i 234.

Graham, General, commands at Barossa, ii 178.

Grattan, Mr. duel between, and Mr. Corry, i 343. Advocates the Catholic claims with the veto, ii 142.

Great Britain.—Conflicting opinions on the French revolution, i 75. Ambassador recalled from Paris, i 76. Refusal to treat with M. Chauvelin the French minister, *ibid.* Correspondence thereon, i 77—79. Message of his majesty to parliament, recommending an augmentation of his forces, i 79. Further attempts made by France to negotiate, *ibid.* British manifesto, i 80. Parliament suddenly convoked, i 138. Discussions on the speech, i 139. Public feeling excited in favour of war,

i 139. Alien bill passed, *ibid.* Commercial embarrasments in 1793, i 142. Mr. Fox's motion to open a negotiation with France, negatived, *ibid.* Prosecutions for seditions in Scotland, i 143.

Great Britain.—Session of parliament of 1794, i 144. Suspension of the habeas corpus act, i 145. Trials for high-treason, *ibid.* Act for the augmentation of the militia, i 144. War declared against Holland, i 165.

Session of 1795, i 169. Motion in favour of peace by Mr. Wilberforce, negatived, i 171. Mr. Fox's motion on the state of the nation, i 172. State of Ireland, *ibid.* Motion on the slave-trade, i 174.

Session of 1795—6, i 175. Attack on the king on his way to meet his parliament, *ibid.* Extension of the treason and sedition laws, i 176. Proceedings in parliament upon the scarcity, *ibid.* Dissolution of parliament, i 179. Threatened with invasion, i 207.

Session of 1796—7, opened, i 208. Negotiations announced, *ibid.* Failure of, i 210. Augmentation of the military force, i 211. Gloomy aspect of public affairs, i 212. State of Ireland, i 215.

Session of 1797—8, opened, i 237. Address of both houses, *ibid.* Secession of the opposition members, *ibid.* Measures of finance, i 238. Menaced invasion, i 239. Duke of Bedford's motion for the removal of ministers, i 240. Discussions on the state of Ireland, i 241. Act to enable the English militia to serve in that country, i 242.

Session of 1798—9, opening of, i 312. Motion for negotiations rejected, i 313. Habeas Corpus suspension act renewed, *ibid.* Income tax bill introduced, i 314. Passed, i 316. Proposed union with Ireland, *ibid.* Proceedings upon, i 321—326.

Session of 1799—1800, i 337. Bill for recruiting the army from the militia, *ibid.* Recent correspondence with the French government discussed, *ibid.* Proposed inquiry into the expedition to Holland, i 339. Renewal of the suspension of the habeas corpus act, i 340. Act of union passed, i 345. Receives the royal assent, *ibid.* Discussions of the scarcity, *ibid.* Gloomy aspect of public affairs, i 364. Population, i 365. Change in the royal title, *ibid.*

Session of 1800—1. First imperial parliament assemblies, i 366. Change of ministry, i 368. Patriotic efforts of the people in the prospect of invasion, i 394. Treaty of peace concluded with France, i 399.

Session of 1801—2, i 393. Discussions on the preliminary treaty, i 394. On the convention with Russia, i 395. On the definitive treaty, i 399. Rewards voted by parliament to Dr. Jenner, Mr. Gresham, and Dr. J. C. Smith, for discoveries, i 402. Dissolution of parliament, i 403.

Session of 1803, i 434. Message of the king announcing the termination of the negotiations with France, *ibid.* Discussions thereon, i 435. Motion by Mr. Fox for accepting the mediation of Russia, i 440. Measures adopted for the defence of the country, i 441. Immense voluntary associations, i 442.

Session of 1803—4, i 456. Continued suppression of the habeas corpus act in Ireland, i 457. Martial law in that country, i 458. List of volunteer and yeomanry corps, i 460. Estimated force of the united kingdom, i 461. Motion on the state of Ireland, i 462. Act to accept the proffered service of the Irish militia, i 463. Systematic and combined attacks on the Addington administration; *ibid.* Negotiations for a combined administration, i 466. Failure of, *ibid.* Change

of ministry, i 466. Bill for the abolition of the slave-trade carried in the house of commons, but rejected in the lords, i 467. State of parties in 1805, i 600.

Great Britain.—Session of 1805. Renewal of the habeas corpus suspension act in Ireland, i 501. Discussions on the tenth report of the commissioners of naval inquiry, i 505. Weak and distracted state of the cabinet, i 511.

—Session of 1806, i 542. Death of Mr. Pitt, *ibid.* New ministry, i 545. Motion on the appointment of Lord Ellenborough, i 546. New military system, i 547. System of finance involving an increase of the property tax, i 548. Resolution for the abolition of the slave-trade carried, i 551. Correspondence between Mr. Fox and M. Talleyrand, resulting in a negotiation for peace, i 558. Negotiation, *ibid.* Failure of, i 559. Death of Mr. Fox, i 561. New ministerial arrangements, i 562. Dissolution of parliament, i 563.

—Session of 1806-7. Meeting of the new parliament, ii 9. Bill for ameliorating the administration of the law in Scotland, ii 12. Plan for amending the condition of the poor, ii 13. Bill for the abolition of the slave-trade passed into a law, ii 15. Catholic question, agitation of, ii 17. Abstract of Lord Howick's bill, *ibid.* Dissolution of the ministry, ii 18. New ministry, *ibid.* Dissolution of the three months' parliament, *ibid.* Contested elections, ii 19. Sweden subsidized, ii 75.

—Session of 1808. Discussions on the attack on Copenhagen, ii 80. On the orders in council, ii 84. Petitions against their continuance, *ibid.* Discussion on the rejected mediation of Austria, *ibid.* On reverentary grants, ii 86. On the droits of the admiralty, ii 87. On the military system, *ibid.* On capital punishments, ii 88. On the state of Spain, *ibid.* On a minimum in wages, *ibid.* Public disturbances, ii 89.

—Session of 1809, ii 102. Monument voted to Sir John Moore, *ibid.* Augmentation of the military force, ii 103. Discussions on the convention of Cintra, ii 104. On the disasters in Spain, *ibid.* Charges against the Duke of York, *ibid.* Proceedings upon, ii 106-110. Bill to render penal the brokerage of public offices, ii 110. Charge against Lord Castlereagh, ii 111. Against his lordship and Mr. Perceval, ii 112. Bill to prevent the traffic in seats in parliament, ii 113. Parliamentary reform, plan of, *ibid.* Discussions with America, ii 115. Intrigues in the cabinet, ii 117. Ministerial duel, *ibid.* Changes in the cabinet, ii 118.

—Session of 1810. Opened, ii 135. Motion for an inquiry into the Walcheren expedition, carried, *ibid.* Strangers excluded from the discussion, on the motion of Mr. Yorke, *ibid.* Motion to rescind the standing order, *ibid.* Commitment of John Gale Jones for breach of privilege, ii 136. Vote of censure on the Earl of Chatham, *ibid.* Resolutions censuring the expedition, negatived, ii 137. Motion of Sir Francis Burdett for the liberation of J. G. Jones, negatived, *ibid.* Sir Francis Burdett committed to the Tower, ii 138. Report of the bullion committee, ii 141. Motion for parliamentary reform, negatived, ii 142. For the removal of Catholic disabilities, negatived, *ibid.* On the state of the nation, negatived, ii 143.

—Session of 1810. Interregnum parliament assembled in consequence of the king's indisposition, ii 145. Repeated adjournments, *ibid.* Resolutions for supplying the personal exercise of the royal authority, ii 147.

—Session of 1811. Opened by commission, ii 148. Regency bill passed, *ibid.* The existing administration retain their offices, *ibid.*

Great Britain.—Regency parliament of 1811. Opened by commission, ii 150. Motion on the conduct of Lord Eldon in 1804, ii 161. Commercial distresses, ii 162. State of the currency, *ibid.* Motion on ex-officio information, ii 163. On delays in chancery, ii 164. On the toleration laws, ii 165. On the reinstatement of the Duke of York, ii 167. State of Ireland, ii 168.

—Session of 1812. Royal establishments, ii 191. Expiration of the restrictions upon the executive, ii 192. Ministerial negotiations, *ibid.* Motion for a more extended administration, ii 193. For improving the police of the metropolis, ii 194. For an inquiry into the state of the nation, *ibid.* For an inquiry into the policy of the orders in council, *ibid.* Assassination of Mr. Perceval, ii 195. Parliamentary proceedings thereon, *ibid.* Ministerial negotiations resumed, ii 197. Motion for a more efficient administration carried, *ibid.* Failure of the negotiations for a more efficient ministry, ii 198. Orders in council rescinded, ii 199. Motion on the Catholic claims, ii 201. New toleration act, *ibid.* Discussions on pacific overtures made by France, *ibid.* Dissolution of parliament, ii 202. Elections, *ibid.* Disturbances in the manufacturing districts, ii 205.

—Session of 1812-13. Opened, ii 245. Grant to the Russians, *ibid.* Discussions on the American documents, *ibid.* On the criminal code, ii 246. On supplying the royal authority, *ibid.* On the letter of the Princess of Wales to the speaker, ii 251. On the Catholic claims, ii 253. On the Unitarian claims, ii 254. On the stipendiary curates' bill, ii 256. Appeal respecting Scotch marriages, *ibid.* Renewal of the East India company's charter, ii 257.

—Session of 1813-14. Bill to enable the militia to enter into the army, without limitation, ii 300. For authorizing the issue of paper money on the continent, to be guaranteed by England, Russia, and Austria, *ibid.* Public business suspended by the general rejoicings, ii 347. Resumed, *ibid.* Discussions on the guarantee of the cession of Norway to Sweden, *ibid.* Address to the prince-regent, on the slave-trade, ii 348. Corn bill, proceedings upon, ii 350. Discussions upon the indignities offered to the Princess of Wales, ii 351. Royal visit paid by the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia, ii 353. Discussions on Lord Cochrane's case, ii 357. On the state of Ireland, ii 359. Address to the prince regent on the definitive treaty with France, *ibid.* Clause on the slave-trade introduced, *ibid.*

—War with America. Causes of the war, ii 304. 365. Its events, ii 368-409. Treaty of peace concluded at Ghent, ii 411.

—Sensation produced by the reappearance of Napoleon from Elba, ii 441. Proceedings of parliament thereon, ii 442. Treaty of alliance with the allies, *ibid.* Honours voted by parliament to the heroes of Waterloo, ii 445. Property tax act repealed, ii 511. Corn bill introduced, *ibid.* Popular ferment consequent thereon, *ibid.* New financial arrangements, ii 513. Debilitating effects of the war, ii 516. Stagnation of commerce, ii 517. Loans and subsidies granted to foreign powers, ii 519. Synopsis of the British revenue and expenditure, from 1790 to 1816, ii 520. Statement of the public debt at the close of the year 1815, *ibid.* Estimate of its public and private property, ii 521. Cost of the war, ii 523. Population of the British empire, ii 521. Parliamentary grant to the Princess Charlotte of Wales and the Prince of Saxe-Cobourg on their marriage, ii 524.

Greathead, Mr., inventor of the life-boat, i 403. *Grenville, Lord*, correspondence with M. Chauvelin, i 76. Official reply of, to Bonaparte's letter

to the King of England, i 335. Appointed first lord of the treasury, i 545. Resigns, ii 18. Refuses to accept office with Mr. Perceval's administration, ii 118. Declines a second application, ii 192.

Grey, Sir Charles, appointed joint commander of the expedition to the West Indies, i 150.

Grey, Earl, declines to conclave with Mr. Perceval's administration, ii 118. Declines a second application, ii 192.

Gaudatoupe captured, i 151. Reconquered, i 154. Theatre of civil war, i 410. Capitulates to the British, ii 143.

Guerillas, Spanish, ii 182.

Gustavus III. of Sweden, assassination of, i 32.

Gustavus Adolphus IV., hostility of, towards France, i 499. Refusal of, to accede to the treaty of Tilsit, i 602. Capricious conduct of towards Sir John Moore, ii 77. Deposed, ii 101.

Habeas Corpus Act, suspension of, i 145. Renewed suspension, i 313. Further suspension, i 340. Suspended in Ireland, i 457.

Hamburgh, taken possession of by the French, i 589. Occupied by the Russians, ii 276. Falls again into the hands of the French, *ibid.* Oppressed by the army under Davoust, ii 300.

Hanse Towns annexed to the French empire, ii 153.

Hanover, Elector of, expresses his adherence to the treaty between France and Prussia, i 156. Invaded by France, i 452. Overrun, *ibid.* Proposed to be given by France to Prussia, i 577. Declared an integral part of Westphalia, ii 153. Liberated by the Crown-prince of Sweden, and the electoral government restored, ii 300. Raised to the rank of a kingdom, ii 362.

Hardy, Thomas, trial of, for high-treason, i 146.

Harvey, rebel commander in Ireland, removed from his command, i 260. Executed, i 268.

Hastings, Warren, Esq. acquitted, after a trial of seven years, i 174.

Hadfield, a maniac, attempts the king's life, i 346.

Helena, St. description of, ii 507.

Hesse Cassel, Landgrave of, makes peace with France, i 156.

Hill, General, gallant exploit of, at Arroyo del Molino, ii 180.

Hoche appointed to a command in the French army, i 102. Assumes the chief command on the Rhine, i 199.

Hoffer, the Tyrolean chief, gallantry of, ii 100. His fate, *ibid.*

Hohenlohe captured with the wreck of his army by Murat, i 588.

Hohenlinden, battle of, i 558.

Holland, overrun by the French armies, i 121. Enters into a treaty of alliance with France, i 122. Involved in a war with England, i 165. New republican constitution, i 190. National religion abolished, i 194. Constitution remodelled, i 222. British expedition against in 1799, i 303. Failure of that enterprise, i 308. Created a kingdom under Louis Bonaparte, i 581. Effects of the continental system on that country, ii 152. Throne abdicated, *ibid.* United to France by a decree of the senate, ii 153. Emancipation of the country from the yoke of France, ii 298. Establishment of its independence under the rule of the Prince of Orange, ii 299. Aggrandized by the accession of the Belgic provinces, ii 364.

Hood, Admiral, obtains possession of Toulon in trust for Louis XVII. i 104. Captures four French frigates, i 568.

Hope, Sir John, assumes the command of the British troops during the battle of Corunna, ii 72.

Horte, Captain, success of, near Lima, ii 153.

Hotham, Vice-admiral, engages the French fleet in the Mediterranean, i 167.

Houchard, the French commander at Dunkirk, arrested, i 101. Tried and executed, i 110.

Howe, Lord, victory over the French fleet, i 186.

Howick, Lord, appointed secretary for foreign affairs, i 563. Introduces a bill for the relief of the Catholics, ii 17. Resigns, ii 18.

Hughes, Victor, expedition of to the West Indies, i 152. Succeeds, i 166.

Hull, General, invasion of Canada by, ii 368. Disgraceful capitulation of, ii 369. Trial and sentence of, *ibid.*

Humbert, General, lands in Ireland at the head of a small French force, i 269. Advances to Castlebar, *ibid.* Surrenders, i 270. Animated description of the general and his officers, i 272.

Hutchinson, General, succeeds Sir Ralph Abercrombie in the chief command in Egypt, i 380.

Income Tax proposed by Mr. Pitt, i 314. Carried, i 316.

Infernal machine, i 362.

Inquisition, Spanish, recommend a quiet submission to the Napoleon government, ii 52. Abolition of by Bonaparte, ii 53. Restoration of by Ferdinand, ii 263.

Ionian Islands placed under British protection, ii 115.

Ireland.—Proceedings of Parliament, i 174. Dreadful state of, *ibid.* Distractions in, i 215. Rebellion in, i 243. Predisposing causes of, *ibid.* Progress of, i 244. French conquest, *ibid.* Arrest of the principal conspirators, i 245. Organization of the insurgents, i 248. Sir Ralph Abercrombie appointed commander-in-chief, i 250. Resigns the command, *ibid.* Succeeded by General Lake, *ibid.* Horrible cruelties, i 251. Insurrectionary movements in Dublin, *ibid.* Operations in Kildare and Carlow, i 262. In Wexford, i 254. Battle of Ross, i 259. Of Arklow, i 261. Of Vinegar-hill, i 262. Surrender of Wexford, i 263. Local risings in Ulster and Munster, i 265. Surrender of the rebel chiefs, *ibid.* Trials and execution of several, *ibid.* Act of amnesty, i 266. Disclosures made by the principal conspirators, i 267. State prisoners sent to Fort George, *ibid.* Object of the rebellion, *ibid.* Estimate of the pecuniary loss arising from the rebellion, i 268. List of the Catholic chapels destroyed, *ibid.* Estimate of the number of the insurgents, i 269. Landing of the French under General Humbert at Killala, *ibid.* Advance to Castlebar, *ibid.* Surrender, i 270. Battle of Killala, *ibid.* Napper Tandy's arrival at the Isle of Rhé, i 273. Re-embarkation, *ibid.* Total extinction of the rebellion of 1798, i 275. Fate of the Protestant leaders, *ibid.* King's message relative to a union with England, i 317. Recommended by the lord-lieutenant, i 318. Address approving, negatived in the Irish parliament, i 319. Resolutions for an union carried in the British parliament, i 323. Last session of the Irish parliament opened, i 341. Violent discussions, *ibid.* Act of union ratified, i 345. Extinction of the Irish parliament, *ibid.* State of Ireland in 1803, i 417. Insurrection in, *ibid.* Premature attempt of the conspirators, i 418. Murder of the chief justice, i 419. Extinction of the rebellion, i 421. Trial of the principal conspirators, *ibid.* Continued suspension of the habeas corpus act, i 457. 501. Situation of the country in 1811, ii 168. Proceedings of the Catholic committee, *ibid.* Trial of the delegates, ii 169. Insurrection act of 1807 revived, ii 359.

Iron Crown, order of, instituted by Napoleon, i 581.

Italy.—Convention meets at Modena, i 184. The states resolve themselves into a republic, *ibid.*

- Bonaparte appointed president of, i 404. Erected into a kingdom, i 514. Aggrandizement of, ii 78. Military operations in 1813, ii 289.
- Jackson*, Rev. convicted of high-treason, i 245. Expires in court, *ibid*.
- Jacobins*, why so named, i 29. The predominant party, i 46. Energy of, *ibid*. Disruption of their club, i 137.
- Jaffa* taken by assault, i 294. Sanguinary conduct of the French at, *ibid*.
- Jamaica*, insurrection of the Maroons in that island, i 166.
- Java*, island, conquered by the British, ii 156.
- Jena*, battle of, i 585.
- Jenner*, Dr. his discovery and reward, i 402.
- Jervis*, Sir John, appointed joint-commander of the expedition to the West Indies, i 150. Defeats the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent, i 203. Created Earl St. Vincent, i 204.
- Jesuits*, order of, restored, i 363.
- Jews*, convocation of, at Paris, i 582.
- John*, Archduke, commands at Hohenlinden, i 338.
- Jones*, John Gale, committed to Newgate for a breach of privilege, i 136.
- Joubert*, General, succeeds Moreau, i 284. Killed at the battle of Novi, i 285.
- Jourdan*, General, invested with the chief command in the French army, i 401. Storms the Austrian camp at Betenines, i 115.
- Jubilee*, celebration of, ii 118.
- Killala*, battle of, i 270. Bishop of, his description of the battle, i 274—of the French officers, i 272.
- Kilwarden*, Lord Chief-justice of Ireland, murder of, i 419. Pardon voted to his family, i 462.
- King of Rome*, birth of, ii 169.
- Kleber*, General, appointed to the chief command of the French army in Egypt, i 302. Assassinated, i 356.
- Kutsoff*, General, obliged to retreat before the French in Moravia, i 304. Appointed commander-in-chief of the Russian army, ii 220. Rejects the pacific offers of the French emperor, ii 227. Pursues the fugitive French army, ii 231. Death of, at Buntzlau, ii 276. Biographical notice, ii 301.
- Labedoyere*, Colonel, joins the standard of Napoleon, ii 436. Trial, ii 500. Execution, ii 531.
- Lake*, General, appointed commander-in-chief in Ireland during the rebellion, i 250. Appointed commander-in-chief in India, i 478. Successful campaign of 1803, i 478—484. Elevated to the peerage, *ibid*.
- Lancaster*, Joseph, system of education, ii 170.
- Lancy*, General, mortally wounded at Waterloo, ii 470.
- Land Tax*, redemption bill, i 239.
- Lanjuinais* founds the Jacobin club, i 29.
- Lauderdale*, Lord, appointed to negotiate with the French government, i 539.
- Lavallette*, Count, condemned to death for high-treason, ii 538. Pardon refused by the king, *ibid*. Rescued from prison by the skill and self-devotion of his wife, *ibid*. Conveyed by the generous interference of Sir Robert Wilson, Mr. Bruce, and Captain Hutchinson, beyond the French frontier, ii 539.
- Lawrence*, Captain, of the Chesapeake, gallant death of, ii 385.
- League*, holy, ii 522.
- Leclerc*, General, appointed to command the armament against St. Domingo, i 407. Cruelty of, i 447. Death of, i 448. Biographical notice, *ibid*.
- Legislative Assembly*, meeting of, i 29. Declares the power of Louis XVI. to be suspended, and invite the people to form a national convention, i 44.
- Legion of honour* instituted, i 406. Conferred by Louis XVIII. ii 423.
- Leipzig*, battle of, ii 522.
- Leoben*, treaty of, i 199.
- Leopold*, Prince of Saxe-Cobourg, visits England, ii 324. Married to the Princess Charlotte of Wales, *ibid*.
- Lepaux*, Reveilliere, elected a member of the French directory, i 162.
- Letourneur* elected a member of the French directory, i 162. Retires by lot, i 219.
- Life-boat*, description of, i 402.
- Linois*, Admiral, sails to the East Indies, i 451. Repulse of his squadron by the East India fleet, i 475. Captured by Sir J. B. Warren, i 565.
- Lisle*, negotiations at, i 235. Unfavourable issue of the negotiations, i 236.
- Lodi*, passage of the bridge at, i 182.
- Louis XI.* reduces the innovations of his predecessors into a regular system, i 17.
- Louis XV.* wars and dissipation of, unfavourable to liberty, i 18.
- Louis XVI.* accession of, to the throne of France, i 18. Suspends the states-general, i 21. Conducted from Versailles to Paris by the mob and the national guards, i 27. Quits Paris with his family, i 28. Intercepted at Varennes, *ibid*. Accepts the constitutional act, *ibid*. Opposes his veto to certain acts of the legislative assembly, i 29. Proposes to declare war against Austria, i 35. Suspected of treason to the nation, i 38. Attack on his palace, i 42. Powers suspended by the legislative assembly, *ibid*. Imprisoned in the temple, i 44. Accused of high-treason, i 64. Arraigned at the bar of the convention, *ibid*. Trial, i 65. Sentence, i 69. Appeal to the people rejected, i 70. His last interview with his family, *ibid*. Behaviour at the scaffold, i 71. Decapitation, i 72. Interment, *ibid*. Last testament, i 73. Extension of the collision against France occasioned by his death, i 74. Disinterment of, ii 427. Reinterment, *ibid*.
- Louis XVII.*, dauphin, death of, i 161.
- Louis XVIII.* quits the Venetian territories and finds an asylum at Mitau, i 181. Refusal of, to resign his claim to the throne of France, i 455. Supposed plot against the life of, at Warsaw, i 492. Protest of, against the assumption of the imperial dignity by Napoleon, i 495. Recalled to the throne of France, ii 336. Arrives in that kingdom, ii 341. Ascends the throne of his ancestors, ii 342. Difficulties of his situation, ii 412. Grants a royal constitutional charter, ii 414. Rejects the charter adopted by the senate, ii 416. Exalted notions of prerogative, *ibid*. Quits Paris and retires to Ghent on the approach of Napoleon from Elba, ii 439. Advances in the rear of the allied armies towards Paris, ii 495. Second entry into Paris, ii 501.
- Louis*, Prince of Prussia, killed, i 584.
- Louvre*, dismantled, ii 531.
- Lucia*, St. reduced, i 151. Recaptured, i 166. Surrendered to the British, i 451.
- Luckner*, appointed one of the commanders of the French republican army, i 37. Executed during the reign of terror, i 110.
- Luddism*, historical sketch of, ii 305. Extinction of, ii 308.
- Luneville*, treaty of, i 359.
- Lutzen*, battle of, ii 377.
- Lyons* surrenders to the republican troops, i 104. Subjected to cruel inflictions, i 105. Consults at, i 404.
- Macdonald*, General, skilful retreat of, in Italy i 284.

Mack, General, surrenders Ulm, i 519.
Madaira seized by the British, i 374.
Maddocks, Mr., prefers a charge of corrupt practices against Lord Castlereagh and Mr. Perceval ii 112.
Maida, battle of, i 576.
Maillard, Captain, receives Napoleon on board the Bellerophon, ii 504.
Malesherbes, Lamoignon, counsel of Louis XVI. executed, i 134.
Malmesbury, Lord, appointed to negotiate a treaty of peace at Paris, i 209. At Lisle, i 235.
Malta taken by the French, i 226. Recaptured by the English, i 361. A principal cause of the war, i 426.
Mantua, siege of, i 184. Ineffectual attempt to raise the siege, i 196. Surrenders to the French, i 196. To the allies, i 284.
Marat, an active member in the Jacobin club, i 30. A leading member of the mountain party, i 94. Assassinated by Charlotte Corday, i 98.
Marengo, battle of, i 355.
Maret sent to England with conciliatory overtures, i 79. Not permitted to open his mission, *ibid*. Created Duke of Bassano, ii 78.
Maria Antoinette, consort of Louis XVI. Trial and execution of, i 109. Disinterred, ii 427. Re-interred, *ibid*.
Maria Theres Louise, daughter of Louis XVI. released from captivity, i 161.
Maria Louise, Archduchess of Austria, marriage of with the Emperor Napoleon, ii 150. Delivered of a son, ii 159. Appointed regent, ii 272. Quits Paris with her son and repairs to Blois, ii 329. Placed at the head of the regency government there, ii 335. Retires with her son into Switzerland, ii 340.
Marr's family murdered, ii 194.
Marsailles submits to the conventional troops, i 104. Insurrection in, i 191.
Marsbals of France, list of, ii 78.
Martin, Admiral, successful enterprise of against a French squadron, ii 115.
Martino, capture of, i 151. Restored by the treaty of Amiens, i 390.
Massena, his success in Italy, i 186. In the Grisons, i 285. In Switzerland, i 286.
Maupepas, Count, prime minister of Louis XVI. i 18.
Mauritius, or Isle of France, captured by the British, ii 145.
Mauzy, Abbe, anecdote of, i 28.
Mazarine, minister of France, imposes enormous taxes, i 18.
Melville, Lord, resolutions against, moved by Mr. Whitbread, i 508. Carried, i 509. Resigns his office, *ibid*. Name of, erased from the council book, i 511. Impeachment of, i 510. Trial, i 552. Acquittal, i 557.
Menou, Abdallah Bey, assumes the command of the French army, i 350. Refuses to evacuate Egypt, *ibid*. Consents to withdraw with the French army from Egypt, i 383.
Miquelon falls into the hands of the British, i 451.
Militia, supplementary, i 239. Suffered to volunteer into the regulars, ii 103.
Millon, Lord, elected a member for Yorkshire, ii 19. Motion of on the reinstatement of the Duke of York, ii 167.
Milan, decrees issued at, ii 38.
Minorca, surrender of, to the British, i 234.
Ministry, British, i 368. 466. 545. 563; ii 18. 117.
Minck, Admiral, surrender of the Texel fleet to, i 304.
Moirs, Earl of, expedition under, to the coast of La Vendee abandoned, i 103. Repairs to the

theatre of war in Flanders, i 116. Employed to negotiate a more efficient administration, ii 193.
Monte Video carried by assault, ii 23. Evacuated, ii 25.
Moore, Sir John, advance of, at the head of the British army into Spain, ii 69. Received with apathy by the Spaniards, *ibid*. Obligated to retreat, ii 70. Purchases the victory of Corunna with his life, ii 72. Monument to the memory of, voted by parliament, ii 103.
Moreau, General, appointed to command a detachment of the French army, i 117. Succeeds Pichegru in the chief command, i 119. Advances into Germany, i 185. His progress arrested by the archduke, i 186. Memorable retreat, i 187. Defeats Marshal Bellegarde in Italy, i 284. Implicated in a conspiracy against the consular government, i 485. Arrested, *ibid*. Trial and conviction of, i 487. Permitted to embark for America, i 488. Returns to Europe and enters the service of the allies, ii 286. Mortally wounded in the battle of Dreden, ii 288. Expires at Laun, *ibid*. Biographical notice, ii 303.
Mountain Party, its leading members, i 94. Sanginary character, i 108. Energetic measures against the foreign enemy, i 111. Divided into two sects—the Jacobins and the Cordeliers, i 133.
Mulgrave, Lord, letter of in answer to Napoleon, i 514.
Murat created Duke of Berg, i 581. Captures the wreck of Prince Hohenloes's army, i 587. Appointed president of the junta of Madrid, ii 52. Proclaimed King of Naples, ii 78. Appointed to the principal command of the wreck of the French army in Russia, ii 240. Assumes the command of the cavalry under Napoleon in Germany, ii 276. Joins the allies, ii 307. Again espouses the cause of Napoleon, ii 526. Sustains a series of defeats; ii 527. Abdicates his throne, *ibid*. Desperate effort to recover his dominions, ii 528. Made prisoner, tried, and shot, *ibid*.
Murphy, John, heads the Irish insurgents, i 255. Made prisoner and executed, i 264.
Murphy, Michael, commands in the rebel army in Ireland, i 259. Killed, i 261.
Murray, Sir John, invests Tarragona, ii 263. Raises the siege precipitately, *ibid*. Tried by a court-martial, ii 264. Adjudged guilty only on "an error of judgment," *ibid*.
Mutiny in the British fleet, i 213. Quelled, i 215. Trial of the mutineers, *ibid*. Execution of the ringleaders, *ibid*.
Naples concludes an armistice with General Bonaparte, i 183. Declares war against France, i 233. Sustains a signal defeat, *ibid*. King banished, *ibid*. Parthenopean republic established, i 277. Dissolved, i 289. Cruelties and treachery of the court, *ibid*. Concludes a treaty with France, i 373. Invaded by a French army, i 574. Subjugated by the French, i 575. Joseph Bonaparte declared king, *ibid*. Murat proclaimed king, ii 78. Espouses the cause of the allies, ii 307. Again makes common cause with France, ii 526. Subjugated, ii 527. Murat dethroned and Ferdinand IV. restored, *ibid*. Failure of Murat in a last desperate effort to regain his kingdom, ii 528.
Nassau, Prince of, killed at Waterloo, ii 470.
National Convention of France assembled, i 54. Decreases the abolition of royalty in France, *ibid*. Adverse to war with Great Britain, i 79. Decreases that no quarter shall be given to the English, i 115. Decreases the abolition of slavery, i 132. Fixes a maximum on the necessities of life, *ibid*. Decreases a festival in honour of the Supreme Being, i 135. Sanginary decree to give no quarter to the British, rescinded, i 138. Dissolves itself, i 162.
National Debt, British, amount of at the peace

of Amiens, i 397. At the close of the revolutionary war, ii 520.

National Institute, establishment of, in France, i 194.

Naval Affairs, i 125. Earl Howe's victory of the first of June, 1794, i 126. Defeat of the French squadron by Sir J. B. Warren, i 131. Loss of the *Alexander*, *ibid.* Campaign of 1795, i 167. Engagement in the Mediterranean, *ibid.* Capture of three French ships off L'Orient, i 168. Surrender of the Dutch squadron to the British in the bay of Saldannah, i 188. Battle of Cape St. Vincent, i 203. Battle of Camperdown, i 205. Mutiny in the fleet, i 213. Quelled, i 215. Battle of the Nile, i 229. Defeat of the French fleet off the coast of Ireland, i 274. Surrender of the Texel fleet, i 304. Incidents of 1799, i 311. Unsuccessful negotiations for a naval armistice in 1800, i 357. Loss of the Queen Charlotte, i 360. Operations in the Baltic, i 369. Battle of Copenhagen, i 370. Campaign of 1801, i 385. Defeat of the combined French and Spanish fleet off Algeiras, i 386. Events of 1803, i 454—of 1804, i 474. Preparations to repel invasion, i 473. Repulse of Linois' squadron by the East India fleet, i 475. Spanish treasure ships captured or destroyed, i 476. Campaign of 1805, i 531. Junction of the French and Spanish fleets, i 532. Sails for the West Indies, *ibid.* Pursuit of, by Lord Nelson, *ibid.* Engagement off Cape Finisterre, *ibid.* Returns to Europe, i 533. Battle of Trafalgar, i 534. Death of Nelson, i 535. Engagement off Ferrol, i 540. French squadron, under Admiral Le Seigne, captured or destroyed, i 564. Dispersion of Villamez's squadron, *ibid.* Linois' squadron captured, i 565.

British fleet appears before Constantinople, i 597. Expedition against Denmark, ii 26. Expedition against the French squadron in Basque Roads, ii 114. Destruction of a French squadron bound for the relief of Barcelona, ii 115. Capture of a French squadron near Lissa, ii 153. Destruction of a number of the enemy's vessels in the Bay of Sagone, ii 154. Destruction of their convoys, *ibid.* Capture of a French squadron in the Indian seas, ii 155. Dreadful shipwrecks, *ibid.*

In 1812, 13, and 14. (See America and United States.)

Surrender of the Neapolitan navy to the British, ii 527.

Necker, Comptroller-general of France, i 18. Displaced by de Calonne, *ibid.* Reinstated, i 20. Exiled, i 22.

Nelson, a rebel chief, apprehended in Dublin, i 262. Executed, i 275.

Nelson, Captain Horatio, employed under Admiral Hotham, i 167. Brilliant exploit at Leona, i 188. Loss of his arm at Teneriffe, i 207. Cruise in pursuit of the French fleet, i 229. Obtains the victory of the Nile, i 231. Honours showered down upon him by foreign powers, i 233. Created a baron, *ibid.* Gains the victory of Copenhagen, i 370. Takes the command of the British fleet off Cadix, i 533. Fights the battle of Trafalgar, i 534. Death of, i 535. Biographical notice of, i 536.

Neutrals, infringement of the rights of, i 189.

Ney, Marshal, surrender of his division in Russia, ii 235. Defection of, from the Bourbons, ii 438. Second in command at Waterloo, ii 463. Apprehended, ii 531. Tried, ii 536. Condemned, ii 537. Executed, *ibid.*

Nile, battle of, i 231.

Nitrous fumigation, i 403.

Northern confederacy, i 362. Treaty of armed neutrality signed by Russia, Sweden Denmark, and Prussia, i 363. Dissolved, i 373.

Notables, assembled in 1787, i 18. Dissolved *ibid.*

Novi, battle of, i 285.

O'Connor, Arthur, trial of, i 245.

O'Hara, General, made prisoner by the French at Toulon, i 106.

Orange, Prince of, desperate situation, i 121. Quits Holland and arrives in England, i 122. Recalled on the emancipation of his country from the French yoke, ii 299. Proclaimed sovereign prince of the Netherlands, *ibid.*

Prince of, wounded in the battle of Waterloo, ii 470.

Orange Lodges, i 248.

Orders in Council, British, ii 36. Rescinded, ii 199.

Orleans, Duke of, exiled, i 19. Foment the revolution, i 21. Falls one of its early victims, i 110.

Orthes, battle of, i 321.

Ostend, British expedition against, i 223. Is disastrous issue, i 234.

Otranto, Duke of, (Fouche,) at the head of the provisional government of France, ii 492. Memorial to the Duke of Wellington, ii 495. Conferences with the duke and with Louis XVIII, ii 499. Exertions of to diminish the proscription lists, ii 529. Dismissed from the ministry, ii 532. Exiled, *ibid.*

Oxford, royal visit to, ii 354.

Pakenham, Sir Edward, killed while heading his troops, ii 409.

Palafos, gallant defence of Saragossa by, ii 54.

Palm, John, trial and execution of, i 582.

Pampuna, surrender of to the Spaniards, ii 269.

Paris, capitulation of in 1814, ii 331. Definitive treaty of in 1814, ii 342. Capitulation of in 1815, ii 497.

Parker, Captain Sir Peter, mortally wounded, ii 405.

Parker, Richard, the mutineer, trial and execution of, i 215.

Parliamentary Reform, Mr. Grey's plan of, i 217. Sir Francis Burdett's plan, ii 113. Mr. Brand's plan, ii 142.

Paul, Emperor of Russia, joins the league against France, i 277. Indignant at Great Britain for withholding from him the grand-mastership of Malta, i 362. Assassination of by his courtiers, i 372.

Peace societies in America and England, their object, ii 523.

Peep-o'-day boys, i 247.

Peltier, M. trial of, for a libel against the first consul of France, i 416.

Perceval, Mr., appointed chancellor of the exchequer, ii 18. Charged with corrupt practices, ii 112. Appointed prime minister, ii 118. Assassinated, ii 195. Biographical notice, ii 197.

Perrott, Rev. Clement, report of on the persecutions in France, ii 536.

Pétion, Mayor of Paris, demands the deposition of Louis XVI, i 42. Proscribed, i 93.

Pichegru, appointed to a command in the French army, i 102. Defeats General Clairfait, i 113. Resigns his command to Moreau, i 119. Resumes the command of the army, i 120. Removed from his command, i 185. Implicated in a conspiracy against the consular government, i 485. Arrested, *ibid.* Death of in the Temple, i 486.

Pictou, Sir Thomas, falls gloriously at the battle of Waterloo, ii 466.

Piedmont and Parma annexed to France, i 404.

Pierre, St. falls into the hands of the British, i 451.

Pitt, William, prime minister, duel with Mr. Tierney, i 246. Resignation of as prime minister

i 368. Motion for a vote of censure upon, turned into a vote of thanks, i 398. Resumes his office as prime minister, i 466. Declining health, i 512. Death of, i 542. Biographical notice of, i 543.

Palmiz, treaty of, i 33.

Pius VI. sues for an armistice with France, i 183. Surrenders a portion of his dominions and a number of valuable paintings as the price of an armistice, *ibid.* Letter to Bonaparte, i 196. Concludes a peace with the French republic, i 197. Again involved in war with France, i 223. Made prisoner and removed to Valence, *ibid.* Death of, *ibid.*

Pius VII. elevated to the papedom, i 364. Reconciliation with Bonaparte, i 385. Legate despatched with congratulations, i 405. Crowns Napoleon, i 497. Deprived of his dominions by France, ii 100. Excommunicates Napoleon, *ibid.* Detained at Fontainebleau, ii 272. Reconciliation with Napoleon, *ibid.* Resumes the exercise of his temporal sovereignty, ii 363.

Platoff, the Hetman, the Cossack commander, repulses the advanced guard of the French army, ii 214. Death of his son, ii 230. Vigorous hostility against the French army, ii 231.

Plot, pop-gun, i 146.

Poland, dismemberment of, by Russia, i 149.

Pondicherry, surrender of, to the British, i 89.

Poniatowski drowned in the Elster, ii 296.

Ponsonby, Sir William, killed at the battle of Waterloo, ii 466.

Popham, Sir Home, unauthorized expedition to South America, i 567.

Population of France at the breaking out of the revolution, i 33.—Of Great Britain in 1801, i 265.—Of the French and British West India islands, i 451.—Of Great Britain in 1811, ii 172.—Of the British empire in 1815, ii 521.

Portland, Duke of, appointed prime minister, ii 18. Resignation of that office, ii 117.

Porto Rico, unsuccessful attack upon, i 207.

Portsmouth, royal visit to, ii 356.

Portugal, invasion of, by Spain, i 374. By France, *ibid.* Concludes a peace, *ibid.* Threatened with invasion by France, ii 43. Emigration of the royal family to the Brazils, ii 44. Situation of the mother country in 1808, ii 63. Animated to resistance by the example of Spain, *ibid.* The French driven from Oporto, ii 120.

Campaign of 1810, ii 129. Invasion of, by Massena, ii 130. Battle of Busaco, ii 131. Retreat of Lord Wellington to the lines of Torres Vedras, *ibid.* Freed from the presence of the French armies, ii 185.

Presburgh, peace of, ii 99.

Prevost, General, gallant defence of Dominica by, i 531. Commands the expedition against Plattsburgh, ii 406.

Prince of peace, the royal favourite at the court of Madrid, unpopular with the nation, ii 47.

Privileges of parliament, recognised by the judges, ii 140.

Protestant churches congratulate the first consul, i 405.

Protestants, persecution of, in the south of France, ii 533.

Prussia declares war against France, i 39. Manifesto of, i 41. Concludes a peace with the French republic, i 155. Indignant at the violation of her territory by France, i 523. Concludes a treaty with that power, i 530. Accepts from France the electorate of Hanover, i 578. Sudden change of policy in, i 579. Involved in a war with France, i 588. Disastrous issue of, i 588. Reduced to the rank of a second-rate power by the treaty of Tilsit, i 602. Troops of, engaged as

auxiliaries in the war against Russia, ii 217. Invited by Alexander, after the disastrous campaign of 1812, to declare against France, ii 272. Offers her mediation, ii 273. Rejected by Napoleon, *ibid.* Joins the league and declares war against France, *ibid.* Restored by the treaty of Vienna to more than her former greatness, ii 549.

Prussia, Queen of, her death, ii 153.

Pultusk, battle of, i 591.

Pyrenees, battle of, ii 265.

Quiberon, British expedition to, i 159. Disastrous result of, *ibid.*

Quigley, trial and execution of, i 245.

Rassier, rear-admiral, successful expedition of, against Ceylon, i 165.

Ratibon, battle of, ii 92.

Reubel elected a member of the French directory, i 169.

Revolutionary Tribunal, its sanguinary character, i 94.

Richelieu, Cardinal, policy of, i 18.

Richelieu, Duke of, placed at the head of the French ministry, ii 532.

Rights of Man, declaration of, i 25.

Rights of Seced stated, i 366. Regulated between England and Russia, i 373.

Robertoj, assassination of, near Radstadt, i 279.

Robespierre, a leading member of the Jacobin club, i 30. Of the Mountain party, i 94. Denounced, i 135. Arrested, i 136. Executed, with eighteen of his associates, *ibid.* Biography of, i 137.

Rochambeau appointed one of the commanders of the French armies, i 36. Resigns his command, i 38.

Rochambeau, General, appointed commander-in-chief of the French army in St Domingo, i 448.

Roche, Philip, chief in the insurgent army in Ireland, i 261. Executed, i 265.

Roland, Madame, condemned for her attachment to the Girond party, i 110. Her heroic conduct on the scaffold, *ibid.*

Roland, M. destroys himself, i 110.

Romana, Marquis de la, espouses the Spanish patriot cause, ii 58. Death of, ii 174.

Rome sues for an armistice, i 183. Concludes a peace with the French republic, i 197. Again involved in war, i 223. Entered by French troops, *ibid.* Capitulates to Captain Trowbridge, i 282. Becomes the victim of French aggrandizement, ii 100. Restored to the pope, ii 162.

Ross, General, killed in battle, ii 405.

Rostochin, Count, military governor of Moscow, consigns the ancient capital to the flames, ii 224.

Rousseau, Jean Jacques, decreed the honours of the Pantheon, i 122.

Rumbold, Sir George, seized at Hamburg, and conveyed to Paris, i 491. Released, i 492.

Russia, defensive treaty with, i 175. Death of the Empress Catharine II. i 194. Joins the league against France, on the accession of the Emperor Paul, i 377. Withdraws in disgust, i 289. Becomes a party to the northern confederacy, i 362. Imposes an embargo on British vessels, i 363. Death of Paul, i 372. Elevation of Alexander, i 373. Change of policy, *ibid.* Makes peace with England, *ibid.* Hostile discussion with France, i 498. Coalition of, with Austria and England against France, i 516. M. D'Oubril signs a separate treaty with France, i 559. Refusal of the court to ratify the treaty, i 560. Army arrives on the Vistula, i 590. Involved in a war with Turkey, i 597. Concludes a treaty of peace with France at Tilsit, i 601. Hostile declaration against England, ii 30. Invades Swedish Finland, ii 75. War with France

in 1812, origin and causes of, ii 209. Preparations for, ii 211. Lists of commanders, ii 212. The French army force the passage of the Niemen, ii 213. Advance to Wilna, ii 214. Napoleon enters Warsaw, *ibid.* Russians under Barclay de Tolly concentrated on the Dwina, ii 214. Hazardous march of Prince Bagration, *ibid.* Advanced guard of the French army repulsed by Platoff, ii 215. Peace concluded with Turkey, ii 216. Advance of the French to Smolensk, ii 219. Battle of Smolensk, *ibid.* Conflagration of that city, *ibid.* Country laid waste, *ibid.* Prince Kutusoff appointed commander-in-chief, ii 220. Battle of Borodino, ii 221. The French army enter Moscow, ii 223. Destruction of that city by fire, *ibid.* Pacific overtures made by the French and rejected by the Russians, ii 237. Napoleon quits Moscow and commences his retreat, ii 229. Battle of Tournai, *ibid.* Of Malo-Jaroslawitz, *ibid.* Operations near Riga, *ibid.* The Cossacks, under the Hetman Platoff, press upon the retreating army, ii 230. Commencement of a scene of unparalleled sufferings on the part of the retreating army, *ibid.* Action of Viasna, ii 231. Destruction of that city, *ibid.* Passage of the Vope, ii 232. Arrival of Napoleon at Smolensk, *ibid.* Retreat continued, ii 234. Horrible sufferings, *ibid.* Action at Krasnot, *ibid.* Termination of the first epoch of the retreat, ii 235. Concentration of the Russian armies, ii 236. Passage of the Beresina, ii 237. Capture of General Wrede's corps, ii 238. Twentieth bulletin, *ibid.* Napoleon abandons the wreck of his army, which sinks into a state of entire disorganization, ii 240. General D'York enters into a convention of neutrality with Russia, ii 242. The Austrians permitted to retire into Galicia, ii 243. Conjectural estimates of the French loss in the campaign, *ibid.*

Russia.—Preparations for the campaign of 1813, ii 271. (See *Campaign of 1813*.)
— offers her mediation between Great Britain and the United States, ii 399.

Saib, Tippoo, death of, i 310. Biography, i 311.

Salamanca, battle of, ii 186.

Saragossa, siege of, ii 55. Fall of, after an obstinate defence, ii 121.

Sardinia resists with vigour and success the efforts of France, i 104. Overwhelmed, i 181.

Saxony aggrandized by France, i 602. Adheres to the fortunes of Napoleon, ii 273. Overrun by the allies, ii 301. Placed in the provisional occupation of Prussia, ii 361.

Scheldt, British expedition to, under the Earl of Chatham, ii 116. Failure of, ii 117.

Schill, Major, gallant resistance of to the French, i 96. His fate, ii 97.

Sebastiani, report of, i 426.

St. Sebastian, siege of, ii 267.

Seringapatam, fall of, i 310.

Seville, Junta of, proclaim Ferdinand VII. and declare against France, ii 53.

Shears, John and Henry, arrest of, i 246. Trial and execution of, i 265.

Shipwreck on the coast of Portugal, i 472.

Siemowit, Viscount. (See Addington, Mr.) Bill introduced into parliament by, to abridge the toleration act, ii 165. Rejected, ii 166.

Siege of Williamstadt, i 82.

Valenciennes, i 92.

Mantua, i 184. 195, 196.

Acre, i 296—300.

Seringapatam, i 310.

Genoa, i 351. 354.

Dantzic, i 593.

Saragossa, ii 55. 121.

Cadiz, ii 129. 188.

Siege of Badajoz, ii 175. 178. 184.

Tarragona, ii 180. 263.

Burgos, ii 189.

St. Sebastian, ii 267.

Pampluna, ii 269.

Sieges, Abbe, elected a member of the directory, i 327. Projects the overthrow of the directorial constitution, i 328.

Sinking Fund, succinct history of, i 397.

Slave-trade, African, bill for the abolition of, carried in the commons, but rejected in the lords, i 467. Resolution for the abolition of, moved by Mr. Fox and carried, i 551. Act for the final abolition of, passed by the British legislature, ii 15. Royal assent affixed to by commission, the last act of the Whig administration, ii 16. Treaty of Paris stipulates for the extinction of this traffic in five years, ii 346. Motions on this article of the treaty made by Mr. Wilberforce, ii 359. Abolition of, by Napoleon, on behalf of France, ii 447. Confirmed by Louis XVIII. ii 529. Declaration of the allied powers, ii 543.

Slavery abolished by the national convention, i 132. Re-established in the French colonies, i 410. Fatal consequences of, ii 411.

Smith, Dr. J. C., parliamentary reward voted to, i 403.

Smith, Sir Sidney, gallant conduct at Acre, i 296.

Smolensk, battle of, ii 219.

Soult, Marshal, appointed Lieutenant de l'Empereur of the French army on the Spanish frontier, ii 264.

Sovereigns of Europe, list of, mutability of royal power, ii 118.

Spain engaged in hostilities with the French republic, i 156. Spanish treasure-ships captured, or destroyed, i 476. War declared against, by England, *ibid.* Debased and wretched situation of the country, ii 44. Conspiracy of the Prince of Asturias against his father, ii 46. Intrigues of Napoleon, *ibid.* French troops introduced into the heart of the kingdom, ii 47. Insurrection at Madrid, *ibid.* Abdication and counter abdication of the royal family, ii 48. Charles IV. and Ferdinand VII. lured to Bayonne, ii 49. Both abdicate in favour of Napoleon, ii 50. Royal family removed into the interior of France, *ibid.* Deputies convened at Bayonne, *ibid.* Massacre at Madrid, ii 51. Spanish authorities submit to Napoleon, ii 52. The Inquisition recommends a quiet submission to the new government, *ibid.* Spirit of resistance manifested by the juntas and the people, ii 53. Peace proclaimed by them with England, ii 54. Deputies sent to England to solicit assistance, *ibid.* Cordial co-operation promised by England, *ibid.* Surrender of the French fleet in Cadiz to the Spaniards, *ibid.* Dupont's army defeated by the patriots, ii 55. Gallant defence of Saragossa, *ibid.* Biscay in possession of the patriots, ii 56. Meeting of the Spanish notables at Bayonne, *ibid.* Joseph Bonaparte proclaimed King of Spain, ii 57. New constitution, *ibid.* Joseph Bonaparte crowned at Madrid, *ibid.* Obligated to quit that capital, *ibid.* Liberation of Romana's army, ii 58. Operations under Sir John Moore, ii 69. Disastrous issue, ii 73. Battle of Corunna, ii 72. Embarkation of the British after the battle of Corunna, ii 73. Advance of Napoleon to Madrid, at the head of the French army, ii 60—62. South American settlements declare for Ferdinand, ii 63.

— Campaign in, of 1809, ii 119. Position of the armies, *ibid.* Treaty of alliance with Great Britain, ii 120. Defeat of Blake's army, ii 121. Junction of the British and Spanish troops, *ibid.* Battle of Talavera, ii 122. Critical situation of

the British army, ii 124. Retreats to Badajoz, ii 125. Defeat of the Spaniards at Ocano, ii 126. At Alba, ii 127. Disastrous termination of the campaign, *ibid.*

Spain, campaign in, of 1810, ii 127. Fall of Seville, ii 128. Cadiz saved, *ibid.* Council of regency appointed, *ibid.* The cortes assemble, ii 132. Proceedings of, ii 133.

— campaign in 1811. State of the Peninsula, ii 173. Surrender of Badajoz to the French, ii 174. Retreat of Massena, *ibid.* Battle of Albuera, ii 175. Action at Fuentes d'Onoro, ii 177. Fall of Almeida, ii 178. Sanguinary contest at Barrosa, ii 179. At Arroyo del Molinos, ii 180. Fall of Tarragona, *ibid.*—of Figueras, ii 181—of Valencia, *ibid.* Guerilla war, ii 182.

— campaign in 1812. Capture of Badajoz, ii 184. Action at the bridge of Almaraz, ii 185. Battle of Salamanca, ii 186. Advance of the English to Madrid, ii 188. Enter the Spanish capital, *ibid.* Siege of Cadiz raised, *ibid.* Madrid evacuated by the English, who retreat to the Portuguese frontier, ii 189.

— campaign in 1813. Part of the French troops withdrawn, ii 259. Advance of the British army, ii 260. Battle of Vittoria, *ibid.* French army under Marshal Jourdan driven across the Spanish frontier, ii 261. Operations on the eastern coast of Spain, ii 263. Siege of Tarragona raised by the British troops with precipitation, *ibid.* Pass of Ordal carried by the French army under Suchet, ii 264. Retreat of the British troops under Lord William Bentinck, *ibid.* Operations in the Pyrenees, ii 265. St. Sebastian carried by storm, ii 267. The French territory entered by the British forces, ii 269. Surrender of Pampluna to the Spaniards, *ibid.* Operations on the French frontiers, ii 270.

Staffet, the Vendean chief, executed, i 187.

Stuart, Colonel, successful expedition of against Ceylon, i 165.

Strachan, Sir Richard, defeats and captures the four remaining ships of the combined fleet, i 540. Assumes the command of the naval part of the Walcheren expedition, ii 116.

Stuart, Sir John, obtains the victory of Maids, i 575.

Suchet, Marshal, commands the French troops on the east of Spain, ii 180. Created Duke of Albufera, ii 182.

Sudermania, Duke of, elevated to the throne of Sweden, under the title of Charles XIII. ii 101.

Supreme Spanish Junta, installation of, ii 57.

Storey, Admiral, surrenders the Dutch fleet to the English, i 304.

Surinam, surrender of, to the British, i 311. Restored by the treaty of Amiens, i 390. Captured by the British, i 471.

Suvorov, Marshal, assumes the command of the Austrian and Russian army in Italy, i 281. Successes, *ibid.* Reverses, i 287. Retreats, i 288. Death of, i 289. Biographical notice, *ibid.*

Sweden, all intercourse with France prohibited by, i 499. Imposes an embargo on Prussian vessels, i 578. Finland wrested from, ii 76. Desperate situation of, ii 101. Gustavus Adolphus deposed, *ibid.* Charles XIII. ascends the throne, *ibid.* Death of the crown-prince, ii 149. Marshal Bernadotte elected his successor, *ibid.* Joins the league against France, ii 275. State of her relations with France, ii 274.

Swiss Guards of Louis XVI. massacred 10th of August, 1792, i 43.

Switzerland.—War declared against, by France, i 223. Federal government changed, i 411. Interference of France in the affairs of, *ibid.* Un-

successful efforts of England to afford assistance to, i 412.

Talavera, battle of, ii 122.

Talleyrand, M., associated with M. Chauvelin as plenipotentiary from the French republic to the British government, i 76. Correspondence of, with Lord Grenville, i 336. With Mr. Fox, i 558. Abandons Napoleon, and contributes to the restoration of the Bourbons, ii 334. Holds a distinguished office in the councils of Louis XVIII. ii 343. Dismissed from the ministry, ii 532.

Tandy, Napper, arrival in Rutland Island, (Ireland,) i 274. Re-embarkation of, *ibid.* Trial of, *ibid.* Suffered to retire to France, *ibid.*

Tarragona carried by assault, ii 180.

Teneriffe, unsuccessful attack upon, i 207.

Terror, reign of, in France, i 107.

Thames, Earl, convicted of an attempt to rescue Arthur O'Connor, i 246.

Thelwall, John, trial of, for high-treason, i 148.

Tilsit, treaty of, i 601. Secret articles, i 602.

Tierney, Mr., fights a duel with Mr. Pitt, i 240.

Tithes abolished in France, i 27.

Titles of nobility abolished in France, i 27.

Tobago restored to France, i 410. Surrenders to the British, i 450.

Tolentino, treaty of, i 196.

Tooke, John Horne, trial of, for high-treason, i 148.

Toulon delivered into the hands of the British forces, i 104. Evacuated, i 107. Cruel treatment of the inhabitants, *ibid.*

Toulouse, battle of, ii 328.

Toussaint, Louverture, chief in St. Domingo, i 407. Gallant conduct, i 408. Seized and sent to France, i 409. Expires in prison, i 410. Biographical notice, *ibid.*

Trafalgar, battle of, i 534.

Trenck, Baron, one of the victims of the French revolution, i 134.

Trinidad, surrender of, i 207.

Trollope, Captain, gallant action of, i 189.

Trowbridge, Captain, Rome surrenders to, i 283.

Tschichagoff, Admiral, advance of, from the Danube, in 1812, ii 217. Extraordinary march of, ii 236.

Turgot, French minister of finance, i 18.

Turkey concludes a treaty with France, i 366. Declares war against Russia, i 597.

Tuscany, Duke of, withdraws from the coalition against France, i 155. Overrun by the French army, i 280. Evacuated, i 282.

Ulm, battle of, i 519.

Ultra royalists of France, ii 532.

Union between Great Britain and Ireland, message regarding, i 317. Progress of that measure, i 341. Act passed, i 345.

United Irishmen, origin and progress of the Society, i 248.

United States.—Declaration of war, ii 365. Outrage at Baltimore, ii 366. Army and militia, *ibid.* Navy of the United States, ii 367. Invasion of Canada, ii 368. Capture of Mackinaw, *ibid.* Battle of Brownstown, *ibid.* Surrender of General Hull, ii 369. Siege of Fort Wayne, *ibid.*—of Fort Harrison, *ibid.* Battle of Queenstown, ii 370. Smyth's attempt on Canada, ii 371. Chase of the Belvidera, *ibid.* Capture of the Alert, *ibid.*—of the Guerriere, ii 372—of the Macedonian, *ibid.*—of the Frolic, *ibid.*—of the Java, ii 373. Meeting of Congress, ii 374. Increase of the army, ii 375. Battle of Frenchtown, ii 376. Siege of Fort Meigs, ii 378. Attack on Ogdensburg, ii 379. Capture of York, *ibid.*—of Fort George, ii 380. Affair of Stony creek, *ibid.*—of the Beaver dams, *ibid.* Attack on Sackett's Harbour, ii 381. Bom-

- bardment of Lewistown, ii 382. Proceedings of Admiral Cockburn, *ibid.* Attack on Craney Island, ii 383. Capture of Hampton, *ibid.* Action between the Hornet and Peacock, ii 384—the Chesapeake and Shannon, ii 385—the Argus and Pelican, *ibid.*—the Enterprise and Boxer, *ibid.*—Decatur and Dominica, ii 386. Attack on Fort Stephenson, *ibid.* Battle on Lake Erie, ii 388. Battle of the Thames, ii 389. Attack on Mackinaw, ii 390. Expedition of General Wilkinson, *ibid.* Battle of Williamsburgh, ii 391. Advance of General Hampton, *ibid.* Skirmish at Chateaugay, ii 392. Attack on La Cible Mill, *ibid.* Burning of Newark, ii 393. British retaliation, *ibid.* Attack on Oswego, *ibid.* Affair at Sandy Creek, ii 394. Battle of Chippewa, *ibid.*—of Bridgewater, ii 395. Siege of Fort Erie, ii 396. Assault of the fort, *ibid.* Sortie of the besiegers, *ibid.* War with the Seminoles, *ibid.* Meeting of Congress, ii 398. Expatriation, *ibid.* Mediation of Russia, ii 399. Cruise of the frigate Essex, ii 400. Capture of the Eprevier, *ibid.*—of the Reindeer, ii 401—of the Avon, *ibid.*—of the Opone and Levant, *ibid.*—of the President, *ibid.*—of the Penguin, ii 402. Capture of Eastport, *ibid.* Attack on Stonington, *ibid.* Destruction of the John Adams, *ibid.* Battle of Bladensburg, ii 404. Capture of Washington, *ibid.* Attack on Baltimore, ii 405—on Plattsburgh, ii 406. Battle on Lake Champlain, *ibid.* Attack on Mobile, ii 407. Capture of Pensacola, *ibid.* Invasion of Louisiana, *ibid.* Battles of New-Orleans, ii 408, 409. Capture of Mobile, ii 409. Hartford Convention, ii 410. Meeting of Congress, *ibid.* Treaty of peace, ii 411.
- Usbridge, Earl of, wounded in the battle of Waterloo, ii 477. Created Marquis of Anglesea, ii 485.
- Vaccine Inoculation, discovery of, i 402.
- Valencia, capitulation of, to the French, ii 181.
- Vendee La, Insurrection in, i 93. State of the war in 1794, *ibid.* Submission of the insurgents, i 150. Cruelties, *ibid.* Renewal of the war, i 158. The insurgents subdued, i 187. Chiefs executed, *ibid.* Insurrectionary operations in, i 346. Extinction of, i 347.
- Venice, territories conquered by the French, i 200. Government subverted, *ibid.* United to the kingdom of Italy, i 580.
- Victor Emanuel, re-established on his throne, ii 362.
- Vienna entered by the French army, i 521. Capitulates a second time to Napoleon, ii 93. Congress assembled at, ii 360. Declaration of the congress, on the return of Napoleon from Elba, ii 440. General treaty concluded by the powers of Europe, ii 548.
- Vimiera, battle of, ii 66.
- Vincent, St. (Cape), battle of, i 203.
- Vittoria, battle of, ii 360.
- Vope, passage of the, by the French army, ii 232.
- Walcheren occupied by the British, ii 117. Pessimist climate of, *ibid.* Abandoned, *ibid.*
- Wales, Prince of. (See George.)
- Wales, Princess of. (See Caroline.)
- Wales, Princess Charlotte of. (See Charlotte.)
- Wales, debarkation of French criminals upon the coast of, i 208.
- Walker, Thomas, of Manchester, tried for high-treason and honourably acquitted, i 145.
- Walker, Captain Samuel, killed at Talavera, ii 124.
- Walmoden, General, assumes the command of the British army, i 121.
- Wardle, Mr., charges preferred by, against the Duke of York, ii 104.
- Warren, Sir John Borlase, captures four of the enemy's ships off Guernsey, i 131. Defeats the French fleet off Ireland, i 274. Victory over Li nois, i 565.
- Washington, city of, destroyed by the English, ii 404.
- Waterloo, battle of, ii 462. Heroes of, ii 485.
- Watt and Downie, trial for high-treason in Edinburgh, i 145.
- Wellesley, General, governor-general of India, i 477. Recalled, appointed secretary of state for the foreign department, ii 118. Appointed ambassador to Spain, ii 125. Recommends to the Supreme Junta to convolve the Cortes, *ibid.* Resigns his seals of office, ii 193. Employed to negotiate a more efficient administration, ii 198.
- Wellesley, Arthur, Major-general, distinguishes himself in India, i 478. Obtains the order of the Bath, i 484. Arrival of, in Portugal, ii 64. Obtains the battle of Vimiera, ii 66. Victorious at Talavera, ii 123. Created Viscount Wellington, ii 124.
- Wellington, Viscount, created an earl, ii 184. Elevated to the rank of captain-general of the Spanish army, *ibid.* Gains the battle of Salamanca, ii 186. Vanquishes the French army under Joseph Bonaparte at Vittoria, ii 261. Created field-marshal by the prince-regent, and Duke of Vittoria by the Spanish government, ii 262. Gains the battle of the Pyrenees, ii 265—of Orthes, ii 321—of Toulouse, ii 338. Created a duke, ii 348. Receives the thanks of both houses of parliament in person, ii 349. Assumes the command of the allied armies in the Netherlands, ii 455. Memorable triumph at Waterloo, ii 462—473. Appointed to the command of the precautionary allied army in France, ii 540.
- Weiser, blockade of, by the British, i 453.
- Westphalia erected into a kingdom under Jerome Bonaparte, i 602.
- West India, operations in, i 150. Conquests made by Great Britain, i 188. 449. Population of, i 451.
- Wexford County, principal theatre of the Irish rebellion, i 254. Town, surrender of, i 263. Trials and executions at, i 265.
- Wheat, average price of, for sixteen years, i 469.
- Whitbread, Mr., motion on the 10th report of the commissioners of the naval inquiry, i 505. Plan for amending the condition of the poor, ii 13. Melancholy death of, ii 514. Sketch of his character, ii 515. Tribute to, from distinguished men of all parties, *ibid.*
- White boys, i 247.
- Whitlocke, General, appointed commander of the British force in South America, ii 24. Disastrous campaign of, ii 25. Trial and sentence, *ibid.*
- Whitworth, Lord, appointed ambassador to the court of Paris, i 425. Conference with the first consul, i 427. Return to England, i 434.
- Williamson's family murdered, ii 194.
- Williams, John, alias Murphy, the supposed murderer of Marr's and Williamson's families, apprehended, ii 194. Commits suicide, *ibid.*
- Wilson, Sir Robert, charges preferred by, against Bonaparte, i 294. Contributes essentially to the escape of Lavalette, ii 539. Napoleon's remarks thereon, ii 540. Sentence, *ibid.*
- Windham, Mr., adverse to the volunteer system, i 443. Military system of, i 547. Death and character of, ii 143.
- Wilberforce, Mr., pacific motion of, i 170. Persuading efforts to effect the abolition of the slave-trade, i 174.
- Winsingerode, General, made prisoner, ii 228.
- Wirttemberg, Duke of, makes peace with France, i 186. Marriage of, to the Princess-royal of England, i 218.
- Wittgenstein, Prince, defeats the division of the

French army under the Duke of Reggio, ii 216. Operations of his army on the Dwina, ii 235. Appointed commander-in-chief of the Russian army on the death of Kutusoff, ii 277.

Wool, exportation of to Ireland, opposed, i 344.

Wrede, General, corps of, captured in Russia, ii 238.

Wright, Captain, Mr. Windham's motion upon his imprisonment in France, i 470. Death of, in the Temple, i 487. Napoleon's account of, *ibid.*

Wurmser, General, carries the enemy's lines at Weissembourg, i 102. Appointed to the chief command of the Austrian army, i 184. Is shut up in Mantua, i 195. Obligated to surrender, i 196.

Yorck, General De, treats for the neutrality of the Prussian army, ii 242.

York, Duke of, appointed commander of the British and Hanoverian troops, i 90. His campaign

of 1793, i 99—of 1794, i 113—115. Humane and noble conduct, i 115. Retreats into Holland, i 117. Returns to England, i 121. Appointed commander-in-chief, i 175. Assumes the command of the expedition against Holland, i 305. Charged with personal corruption, and criminal connivance at corruption in the duties of his office, ii 104. Acquittal, ii 110. Resigns his office, *ibid.* Reinstated, ii 167. Receives the thanks of parliament, ii 514.

York, Cardinal, pensioned, i 405.

Yorke, Mr., motion of, for the exclusion of strangers from the gallery of the house of commons, ii 135. Appointed teller of the exchequer, and first lord of the admiralty, ii 137. Rejected by the freeholders of Cambridgeshire, *ibid.*

Yorkshire, memorable contested election, in 1807, ii 19.

Zurich, battle of, i 287.

THE END.

